Monarchy

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A monarchy is a form of government in which sovereignty is actually or nominally embodied in a single individual (the monarch).[1]

Forms of monarchy differ widely based on the level of legal autonomy the monarch holds in governance, the method of selection of the monarch, and any predetermined limits on the length of their tenure. When the monarchs has no or few legal restraints in state and political matters, it is called an "absolute monarchy" and is a form of autocracy. Cases in which the monarchs discretion is formally limited (most common today) are called constitutional monarchies. In "hereditary monarchies", the office is passed through inheritance within a family group, whereas [[*elective monarchies]*] are selected by some system of voting. Historically these systems are most commonly combined, either formally or informally, in some manner. (For instance, in some elected monarchies only those of certain pedigrees are considered eligible, whereas many hereditary monarchies have legal requirements regarding the religion, age, gender, mental capacity, and other factors that act both as *de facto* elections and to create situations of rival claimants whose legitimacy is subject to effective election.) Finally, there are situations in which the expiration of a monarch's reign is set based either on the calendar or on the achievement of certain goals (repulse of invasion, for instance.) The effect of historical and geographic difference along each of these three axes is to create widely divergent structures and traditions defining "monarchy."

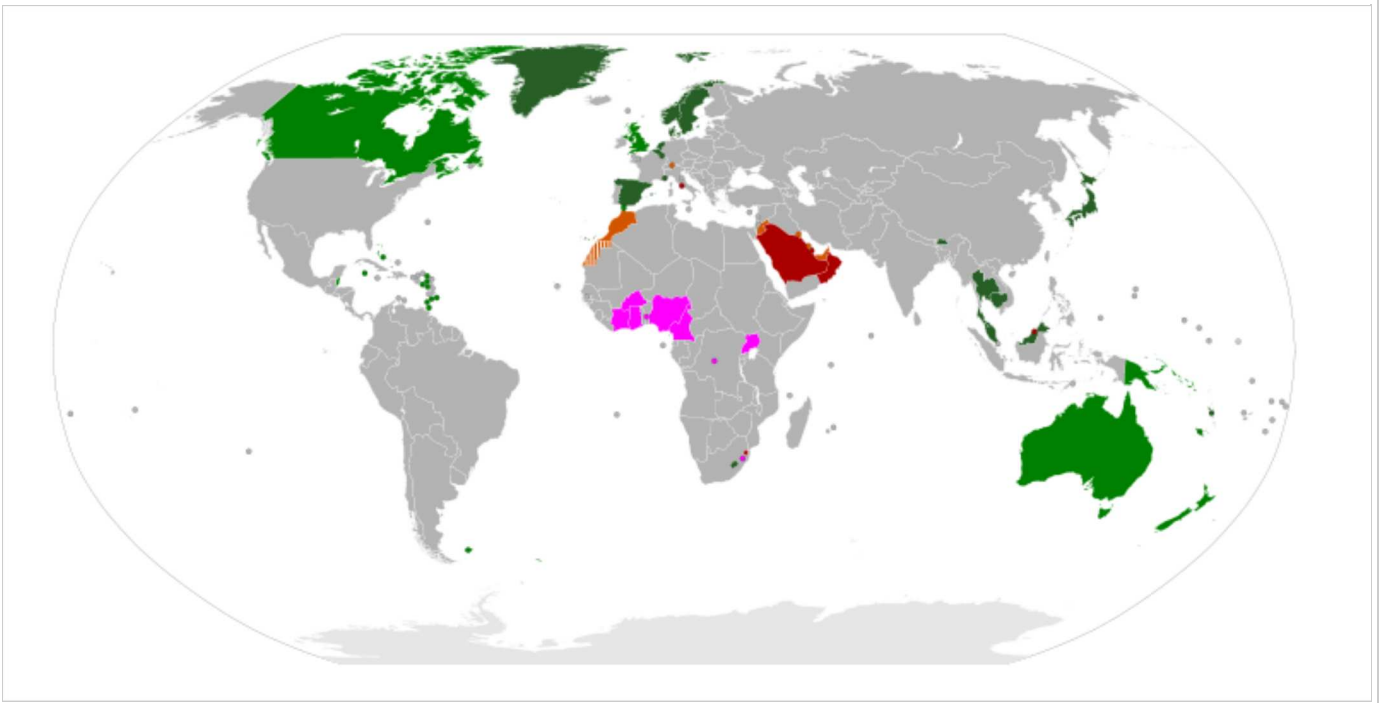


King Solomon's royal court.

Monarchy was the most common form of government into the 19th century, but it is no longer prevalent, at least at the national level. Where it exists, it now often takes the form of constitutional monarchy, in which the monarch retains a unique legal and ceremonial role, but exercises limited or no political power pursuant to a constitution or tradition which allocates governing authority elsewhere. Currently, 44 sovereign nations in the world have monarchs acting as heads of state, 16 of which are Commonwealth realms that recognize Queen Elizabeth II as their head of state. All European monarchies are constitutional ones, with the exception of the Vatican City, but sovereigns in the smaller states exercise greater political influence than in the larger. The monarchs of Cambodia, Japan, Jordan, Malaysia and Morocco "reign, but do not rule" although there is considerable variation in the amount of authority they wield. Although they reign under constitutions, the monarchs of Brunei, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and Swaziland appear to continue to exercise more political influence than any other single source of authority in their nations, either by constitutional mandate or by tradition. It is currently being used in England.



King Leopold I, elected founder of the hereditary monarchy of Belgium.



Absolute monarchy
Semi-constitutional monarchy
Constitutional monarchy
Commonwealth realms (constitutional monarchies in personal union)
Subnational monarchies (traditional)

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Etymology

The word *monarch* (Latin: *monarcha*) comes from the Greek *monàrches*, *μονάρχης* (from *mònos*, *μόνος*, "one/singular," and *àrchon*, *ἄρχων*, "leader/ruler/chief") which referred to a single, at least nominally absolute ruler. In current usage the word *monarchy* generally refers to a traditional system of hereditary rule, as elective monarchies are rare in the modern period.

History

Tribal kingship is often connected to sacral functions, so that the king acts as a priest, or is considered of Divine ancestry. The sacral function of kingship was transformed into the notion of "Divine right of kings" in the Christian Middle Ages, while the Chinese, Japanese and Nepalese monarchs continued to be considered living Gods into the modern period.

The system of monarchy since antiquity has contrasted with forms of democracy, where executive power is wielded by assemblies of free citizens. In antiquity, monarchies were abolished in favour of such assemblies in Ancient Rome (Roman Republic, 509 BC), Ancient Athens (Athenian democracy, 500 BC).

In Germanic antiquity, kingship was primarily a sacral function, and the king was elected from among eligible members of royal families by the thing. Such ancient "parliamentarism" declined during the European Middle Ages, but it survived in forms of regional assemblies, such as the Icelandic Commonwealth, the Swiss Landsgemeinde and later Tagsatzung, and the High Medieval communal movement linked to the rise of medieval town privileges.

The modern resurgence of parliamentarism and anti-monarchism began with the overthrow of the English monarchy by the Parliament of England in 1649, followed by the American Revolution of 1776 and the French Revolution of 1792. Much of 19th century politics was characterized by the division between anti-monarchist Radicalism and monarchist Conservativism.

Many countries abolished the monarchy in the 20th century and became republics, especially in the wake of either World War I or World War II. Advocacy of republics is called republicanism, while advocacy of monarchies is called monarchism.

Characteristics and role



A 19th century portrayal of Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan.

Monarchies are associated with political or sociocultural hereditary rule, in which monarchs rule for life (although some monarchs do not hold lifetime positions, such as the Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia, who serves a five-year term) and pass the responsibilities and power of the position to their children or family when they die. Most monarchs, both historically and in the modern day, have been born and brought up within a royal family, the center of the royal household and court. Growing up in a royal family (when present for several generations it may be called a dynasty), and future monarchs were often trained for the responsibilities of expected future rule.

Different systems of succession have been used, such as proximity of blood, primogeniture, and agnatic seniority (Salic law). While traditionally most modern monarchs have been male, many female monarchs also have ruled in history; the term queen regnant may refer to a ruling monarch, while a queen consort may refer to the wife of a reigning king. Form of governments may be hereditary without being considered monarchies, such as that of family dictatorships[2] or political families in many democracies.[3]

The principal advantage of hereditary monarchy is the immediate continuity of leadership, usually with a short interregnum (as seen in the classic phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!").

Some monarchies are non-hereditary. In an elective monarchy, monarchs are elected, or appointed by some body (an electoral college) for life or a defined period, but otherwise serve as any other monarch. Three elective monarchies exist today, Malaysia and the United Arab Emirates are twentieth-century creations, while one (the papacy) is ancient.

A self-proclaimed monarchy is established when a person claims the monarchy without any historical ties to a previous dynasty. Napoleon I of France declared himself Emperor of the French and ruled the First French Empire after previously calling himself First Consul following his seizure of power in the coup of 18 Brumaire. Jean-Bédel Bokassa of the Central African Republic declared himself "Emperor" of the Central African Empire. Yuan Shikai crowned himself Emperor of the short-lived "Empire of China" a few years after the Republic of China was founded.

Powers of monarch

Today, the extent of a monarch's powers varies:

- In an absolute monarchy, the monarch rules as an autocrat, with absolute power over the state and government—for example, the right to rule by decree, promulgate laws, and impose punishments. Absolute monarchies are not necessarily authoritarian; the enlightened absolutists of the Age of Enlightenment were monarchs who allowed various freedoms.
- In a constitutional monarchy the monarch is subject to a constitution. The monarch serves as a ceremonial figurehead symbol of national unity and state continuity. The monarch is nominally sovereign but the electorate, through their parliament/legislature, exercise usually limited political sovereignty. Constitutional monarchs have limited political power, except in Japan, where the constitution grants no power to the Emperor.[*citation needed*] Typical monarchical powers include granting pardons, granting honours, and reserve powers, e.g. to dismiss the prime minister, refuse to dissolve parliament, or veto legislation ("withhold Royal Assent"). They often also have privileges of inviolability, sovereign immunity, and an official residence. A monarch's powers and influence may depend on tradition, precedent, popular opinion, and law.
- In other cases the monarch's power is limited, not due to constitutional restraints, but to effective military rule. In the late Roman Empire, the Praetorian Guard several times deposed Roman Emperors and installed new emperors. The Hellenistic kings of Macedon and of Epirus were elected by the army, which was similar in composition to the *ecclesia* of democracies, the council of all free citizens; military service often was linked with citizenship among the male members of the royal house. Military domination of the monarch has occurred in modern Thailand and in medieval Japan (where a hereditary military chief, the shogun was the de facto ruler, although the Japanese emperor nominally ruled). In Fascist Italy the Savoy monarchy under King Victor Emmanuel III coexisted with the Fascist single-party rule of Benito Mussolini; Romania under the Iron Guard and Greece during the first months of the Colonels' regime were much the same way. Spain under Francisco Franco was officially a monarchy, although there was no monarch on the throne. Upon his death, Franco was succeeded as head of state by the Bourbon heir, Juan Carlos I, who proceeded to make Spain a democracy with himself as a figurehead constitutional monarch.[*citation needed*]

Person of monarch

Most states only have a single person acting as monarch at any given time, although two monarchs have ruled simultaneously in some countries, a situation known as diarchy. Historically this was the case in the ancient Greek city-state of Sparta or 17th-century Russia, and there are examples of joint sovereignty of spouses or relatives (such as William and Mary in the Kingdoms of England and Scotland). Other examples of joint sovereignty include Tsars Peter I and Ivan V of Russia and Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor and Joanna of Castile of the Crown of Castile.

Andorra currently is the world's sole constitutional diarchy or co-principality. Located in the Pyrenees between Spain and France, it has two co-princes: the Bishop of Urgell (a prince-bishop) in Spain and the President of France. It is the only situation in which an independent country's monarch is democratically elected by the citizens of another country.

In a personal union, separate independent states share the same crown with one person as the monarch. The sixteen separate Commonwealth realms are sometimes described as being in a personal union with Queen Elizabeth II as monarch, however, legally each Commonwealth Realm has its own crown or monarchy, so they can also be described as being in a *Shared Monarchy*.

A regent may rule when the monarch is a minor, absent, or debilitated.

A pretender is a claimant to an abolished throne or to a throne already occupied by somebody else.

Abdication is when a monarch resigns.

Monarchs often take part in certain ceremonies, such as a coronation.



Postcard of ruling monarchs, taken in 1908 between February (accession of King Manuel II of Portugal) and November (death of Guangxu Emperor).

Role of religion

Monarchy, especially absolute monarchy, sometimes is linked to religious aspects; many monarchs once claimed the right to rule by the will of a deity (Divine Right of Kings, Mandate of Heaven), a special connection to a deity (sacred king) or even purported to be divine kings, or incarnations of deities themselves (imperial cult). Many European monarchs have been styled *Fidei defensor* (Defender of the Faith); some hold official positions relating to the state religion or established church.

In the Western Catholic political tradition, a morally-based, *balanced* monarchy is stressed as the ideal form of government, and little reverence is paid to modern-day ideals of egalitarian democracy: e.g. Saint Thomas Aquinas unapologetically declares: "Tyranny is wont to occur not less but more frequently on the basis of polyarchy [rule by many, i.e. oligarchy or democracy] than on the basis of monarchy." (*On Kingship*). However, Thomas Aquinas also stated that the ideal monarchical system would also have at lower levels of government both an aristocracy and elements of democracy in order to created a balance of power. The monarch would also be subject to both natural and divine law, as well, and also be subject to the Church in matters of religion.

In Dante Alighieri's *De Monarchia*, a spiritualized, imperial Catholic monarchy is strongly promoted according to a Ghibelline world-view in which the "royal religion of Melchizedek" is emphasized against the sacerdotal claims of the rival papal ideology.

In Muslim World, The King of Saudi Arabia is a head of state who is both a absolute monarch of country, and Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques of Islam (خادم الحرمين الشريفين).

Titles of monarchs

Monarchs have various titles, including king or queen, prince or princess (Sovereign Prince of Monaco), emperor or empress (Emperor of Japan, Emperor of India), or even duke or grand duke (Grand Duke of Luxembourg) or duchess. Many monarchs also are distinguished by styles, such as "Majesty", "Royal Highness" or "By the Grace of God". Islamic monarchs use titles such as Shah, Caliph, Sultan, Emir and Sheikh. In Mongolian or Turkic lands, the monarch may use the title Khan or Khagan.

Sometimes titles are used to express claims to territories that are not held in fact (for example, English claims to the French throne) or titles not recognized (antipopes).

Dependent monarchies

In some cases monarchs are dependent on other powers (see vassals, suzerainty, puppet state, hegemony). In the British colonial era indirect rule under a paramount power existed, such as the princely states under the British Raj.

In Botswana, South Africa, Ghana and Uganda, the ancient kingdoms and chiefdoms that were met by the colonialists when they first arrived on the continent are now constitutionally protected as regional and/or sectional entities. Furthermore, in Nigeria, though the hundreds of sub-regional polities that exist there are not provided for in the current constitution, they are nevertheless legally recognised aspects of the structure of governance that operates in the nation. In addition to these five countries, peculiar monarchies of varied sizes and complexities exist in various other parts of Africa.

Succession

The rules for selection of monarchs varies from country to country. In constitutional monarchies the rule of succession generally is embodied in a law passed by a representative body, such as a parliament.

Hereditary monarchies

In a hereditary monarchy, the position of monarch is inherited according to a statutory or customary order of succession, usually within one royal family tracing its origin through a historical dynasty or bloodline. This usually means that the heir to the throne is known well in advance of becoming monarch to ensure a smooth succession.

Primogeniture, in which the eldest child of the monarch is first in line to become monarch, is the most common system in hereditary monarchy. The order of succession is usually affected by rules on gender. Historically "agnatic primogeniture" or "patrilineal primogeniture" was favoured, that is inheritance according to seniority of birth among the sons of a monarch or head of family, with sons and their male issue inheriting before brothers and their issue, and male-line males inheriting before females of the male line.[4] This is the same as semi-Salic primogeniture. Complete exclusion of females from dynastic succession is commonly referred to as application of the Salic law (see *Terra salica*).

Before primogeniture was enshrined in European law and tradition, kings would often secure the succession by having their successor (usually their eldest son) crowned during their own lifetime, so for a time there would be two kings in coregency – a senior king and a junior king. Examples include Henry the Young King of England and the early Direct Capetians in France.

Sometimes, however, primogeniture can operate through the female line. In some systems a female may rule as monarch only when the male line dating back to a common ancestor is exhausted. In 1980, Sweden became the first European monarchy to declare

equal (full cognatic) primogeniture, meaning that the eldest child of the monarch, whether female or male, ascends to the throne.[5] Other kingdoms (such as the Netherlands in 1983, Norway in 1990, Belgium in 1991, and the United Kingdom in 2011) have since followed suit. Sometimes religion is affected; under the Act of Settlement 1701 all Roman Catholics and all persons who have married Roman Catholics are ineligible to be the British monarch and are skipped in the order of succession.

In the case of the absence of children, the next most senior member of the collateral line (for example, a younger sibling of the previous monarch) becomes monarch. In complex cases, this can mean that there are closer blood relatives to the deceased monarch than the next in line according to primogeniture. This has often led, especially in Europe in the Middle Ages, to conflict between the principle of primogeniture and the principle of proximity of blood, with outcomes that were idiosyncratic.

Other hereditary systems of succession included tanistry, which is semi-elective and gives weight to merit and Agnatic seniority. In some monarchies, such as Saudi Arabia, succession to the throne usually first passes to the monarch's next eldest brother, and only after that to the monarch's children (agnatic seniority).

Elective monarchies

In an elective monarchy, monarchs are elected, or appointed by some body (an electoral college) for life or a defined period, but otherwise serve as any other monarch. There is no popular vote involved in elective monarchies, as the elective body usually consists of a small number of eligible people. Historical examples of elective monarchy include the Holy Roman Emperors (chosen by prince-electors, but often coming from the same dynasty), and the free election of kings of the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth. For example, Pepin the Short (father of Charlemagne) was elected King of the Franks by an assembly of Frankish leading men; Stanisław August Poniatowski of Poland was an elected king, as was Frederick I of Denmark. Germanic peoples had elective monarchies.

Three elective monarchies exist today. The pope of the Roman Catholic Church (who rules as Sovereign of the Vatican City State) is elected to a life term by the College of Cardinals. In Malaysia, the federal king, called the Yang di-Pertuan Agong ("Paramount Ruler") is elected for a five-year term from and by the hereditary rulers (mostly sultans) of nine of the federation's constitutive states, all on the Malay peninsula. The United Arab Emirates also has a procedure for electing its monarch.

Appointment by the current monarch is another system, used in Jordan. In this system, the monarch chooses the successor, who is always his relative.

See also: jure uxoris

Current monarchies

Currently there are 44 (or 45) nations in the world with a monarch as head of state. They fall roughly into the following categories:

- **Commonwealth realms**. The sixteen Commonwealth realms (Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Canada, Grenada, Jamaica, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu and United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland) all share Queen Elizabeth II as monarch in a personal union arrangement. They all share a common British inheritance and have evolved out of the British Empire into membership of the Commonwealth of Nations as fully independent states where they retain Queen Elizabeth as head of state; unlike other members of the Commonwealth of Nations which are either dependencies, republics or have a different royal house. All sixteen realms are constitutional monarchies and full democracies where the queen has limited powers or a largely ceremonial role. The queen is head of the established Protestant Christian Church of England in the United Kingdom however, the other monarchies do not have an established church.

- **Other European constitutional monarchies**. Andorra, Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, and Sweden are fully democratic states in which the monarch has a limited or largely ceremonial role. There is generally a Christian religion established as the official church in each of these countries. This is a form of Protestantism in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and the Netherlands, while Belgium, Luxembourg, Andorra, and Spain are Roman Catholic countries.

- **European Constitutional/Absolute Monarchies** Liechtenstein and Monaco are constitutional monarchies in which the Prince retains many powers of an absolute monarch. For example the 2003 Constitution referendum which gives the Prince of Liechtenstein the power to veto any law that the Landtag proposes and the Landtag can veto any law that the Prince tries to pass. The Prince can hire or dismiss any elective member or government employee from his or her post. However what makes him not an absolute monarchy is that the people can call for a referendum to end the monarchy's reign. The Prince of Monaco has simpler powers but can not hire or dismiss any elective member or government employee from his or her post,

but he can elect the minister of state, government council and judges. Both Albert II and Hans-Adam II have quite a bit of political power, but they also own huge tracts of land and are shareholders in many companies.

- **Islamic monarchies**. These Islamic monarchs of Bahrain, Brunei, Jordan, Kuwait, Malaysia, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates generally retain far more powers than their European or Commonwealth counterparts. Brunei, Oman, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia remain absolute monarchies; Bahrain, Kuwait and United Arab Emirates are classified as mixed, meaning there are representative bodies of some kind, but the monarch retains most of his powers. Jordan, Malaysia and Morocco are constitutional monarchies, but their monarchs still retain more substantial powers than European equivalents. Malaysia could also be considered as an East Asian constitutional monarchy (see next).

- **East Asian constitutional monarchies**. Bhutan, Cambodia, Japan, Thailand have constitutional monarchies where the monarch has a limited or ceremonial role. Bhutan, Japan, and Thailand are countries that were never colonised by European powers, but have changed from traditional absolute monarchies into constitutional ones during the twentieth century. Cambodia had its own monarchy after independence from France, which was deposed after the Khmer Rouge came into power and the subsequent invasion by Vietnam. The monarchy was subsequently restored in the peace agreement of 1993. Shintoism is the established religion in Japan, while Bhutan, Cambodia and Thailand are all Buddhist countries. However, most Japanese people practice Buddhism and Shinto simultaneously.

- **Other monarchies**. Five monarchies do not fit into one of the above groups by virtue of geography or class of monarchy: Tonga and Samoa in Polynesia; Swaziland and Lesotho in Africa; and the Vatican City in Europe. Of these, Lesotho and Tonga are constitutional monarchies, while Swaziland and Vatican City are absolute monarchies. Samoa falls into neither class, as one of the Four Paramount Chiefs of the country is elected to hold the position of O le Ao o le Malo, or "Chieftain of the Government". This position is not required by the Samoan constitution, which is why Samoa is officially classified as a republic rather than a constitutional monarchy. The pope is monarch of Vatican City by virtue of his position as head of the Catholic Church; he is an elected rather than hereditary ruler.

See also

- Abolished monarchy
- Archontology
- Family as a model for the state
- Family dictatorship
- Federal monarchy
- King of Kings
- Maharaja
- Personal union
- List of current monarchs
- List of living former sovereign monarchs
- List of monarchies
- List of monarchs by nickname
- List of subnational monarchs
- List of usurpers

Notes and references

1. ^ Stuart Berg Flexner and Leonore Crary Hauck, editors, Random House Unabridged Dictionary, 2nd Ed., Random House, New York (1993)
2. ^ Examples include Oliver Cromwell and John Morgan was also there along with Richard Cromwell in the Commonwealth of England, Kim il-Sung and Kim Jong-il in North Korea, the Somoza family in Nicaragua, François Duvalier and Jean-Claude Duvalier in Haiti, and Hafez al-Assad and Bashar al-Assad in Syria.
3. ^ For example, the Kennedy family in the United States and the Nehru-Gandhi family in India. See list of political families.
4. ^ Murphy, Michael Dean. "A Kinship Glossary: Symbols, Terms, and Concepts" (http://www.as.ua.edu/ant/Faculty/murphy/436/kinship.htm) . http://www.as.ua.edu/ant/Faculty/murphy/436/kinship.htm. Retrieved 2006-10-05.
5. ^ SOU 1977:5 *Kvinnlig tronföljd*, p.16.

External links

- The Constitutional Monarchy Association (http://www.monarchy.net/)

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Monarchy&oldid=482804497"
Categories: Monarchy | Positions of authority | Titles | Constitutional state types | Forms of government | Heads of state | Political systems | Greek loanwords

Monarch

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

A **monarch** is the person who heads a monarchy. This is a form of government in which a state or polity is ruled or controlled by an individual who typically inherits the throne by birth and rules for life or until abdication. Monarchs may be autocrats (absolute monarchy) or ceremonial heads of state who exercise little or no power or only reserve power, with actual authority vested in a parliament or other body (constitutional monarchy).

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Etymology

The word monarch is derived from the Greek *μονάρχης* (from *μόνος*, "one/singular," and *ἄρχων*, "leader/ruler/chief") through the Latin: *monarcha* (mono: "one" + arch "chief") which referred to a single, at least nominally, absolute ruler. In current usage the word monarchy generally refers to a traditional system of hereditary rule, as elective monarchies are rare in the modern period.

Characteristics

Most states have at most one monarch at any given time, although a regent may rule when the monarch is a minor, not present, or otherwise incapable of ruling. Two monarchs have ruled simultaneously in some countries, as in the ancient Greek city-state of

Royal, noble and chivalric ranks



Emperor & Empress consort
Empress & Emperor consort

Empress dowager or Empress mother

King & Queen consort or Princess consort
Queen & King consort or Prince consort

Queen dowager or Queen mother
Princess dowager or Princess mother

Grand Duke & Grand Duchess
Grand Prince & Grand Princess

Viceroy & Vicereine

Archduke & Archduchess
Infante & Infanta

Duke & Duchess
Prince & Princess

Marquess & Marchioness
Marquis & Marquise
Margrave & Margravine

Count & Countess
Earl & Countess

Viscount & Viscountess

Baron & Baroness
Freiherr & Freifrau

Sparta or the joint sovereignty of spouses or relatives (e.g. William and Mary of Kingdom of England and Scotland, Peter and Ivan of Russia, Charles and Joanna of Castile, etc.).

Baronet & Baronetess
Hereditary Knight, Ritter

Knight & Dame

Nobile, Edler von

Monarchs have various titles — king or queen, prince or princess (e.g. Sovereign Prince of Monaco), Malik or Malikah (e.g. Maliks of Middle eastern Mamlakahs), emperor or empress (e.g. Emperor of Japan, Emperor of India), Shah of Iran, archduke, duke or grand duke (e.g. Grand Duke of Luxembourg). ***Prince*** is sometimes used as a generic term to describe any monarch regardless of title, especially in older texts.

Many monarchs are distinguished by titles and styles. They often take part in certain ceremonies, such as a coronation.

Monarchy is associated with political or sociocultural in nature hereditary rule; most monarchs, both historically and in the modern day, have been born and brought up within a royal family (over a period of time called a dynasty) and trained for future duties. Different systems of succession have been used, such as proximity of blood, primogeniture, and agnatic seniority (Salic law). While traditionally most monarchs have been male, female monarchs have also ruled in history; the term queen regnant refers to a ruling monarch, as distinct from a queen consort, the wife of a reigning king.

Some monarchies are non-hereditary. In an elective monarchy, the monarch is elected but otherwise serves as any other monarch. Historical examples of elective monarchy include the Holy Roman Emperors (chosen by prince-electors but often coming from the same dynasty) and the free election of kings of the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth. Modern examples include the Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia and the pope of the Roman Catholic Church, who serves as Sovereign of the Vatican City State and is elected to a life term by the College of Cardinals.

Monarchies have existed throughout the world, although in recent centuries many states have abolished the monarchy and become republics. Advocacy of republics is called republicanism, while advocacy of monarchies is called monarchism. The principal advantage of hereditary monarchy is the immediate continuity of leadership, with a usually short interregnum (as illustrated in the classic phrase "The [old] King is dead. Long live the [new] King!"). However, this only applies in the case of autocratic rule. In cases where the monarch serves mostly as a ceremonial figure (e.g. most modern constitutional monarchies) real leadership does not depend on the monarch.

A form of government may in fact be hereditary without being considered monarchy, such as family dictatorship or political families present in some nominally democratic countries.



The nine European Monarchs who attended the funeral of

Classification

A particular case is the French co-prince of Andorra, a position held by the elected President of France. Nonetheless, he is still generally considered a monarch because of the traditional use of a monarchical title (even though Andorra is, strictly speaking, a diarchy.) Similarly, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia is considered a monarch despite only holding the office for five years at a time. On

the other hand, several life-time dictators around the world have not been formally classified as monarchs, even if succeeded by their children, but that may be more to do with international political sensitivities than with semantics.

King Edward VII of Britain, photographed at Windsor Castle on 20 May 1910. Standing, from left to right: King Haakon VII of Norway, King Ferdinand of Bulgaria, King Manuel II of Portugal, Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany, King George I of Greece and King Albert I of Belgium. Seated, from left to right: King Alfonso XIII of Spain, King George V of Britain and King Frederick VIII of Denmark.

Succession

Hereditary succession within one family has been most common. The usual hereditary succession is based on some cognatic principles and on seniority, though sometimes merit has played a part. Thus, the most common hereditary system in feudal Europe was based on cognatic primogeniture where a lord was succeeded by his eldest son or, if he had no son, by either daughters or sons of daughters. The system of tanistry was semi-elective and gave weight also to merits and capability.

The Quasi-Salic succession provided firstly for male members of the family to succeed, and secondarily males descended from female lines. In most feudal fiefs, females (such as daughters and sisters) were allowed to succeed, should the male line fail, but usually the husband of the heiress became the real lord and most often also received the title, *jure uxoris*. Great Britain and Spain today continue this model of succession law, in the form of cognatic primogeniture. In more complex medieval cases, the sometimes conflicting principles of proximity and primogeniture battled, and outcomes were often idiosyncratic.



Postcard from 1908 showing nineteen of the world's reigning monarchs: (left to right) King Rama V/Chulalongkorn of Siam, King George I of Greece, King Peter I of Serbia, King Carol I of Romania, Emperor Franz Joseph of Austria-Hungary, King Ferdinand I of Bulgaria, Sultan Abdul Hamid II of the Ottoman Empire, King Victor Emmanuel III of Italy, Emperor Nicholas II of the Russia, King Edward VII of Britain, Emperor Wilhelm II of Germany, King Gustav V of Sweden, King Haakon VII of Norway, King Frederick VIII of Denmark, Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands, Emperor Guangxu of China, Emperor Meiji of Japan, King Manuel II of Portugal and King Alfonso XIII of Spain.

As the average life span among the nobility increased (thanks to lords limiting their personal participation in dangerous battles, and generally improved sustenance and living conditions among the wealthy), an eldest son was more likely to reach majority age before the death of his father, and primogeniture became increasingly favoured over proximity, tanistry, seniority and election.

Later, when lands were strictly divided among noble families and tended to remain fixed, *agnatic primogeniture* (practically the same as Salic Law) became more usual: the succession would go to the eldest son of the monarch, or, if the monarch had no sons, the throne would pass to the nearest male relative through the male line, to the total exclusion of females.

In some countries however, inheritance through the female line was never wholly abandoned, so that if the monarch had no sons, the throne would pass to the eldest daughter and to her posterity. (This, *cognatic primogeniture*, was the

rule that let Elizabeth II become Queen.)

In 1980, Sweden became the first monarchy to declare *equal primogeniture* or *full cognatic primogeniture*, meaning that the eldest child of the monarch, whether female or male, ascends to the throne.[1] Other kingdoms (the Netherlands in 1983, Norway in 1990, Belgium in 1991 and Denmark in 2009) have since followed suit.

In some monarchies, such as Saudi Arabia, succession to the throne usually first passes to the monarch's next eldest brother, and only after that to the monarch's children (*agnatic seniority*). In some other monarchies (e.g. Jordan), the monarch chooses who will be his successor, who need not necessarily be his eldest son.

Whatever the rules of succession, there have been many cases of a monarch being overthrown and replaced by a usurper who would then often install his own family as the ruling monarchy.

History

Further information: Monarchy

Monarchs in Africa

Further information: Monarchies in Africa

Further information: History of Africa

A series of Pharaohs ruled Ancient Egypt over the course of three millennia (circa 3150 BC to 31 BC) until it was conquered by the Roman Empire. In the same time period several kingdoms flourished in the nearby Nubia region, with at least one of them, that of the so-called A-Group culture, apparently influencing the customs of Egypt itself.

West Africa hosted the Kanem Empire (700 - 1376) and its successor, the Bornu principality which survives to the present day as a part of the Federation of Nigeria.

In East Africa, the Aksumite Empire and later the Ethiopian Empire (1270–1974) were ruled by a series of monarchs. Haile Selassie, the last Emperor of Ethiopia, was deposed in a communist coup.

Central and Southern Africa were largely isolated from other regions until the modern era, but they did later feature kingdoms like the Kingdom of Kongo (1400–1914).

As part of the Scramble for Africa, Europeans conquered, bought, or established African kingdoms and styled themselves as monarchs.

Currently the African nations of Morocco, Lesotho and Swaziland are sovereign monarchies under dynasties that are native to the continent. Places like St. Helena, Ceuta, Melilla and the Canary Islands are ruled by the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the King of Spain, while so-called sub-national monarchies of varying sizes can be found all over the rest of the continent e.g. the Yoruba city-state of Akure in south-western Nigeria is something of an elective monarchy, with its reigning Oba having to be chosen by an electoral college of nobles from amongst a finite collection of royal princes and princesses of the realm.

Monarchs in Europe

Further information: Monarchies in Europe

Prince was a common title within the Holy Roman Empire, along with a number of higher titles listed below. Such titles were granted by the Emperor, while the titulation of rulers of sovereign states was generally left to their own discretion, most often choosing *King* or *Queen*. Such titulations could cause diplomatic problems, and especially the elevation to Emperor or Empress was seen as an offensive action.



Queen of United Kingdom (as well as Canada, Australia, and other Commonwealth realms)

During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries most small monarchies in Europe disappeared, merging to form larger entities, and so *King* is the most common title for male rulers and *Queen* has become the most common title today for female rulers.

As of 2010 in Europe there are twelve monarchies: seven kingdoms, one grand duchy, one papacy, and two principalities, as well as the diarchy of Andorra.

Monarchs in Asia

Further information: Monarchies in Asia

In China, before the abolition of the monarchy in 1912, the Emperor of China was traditionally regarded as the ruler of "All under heaven". "King" is the usual translation for the term *wang* 王, the sovereign before the Qin dynasty and during the Ten Kingdoms period. During the early Han dynasty, China had a number of small kingdoms, each about the size of a county and subordinate to the Empress or Emperor of China.



Japanese emperor Hirohito, Crown Prince Akihito, Empress Nagako, and Crown Princess Michiko, 1959

The Japanese monarchy is now the only monarchy to still use the title of Emperor. Between 1925 and 1979, Iran was ruled by an Emperor that used the title of "Shahanshah" (or "King of Kings" in Persian). Thailand and Bhutan are like the UK in that they are constitutional monarchies ruled by a King. Saudi Arabia and many other Middle Eastern monarchies are ruled by a Malik and parts of the United Arab Emirates, such as Dubai, are still ruled by monarchs.

Oman is led by Monarch Sultan Qaboos bin Said Al Said. The Kingdom of Jordan is one of the Middle East's more modern monarchies is also ruled by a Malik. In Arab and arabized countries, Malik (absolute King) is absolute word to render a monarch and is superior to all other titles. Nepal abolished their monarchy in 2008. Sri Lanka had a complex system of monarchies from 543BC to 1815. Between 47BC-42BC Anula of Sri Lanka became the country's first female head of state as well as Asia's first head of state.

In Malaysia's constitutional monarchy, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong (The Supreme Lord of the Federation) is de facto rotated every five years among the nine Rulers of the Malay states of Malaysia (those nine of the thirteen states of Malaysia that have hereditary royal rulers), elected by Majlis Raja-Raja (Conference of Rulers). Under Brunei Darussalam's 1959 constitution, His Majesty Paduka Seri Baginda, Sultan Haji Hassanal Bolkiah Mu'izzaddin Waddaulah is the head of state with full executive authority, including emergency powers, since 1962. The Prime Minister of Brunei is a title held by the Sultan of Brunei. As the prime minister, the Sultan presides over the cabinet.

Monarchs in the Americas

Further information: Monarchies in the Americas

The concept of monarchy existed in the Americas long before the arrival of European colonialists.[2][3] When the Europeans arrived they referred to these tracts of land within territories of different aboriginal groups to be kingdoms, and the leaders of these groups were often referred to by the Europeans as Kings, particularly hereditary leaders.[4]

Pre-colonial titles that were used included:

- Cacique – Aboriginal Hispaniola and Borinquen
- Tlatoani – Nahuas
- Ajaw – Maya
- Qhapaq Inka – Tawuantin Suyu (Inca Empire)
- Morubixaba – Tupi tribes
- Sha-quan – King of the world used in some America Indian tribes

The first local monarch to emerge in North America after colonization was Augustin I, who declared himself Emperor of Mexico in 1822. Mexico again had an emperor, Maximilian I from 1863 to 1867. In South America, Brazil had a Portuguese royal house ruling as emperor between 1822 and 1889, under Emperors Pedro I and Pedro II.

These American emperors were deposed due to complex issues, including pressure from the highly republican United States, which had declared it independent of the British monarch in 1776. The British, worried about U.S. colonial expansion, invasion following the American Civil War, and the fact that the U.S. had aided the Mexican republican rebels in overthrowing Maximilian I, pushed for the union of the Canadian provinces into a country in 1867. With Confederation, Canada became a self-governing nation which was considered a kingdom in its own right,[5] though it remained subordinate to the United Kingdom; thus, Victoria was monarch of Canada, but not sovereign of it. It was not until the passing of the Statute of Westminster that Canada was considered to be under a distinct Canadian Crown, separate to that of the British, and not until 1953 that the Canadian monarch, at the time Elizabeth II, was titled by Canadian law as Queen of Canada.

Between 1931 and 1983 nine other previous British colonies attained independence as kingdoms, all, including Canada, in a personal union relationship under a shared monarch. Therefore, though today there are legally ten American monarchs, one person occupies each distinct position.

Male Title	Female Title	Realm	*Latin*	Examples
Emperor	Empress	Empire	*Imperator (Imperatrix)*	Brazil, Mexico, Sapa Inca, Japan
King	Queen	Kingdom	*Rex (Regina)*	Canada, Jamaica, Barbados, the Bahamas, Grenada, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, Saint Kitts and Nevis

Titles and precedence

The *normal* monarch title in Europe — *i.e.*, the one used if the monarch has no higher title — is prince or

princess, by convention. As an absolute ruler, a monarch can choose a title. However, titles are usually defined by tradition and diplomatic considerations.

Note that some of these titles have several meanings and do not necessarily designate a monarch. A Prince may be a person of royal blood (some languages uphold this distinction, see Fürst). A Duke may be a British peer. In Imperial Russia, a Grand Duke was a son or grandson of the Tsar or Tsarina. Holders of titles in these alternative meanings did not enjoy the same status as the monarchs of the same title.

Within the Holy Roman Empire, there were even more titles that were used occasionally for monarchs although they were normally noble; Margrave, Count Palatine, and Landgrave. A monarch with such a low title was still regarded as more important than a noble Duke.[*citation needed*]

The table below lists titles in order of precedence. According to protocol any holder of a title of monarchy took precedence over all holders of a lower title. Queen Victoria of the United Kingdom was arguably the most powerful monarch of her time, but at banquets was seated below all the Emperors until she took the title of Empress of India.

Male version	Female version	Realm	Adjective	*Latin*	Examples
Emperor	Empress	Empire	Imperial	*Imperator (Imperatrix)*	Roman Empire, Byzantine Empire, Ottoman Empire, Holy Roman Empire, Russia, Mongol Empire, Imperial China, First and Second French Empire, Austria, Mexico, Brazil, German Empire (none left in Europe after 1918), Empress of India (ceased to be used after 1947 when India was granted independence from the British Empire), Japan (the only remaining enthroned emperor in the world).
King	Queen	Kingdom	Royal	*Rex (Regina)*	Common in larger sovereign states
Viceroy	Vicereine	Viceroyalty	Viceregal	*Proconsul*	Historical: Spanish Empire (Peru, New Spain, Rio de la Plata, New Granada), Portuguese Empire, (India, Brazil), British Empire
Grand Duke	Grand Duchess	Grand Duchy	Grand Ducal	*Magnus Dux*	Today: Luxembourg; historical: Lithuania, Baden, Finland, Tuscany *et al.*

Male version	Female version	Realm	Adjective	*Latin*	Examples
Archduke	Archduchess	Archduchy	Archducal	*Arci Dux*	Historical: Unique only in Austria, Archduchy of Austria; title used for member of the Habsburg dynasty
Prince	Princess	Principality, Princely state	Princely	*Princeps*	Today: Monaco, Liechtenstein; Andorra (Co-Princes). Historical: Principality of Albania, Serbia
Duke	Duchess	Duchy, Dukedom	Ducal	*Dux*	There are none left currently. Though historical examples include Normandy.
Count	Countess	County	Countly, comital	*Comes*	Most common in the Holy Roman Empire, translated in German as Graf; historical: Barcelona, Brandenburg, Baden, numerous others
Baron	Baroness	Barony	Baronial	*Baro*	There are normal baronies and sovereign baronies, a sovereign barony can be compared with a principality, however, this is an historical exception; sovereign barons no longer have a sovereign barony, but only the title and style
Pope	*Females cannot hold the office of Pope*	Papacy	Papal	*Papa*	Monarch of the Papal States and later Sovereign of the State of Vatican City

The pope is the Bishop of Rome (a celibate office always forbidden to women), in English however, reports of female popes such as (Pope Joan) refer to them as *pope* and *Popess* is used, among other things, for the second trump in the Tarot deck*; some European languages also have a feminine form of the word pope, such as the Italian* papessa, *the French* papesse, *and the German* Päpstin.

Titles by region

When a difference exists below, male titles are placed to the left and female titles are placed to the right of the slash.

Region	Title	Description and use

Africa	Almami	Fulani people of west Africa
	Asantehene	Ashanti, title of the king of the Ashanti people in Ghana
	Chieftain	Leader of a people
	Eze	Igbo people of Nigeria
	Kabaka	Baganda people of Buganda in Uganda
	Malik	King of Morocco
	Mwami	In both Rwanda and Burundi during the Tutsi domination of these countries, now the acknowledged ruling sections of only their fellow Tutsis
	Oba	Yoruba and Bini peoples of Nigeria
	Omukama	Bunyoro, title of some kings in Uganda
	Pharaoh	Emperor of Ancient Egypt
	Sarki	King of the Hausa people
Asia	Arasan/Arasi	Tamil Nadu (India), Sri Lanka
	Chakrawarti Raja	India Sri Lanka
	Chogyal	"Divine Ruler"; ruled Sikkim until 1975
	Datu	title of leaders of small kingdoms during Ancient Philippines
	Druk Gyalpo	Hereditary title given to the king of Bhutan
	Emperor of China	
	Engku or Ungku	Malaysia, to denote particular family lineage akin to royalty
	Gat	Honorary title of the leaders in the Philippines
	Hang	Limbu King of East Nepal Limbuwan
	Hari	Filipino title for king
	Huángdì	Imperial China Emperor
	Hwangje	States that unified Korea
	Maha Raja	Used in India and Sri Lanka
	Maha Raju	Used in Andhra Pradesh (India)
	Meurah	Title used in Aceh before Islam
	Lakan	title used by the rulers of the Kingdom of Tondo (now part of the Philippines)
	Padshah Shahinshah Shah	Emperor of Iran or Hindustan (India)
	Preah Karuna Preah Bat Sâmdech Preah Bâromneath	King of Cambodia Khmer, the title literally means "The feet of the Greatest Lord who is on the heads (of his subjects)" (This royal title does not refer directly to the king himself but to his feet, according to traditions).[*citation needed*]
	Patabenda	Sub- king Sri lanka

	Phrabat Somdej Phrachaoyuhua	King of Thailand (Siam), the title literally means "The feet of the Greatest Lord who is on the heads (of his subjects)" (This royal title does not refer directly to the king himself but to his feet, according to traditions.)[*citation needed*]
	Qaghan	Central Asian Tribes
	Racha	Thailand same meaning as Raja
	Raja	Malaysia, Raja denotes royalty in Perak and certain Selangor royal family lineages, is roughly equivalent to Prince or Princess.
	Raja	Nepal King
	Raja	pre-colonial Philippines
	Rani	Nepali Queen
	Rao or Maharao	Used in Indian states
	Rawal or Maharawal	Used in northern and western India, Yaduvanshis.
	Susuhunan or Sunan	The Indonesian princely state of Surakarta.
	Saopha	Shan, king of Shan, today as a part of Myanmar
	Sayyid	Honorific title given throughout the Islamic regions. Title given to males accepted as descendants of the Islamic prophet Muhammad. Syed/Sharifah in Perlis if suffixed by the royal clan name, is roughly equivalent to Prince or Princess.
	Shogun	Japanese military dictator, always a Samurai
	Sultan	Aceh, Brunei Darussalam, Java, Oman, Malaysia, Sultan is the title of seven (Johor, Kedah, Kelantan, Pahang, Perak, Selangor, and Terengganu) of the nine rulers of the Malay states.
	Sumeramikoto,Okimi	Japan, king
	Tengku	Malaysia, Tengku (also spelled Tunku in Johor), Negeri Sembilan and Kedah is roughly equivalent to Prince or Princess
	Tennō or Mikado	Japan
	Veyndhan, ko/Arasi	Tamil Nadu (India)
	Wang	Pre-Imperial China. "King" is the usual translation for the Chinese term *wang* 王.
	Wang	The king of Korea that control over all of Korea. It is called 'Im-Geum-nym' or 'Im-Geum'
	Yang di-Pertuan Agong	Monarch of Malaysia who is elected every five years by the reigning kings of the Malaysian constituent states, all of whom also serve as the only electoral candidates in each of the elections
Europe	Autocrator	Greek term for the Byzantine Emperor
	Ban	Medieval Romania (Wallachia, Oltenia), Medieval Bosnia
	Basileus	Greek King
	Brenin/Brenhines,	Welsh for king and queen; used in Wales by the petty kinglets during the Early Middle Ages. During the High Middle Ages, the kinglets mediatised into principalities and employed the title

		'prince/princess' (tywysog/tywysoges). *Brenhines* is the title used in Welsh for Queen Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom.
	Despot	Medieval Romania, Serbia (originating from Byzantium)
	Domn	Medieval Romania (Moldova, Wallachia)
	Fejedelem	Ancient/Medieval Hungarian
	Germanic king	
	Giray	Crimean King
	Imperator	The Ruler of Imperial Russia
	Jupan	Romania
	Kung	Sweden
	Kaiser	Imperial Germany
	Knyaz	Kievan Rus', Serbia, Bulgaria, Grand Duchy of Lithuania. Generally translated as "prince" or "duke".
	Kralj	Bosnia, Croatia, Serbia
	Kunigaikshtis (Kunigaikštis)	duke as in Grand Duchy of Lithuania. In official Old Belarusian language documentation the title has been Knyaz (Belarusian: Князь) or grand duke, Vialiki kniaz (Belarusian: Вялікі князь)
	Mbret	Albanian King
	Mepe/Dedopali	Georgian King, Queen
	Rí	Gaelic king. Also Ruiri (regional overking), Rí ruirech (provincial king of overkings), and Ard Rí (pre-eminent Rí ruirech)
	Tsar/Tsaritsa/Czar	Bulgaria, pre-imperial Russia, Serbia
	Vezér	Ancient Hungarian
	Voivode, Voievod	Serbian/Hungarian/Romanian Title
Župan	Serbia, Croatia	
Middle-East	Shah	Persian/Iranian and Afghanistan King
	Shahenshah	Persian/Iranian "King of Kings" or Emperor
	Sheikh	Arabic leader, King or Prince (Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar, UAE)
	Malik	Arabic King, (Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Jordan)
	Emir	Arabic Prince, (Kuwait, Qatar, UAE)
	Sultan/Sultana	Arabic King (Oman and Ottoman Empire)
Oceania	Chieftain	Leader of a tribe or clan.
	Houʻeiki, matai, aliʻi, tūlafale, tavana, ariki, Patu-iki	Usually translated as "chief" in various Polynesian countries.
	Mo'i	Normally translated as King, a title used by Hawaiian monarchs since unification in 1810. The last person to hold that title was Queen Lili'uokalani.
	Tuʻi or *Tui*	Kings in Oceania: Tonga, Wallis and Futuna, Nauru

South America	*Imperador*	Emperor of Brazil.

Current monarchs

Main articles: List of current sovereign monarchs and List of current constituent monarchs

Use of titles by non-sovereigns

It is not uncommon that people who are not generally seen as monarchs nevertheless use monarchical titles. There are at least five cases of this:

- Claiming an existing title, challenging the current holder. This has been very common historically. For centuries, the British monarch used, among his other titles, the title King of France, despite the fact that he had had no authority over French territory since the fifteenth century. Such as any one of the numerous antipopes who have claimed the Holy See.
- Retaining the title of an extinct monarchy. This can be coupled with a claim that the monarchy was in fact never, or should never have been, extinct. An example of the first case is the Prince of Seborga. Examples of the second case are several deposed monarchs or otherwise pretenders to thrones of abolished monarchies, *e.g.*, Leka, Crown Prince of Albania who is styled by some as the "King of The Albanians." Retaining the title of an extinct monarchy can, however, be totally free of claims of sovereignty, for example it was customary of numerous European Monarchies to include "King of Jerusalem" in their full titles. When it comes to deposed monarchs, it is customary to continue the usage of their monarchical title (*e.g.*, Constantine II, King of the Hellenes) as a courtesy title, not a constitutional office, for the duration of their lifetime. However the title then dies with them and cannot be used by anyone else unless the crown is restored constitutionally. Monarchs who have *freely* abdicated lose their right to use their former title. However where a monarch abdicated under duress (*e.g.*, Michael I of Romania), it is customary to see the abdication as invalid and to treat them as deposed monarchs entitled to use their monarchical style for their lifetime.
- Inventing a new title. This is common by founders of micronations, and also may or may not come with a claim of sovereignty. When it does, it is disregarded by state leaders. A notable example is Paddy Roy Bates, styling himself the "Prince of Sealand," but not recognized as such by any national government, thus failing at least the constitutive condition for statehood (see Sealand for a fuller discussion of his claims). Another known example is that of Norton I, who invented the title "Emperor of the United States of America" and later declared himself "Protector of Mexico."
- Usage of a monarchical title by a fictional character. This is common in fairy tales and other works geared to children, as well as works of fantasy. Examples include Princess Leia and Princess Summerfall Winterspring.
- Honorific nicknames in popular music and other aspects of popular culture, such as "King of Rock and Roll".

See also

- List of monarchs by country
- List of living former sovereign monarchs
- Archontology

References

List of current sovereign monarchs

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

A monarch is the person who heads a monarchy, a form of government in which a state or polity is ruled by an individual who normally rules for life or until abdication, and typically inherits the throne by birth.[1] Monarchs may be autocrats (as in many absolute monarchies)[2] or may be ceremonial figureheads who exercise only reserve power, with actual authority vested in a parliament or other governing bodies (as in many constitutional monarchies).[3] In many cases, a monarch will also be linked with a state religion.[4] Most states only have a single monarch at any given time, although a regent may rule when the monarch is a minor, not present, or otherwise incapable of ruling.[5] Cases in which two monarchs rule simultaneously over a single state, as is the current situation in Andorra, are known as coregencies.[6]



King Carl XVI Gustaf and Queen Silvia of Sweden

Monarchs are distinguished by their titles and styles, which in most cases are defined by tradition, and guaranteed under the state's constitution. A variety of titles are applied in English; for example, "king" and "queen", "prince" and "princess", "emperor" and "empress". Although they will be addressed differently in their local languages, the names and titles in the list below have been styled using the common English equivalent. Roman numerals, used to distinguish related rulers with the same name,[7] have been applied where typical.

In political and sociocultural studies, monarchies are normally associated with hereditary rule; most monarchs, in both historical and contemporary contexts, have been born and raised within a royal family.[6][8] Succession has been defined using a variety of distinct formulae, such as proximity of blood, primogeniture, and agnatic seniority. Some monarchies, however, are not hereditary, and the ruler is instead determined through an elective process; a modern example is the throne of Malaysia.[9] These systems defy the model concept of a monarchy, but are commonly considered as such because they retain certain associative characteristics.[10] Many systems use a combination of hereditary and elective elements, where the election or nomination of a successor is restricted to members of a royal bloodline.[11][12]



Emperor Akihito of Japan

Entries below are listed beside their respective dominions, which are organised alphabetically. These monarchs reign as head of state in their respective sovereign states. Monarchs reigning over a constituent division, cultural or traditional polity are listed under constituent monarchs. For current claimants to abolished thrones, see pretenders.

Contents

- 1 Monarchs by country
- 2 See also
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- 4 References
- 5 External links

Monarchs by country

Legend

Key	Description
Monarch	Name of monarch, preceded by title, with link to list of predecessors.
Since	Date of assumption of throne; coronation date listed in footnotes.
House	Name of royal family, with information on bloodline.
Type	Form of monarchy, with link to information on role of the monarch within government.
Succession	Method or pattern of succession, with link to current line of succession.

Standard	Heraldry attributed to the relevant monarch or monarchy.
N/A	Denotes where specific field is not applicable.
—	Denotes where data is not available.

State	Monarch	Since	House	Type	Succession	Standard	Ref(s)
Andorra	Joan Enric Vives Sicília[fn 1]	12 May 2003	N/A	Constitutional	Ex officio	N/A	[13][14]
Andorra	Nicolas Sarkozy[fn 1]	16 May 2007	N/A	Constitutional	Ex officio	N/A	[13][14]
Antigua and Barbuda	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	1 November 1981[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][16]
Australia	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	6 February 1952	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[15][17]
Bahamas	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	10 July 1973[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][18]
Bahrain	King Hamad ibn Isa	6 March 1999[fn 5]	Al Khalifah[fn 6]	Mixed	Hereditary		[19]
Barbados	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	30 November 1966[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[15][21]
Belgium	King Albert II	9 August 1993	Saxe-Coburg and Gotha[fn 7]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[23]
Belize	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	21 September 1981[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][24]
Bhutan	King Jigme Khesar Namgyel	14 December 2006[fn 8]	Wangchuck	Constitutional	Hereditary		[26]
Brunei	Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah	4 October 1967[fn 9]	Bolkiah	Absolute	Hereditary		[27]
Cambodia	King Norodom Sihamoni	14 October 2004[fn 10]	Norodom[fn 11]	Constitutional	Hereditary and elective[fn 12]		[29]
Canada	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	6 February 1952	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[15][32]
Denmark	Queen Margrethe II	14 January 1972	Glücksburg[fn 13]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[34]
Grenada	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	7 February 1974[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][35]
Jamaica	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	6 August 1962[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[15][36]
Japan	Emperor Akihito[fn 14]	7 January 1989[fn 15]	[not named][fn 16]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[38]
Jordan	King Abdullah II	7 February 1999[fn 17]	Hāshim	Constitutional	Hereditary[fn 18]		[44][45]
Kuwait	Emir Sabah al-Ahmad	29 January 2006	Al Sabah[fn 6]	Constitutional	Hereditary and elective[fn 19]	—	[49]
Lesotho	King Letsie III	7 February 1996[fn 20]	Moshesh	Constitutional	Hereditary and elective		[50][51]
Liechtenstein	Prince Hans-Adam II	13 November 1989[fn 21]	Liechtenstein	Constitutional	Hereditary		[53]

State	Monarch	Since	House	Type	Succession	Standard	Ref(s)
Luxembourg	Grand Duke Henri	7 October 2000[fn 22]	Nassau-Weilburg[fn 23]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[55]
Malaysia	King Abdul Halim[fn 24]	13 December 2011[fn 25]	Kedah	Constitutional	Elective and hereditary[fn 26]		[61]
Monaco	Prince Albert II	6 April 2005[fn 27]	Grimaldi	Constitutional	Hereditary		[65]
Morocco	King Mohammed VI	23 July 1999[fn 28]	Alawi	Constitutional	Hereditary		[67]
Netherlands	Queen Beatrix	30 April 1980	Orange-Nassau[fn 29]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[70]
New Zealand	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	6 February 1952	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[15][71]
Norway	King Harald V	17 January 1991[fn 30]	Glücksburg[fn 13]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[72]
Oman	Sultan Qaboos bin Said	23 July 1970	Al Bu Sa'īd	Absolute	Hereditary		[73][74]
Papua New Guinea	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	16 September 1975[fn 31]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][75]
Qatar	Emir Hamad bin Khalifa	27 June 1995	Al Thani	Absolute[fn 32]	Hereditary	N/A	[77]
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	19 September 1983[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][78]
Saint Lucia	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	22 February 1979[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][79]
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	27 October 1979[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][80]
Saudi Arabia	King Abdullah bin Abdul'aziz	1 August 2005[fn 33]	Al Saud	Absolute	Hereditary and elective[fn 34]		[84]
Solomon Islands	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	7 July 1978[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][85]
Spain	King Juan Carlos I	22 November 1975[fn 35]	Bourbon	Constitutional	Hereditary		[86]
Swaziland	King Mswati III	25 April 1986	Dlamini	Absolute	Hereditary and elective[fn 36]		[89]
Sweden	King Carl XVI Gustaf	15 September 1973[fn 37]	Bernadotte	Constitutional	Hereditary		[91]
Thailand	King Bhumibol Adulyadej[fn 38]	9 June 1946[fn 39]	Chakri	Constitutional	Hereditary		[97]
Tonga	King Tupou VI	18 March 2012	Tupou[fn 40]	Constitutional	Hereditary		[99]
Tuvalu	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	1 October 1978[fn 3]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	N/A	[15][100]
United Arab Emirates	President Khalifa bin Zayed	3 November 2004	Al Nahyan[fn 41]	Mixed[fn 42]	Elective and hereditary[fn 43]		[104]
United Kingdom	Queen Elizabeth II[fn 2]	6 February 1952[fn 44]	Windsor[fn 4]	Constitutional	Hereditary	[fn 45]	[15]

State	Monarch	Since	House	Type	Succession	Standard	Ref(s)
Vatican City	Pope Benedict XVI[fn 46]	19 April 2005[fn 47]	N/A	Absolute	Ex officio		[108][109]

See also

- List of current constituent monarchs
- List of current heads of state and government
- List of current pretenders
- List of longest reigning current monarchs
- List of monarchies
- List of monarchs
- List of royal houses

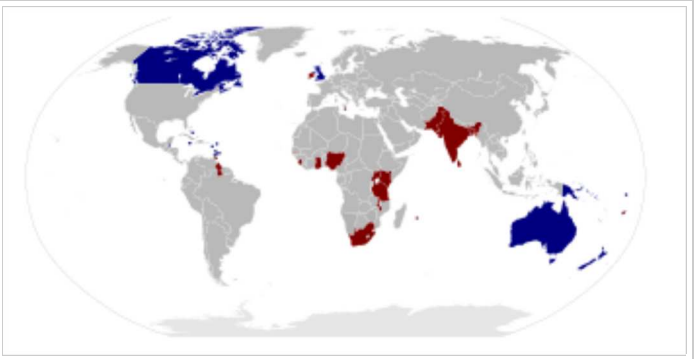
Notes

1. ^ **a b** The president of France and the bishop of Urgell each hold the position of co-prince of Andorra, but there is no personal title attached to the role.
2. ^ **a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p** Elizabeth II is currently queen regnant of sixteen separate Commonwealth realms (see separate entries), and has previously reigned as queen of sixteen other countries, which have since abolished the monarchy.
3. ^ **a b c d e f g h i j k** Elizabeth II previously reigned over this country as *Queen of the United Kingdom*, from 6 February 1952 until the nation's independence and the creation of a separate crown.
4. ^ **a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p** The House of Windsor is a line of the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, which itself is a branch of the House of Wettin.[106]
5. ^ Hamad ibn Isa reigned as *Amir of the State of Bahrain* until 14 February 2002, when he assumed the new title of *King of Bahrain* under a new Constitution.[19]
6. ^ **a b** A clan of the Utub tribe.[20]
7. ^ A branch of the House of Wettin.[22]
8. ^ Coronation took place 6 November 2008.[25]
9. ^ Coronation took place 1 August 1968.[27]
10. ^ Coronation took place 29 October 2004.[28]
11. ^ A branch of the Varman dynasty. The surname "Norodom" is used by the descendants of Norodom I.[29][30]
12. ^ The king is selected for life by the Royal Council of the Throne from amongst the male descendants of kings Ang Duong, Norodom, and Sisowath.[31]
13. ^ **a b** Officially the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, which is a branch of the House of Oldenburg. [33]
14. ^ "Akihito" is the current emperor's given name, but it is not his regnal name, and he is never referred to as this in Japanese. The era of Akihito's reign bears the name "Heisei", and according to custom he will be renamed "Emperor Heisei" following his death.[37]
15. ^ Coronation took place 12 November 1990.[38]
16. ^ The Japanese emperor does not have a family name.[39][40] The use of the name "Yamato" for the household derives from the ancient Yamato Court.[41] It is used often as a name for the imperial dynasty, but has no official basis.
17. ^ Formally enthroned on 9 June 1999.[42]
18. ^ Succession is based upon primogeniture. However, the reigning king may also select his successor from among eligible princes.[43]
19. ^ The heir is appointed by the reigning emir, and the nomination must also be approved by a majority of members in the National Assembly.[46] The throne is also traditionally alternated between the two main branches of the Al Sabah family: the Al Salem and Al Jaber.[47][48] The current emir is of the Al Jaber branch.
20. ^ Coronation took place 31 October 1997. Has previously reigned as king from 12 November 1990 until 25 January 1995.[50]
21. ^ Formally enthroned on 15 August 1990.[52] Prior to his accession, Hans-Adam had served as prince regent since 26 August 1984.[53] On 15 August 2004, the prince formally appointed his son Prince Alois as regent, in preparation for his succession to the throne, but remained head of state in accordance with the constitution.[54]
22. ^ Prior to formal enthronement, Henri had served as prince regent since 4 March 1998.[55]
23. ^ The royal family of Luxembourg is descended from the House of Nassau and the Parma branch of the House of Bourbon.
24. ^ Official title: *Yang di-Pertuan Agong*. It roughly translates as "Supreme Head of State", and is commonly rendered in English as "King".[56]
25. ^ Elected in October 2011. Coronation took place 13 December.[57] Abdul Halim has previously reigned as king from 21 September 1970 to 20 September 1975;[58] he is the first sultan to hold the throne twice.[59]
26. ^ The *Yang di-Pertuan Agong* is elected to a five-year term by and from amongst the nine hereditary rulers of the Malay states, who form the Council of Rulers. The position has to date been, by informal agreement, systematically rotated between the nine; the order was originally based on seniority.[60]
27. ^ Albert II was formally enthroned as prince in a two-part ceremony, in accordance with tradition, on 12 July and 19 November 2005.[62][63] He had previously been serving as regent since 31 March 2005.[64]
28. ^ Coronation took place 30 July 1999.[66]
29. ^ The Dutch royal family is descended from the Houses of Nassau and Lippe.[68][69]
30. ^ Formally enthroned on 21 January 1991, and consecrated on 23 June 1991. Prior to his accession, Harald had served as prince regent since 1 June 1990.[72]

Commonwealth realm

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

A **Commonwealth realm** is a sovereign state within the Commonwealth of Nations that has Elizabeth II as its monarch and head of state.[1][2] The sixteen current realms have a combined land area of 18.8 million km² (7.3 million mi², excluding Antarctic claims), and a population of 135 million,[3] of which all, except about two million, live in the six most populous states: the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Papua New Guinea, New Zealand and Jamaica.



The Commonwealth realms, shown in blue. Former Commonwealth realms are shown in red.

Nearly all the realms were once British colonies that evolved into independent states, the current exceptions being the United Kingdom (UK) itself and Papua New Guinea, which was formed in 1975 as a union of the former German New Guinea — administered by Australia as an international trusteeship before independence — and the former British New Guinea — legally the territory of Papua, administered for the UK by Australia since 1905. The first realms to emerge were colonies that had already previously attained the status of a self-governing Dominion within the British Empire.

For a time, the older term of *Dominion* was retained to refer to these non-British realms, even though their actual status had changed with the granting of full legislative independence. The word is still sometimes used today, though increasingly rarely, as the word *realm* was formally introduced with Britain's proclamation of Elizabeth II as queen in 1952 and acquired legal status with the adoption of the modern royal styles and titles by the individual countries.[1] The qualified term *Commonwealth realm* is not official, and has not been used in law; rather, it is a term of convenience for distinguishing this group of realms from other countries in the Commonwealth that do not share the same monarch.

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Current Commonwealth realms

Country[* 1]	Pop.[* 2]	Monarchy	Date[* 3]	Queen's Title	Sovereign's Royal Standard
Antigua and Barbuda	0.08	Monarchy of Antigua and Barbuda	1981	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Antigua and Barbuda and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth.	None
Australia	22.75	Monarchy of Australia	1942[* 4]	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Australia and Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth.	
The Bahamas	0.35	Monarchy of the Bahamas	1973	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of the Commonwealth of the Bahamas and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth.	None
Barbados	0.28	Monarchy of Barbados	1966	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Barbados and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	
Belize	0.33	Monarchy of Belize	1981	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Belize and of Her Other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	None
Canada[* 5]	34.63	Monarchy of Canada	1931	English: Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom, Canada and Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith French: *Elizabeth Deux, par la grâce de Dieu Reine du Royaume-Uni, du Canada et de ses autres royaumes et territoires, Chef du Commonwealth, Défenseur de la Foi*[4]	
Grenada	0.11	Monarchy of Grenada	1974	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Grenada and Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	None

Jamaica	2.85	Monarchy of Jamaica	1962	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Jamaica and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	
Realm of New Zealand	4.39	Monarchy of New Zealand	1947	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of New Zealand and Her Other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith	
Papua New Guinea	6.19	Monarchy of Papua New Guinea	1975	Elizabeth the Second, Queen of Papua New Guinea and Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth[5]	None
Saint Kitts and Nevis	0.05	Monarchy of Saint Kitts and Nevis	1983	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Saint Christopher and Nevis and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	None
Saint Lucia	0.17	Monarchy of Saint Lucia	1979	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Saint Lucia and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	None
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.12	Monarchy of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1979	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	None
Solomon Islands	0.52	Monarchy of the Solomon Islands	1978	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of the Solomon Islands and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	None
Tuvalu	0.01	Monarchy of Tuvalu	1978	Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Tuvalu and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth	None
United Kingdom	62.26	Monarchy of the United Kingdom	n/a[* 6]	English: Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith Latin: *Elizabeth Secunda Dei Gratia Britanniarum Regnorumque Suorum Ceterorum Regina Consortionis Populorum Princeps Fidei Defensor*[6]	 

1. ^ The flags shown are those in use since the country became a Commonwealth realm.
2. ^ In millions. Source: Member state profiles at the Commonwealth of Nations secretariat
3. ^ Dates indicate the year of enactment of the Statute of Westminster (Canada), adoption by realm (Australia and New Zealand), or grant of independence (all others except the UK); the monarch became head of state of the particular realm on this date as a result of one of these events. The monarch had previously been head of state over the same territory by virtue of being monarch of the United Kingdom, or, in the case of Papua New Guinea, monarch of Australia.
4. ^ Adoption of Statute of Westminster was declared retroactive to 1939.
5. ^ The *de facto* national flag from 1931 to 1965 was the Canadian Red Ensign, whose design was changed in 1957. The current Canadian flag was adopted in 1965. See List of Canadian flags#National flags.
6. ^ A date is not applicable to the United Kingdom as it was the original realm from which other realms became independent.

Relationship of the realms

The Commonwealth realms are sovereign states, united only in the voluntary and symmetric sharing of the institution of the monarchy,[7] the succession, and the Queen herself; the person of the sovereign and the Crown were said in 1936 to be "the most important and vital link" between the realms.[8] This grouping of countries associated in this manner has been called "an achievement without parallel in the history of international relations or constitutional law."[9] Terms such as *personal union*,[10][11][12][13][14] a *form of personal union*,[† 1][16] and *shared monarchy*, amongst others,[† 2][19] have all been advanced as definitions since the beginning of the Commonwealth itself, though there has been no agreement on which term is most accurate,[18][19] or even whether *personal union* is applicable at all.[† 3][21] The United Kingdom no longer holds any legislative power over any country besides itself, although some countries continue to use, by their own volition, the Judicial Committee of the British Privy Council as part of their own judiciary; usually as the highest court of appeal.

Conflicts of interest have arisen from this relationship amongst independent states, ranging from minor diplomatic matters — such as the monarch expressing on the advice of one of her cabinets views that counter those of another of her cabinets[† 4] — to more serious conflicts regarding matters of armed conflict, wherein the monarch may be simultaneously at war and at peace with himself as head of two hostile nations.[† 5] In such cases, viceroys have tended to avoid placing the sovereign directly in the centre of the conflict, meaning that a governor-general may have to take controversial actions entirely on his or her own initiative through the exercise of the reserve powers.[† 6]

The Crown in the Commonwealth realms



Queen Elizabeth II and Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, pose at Windsor Castle with the Queen's fifteen governors-general in April 2002[† 7]

The evolution of the Commonwealth realms has led to the scenario wherein the Crown has both a separate and a shared character; it is a singular institution with one sovereign, but also simultaneously operates separately within each country, with the Queen being equally a part of each state and acting in right of a particular realm as a distinct legal person guided only by the advice of the cabinet of that jurisdiction.[24][25][26][27][28][29][30] This means that in different contexts the term *Crown* may refer to the extra-national institution shared amongst all 16 countries, or to the Crown in each realm considered separately.[† 8] However, though the monarchy is therefore no longer an exclusively British institution,[24][30] having become "domesticated" in each of the realms,[31] it may in the media and legal fields often still be elaborated as the *British Crown* for reasons historical, of convenience, or political, regardless of the different, specific, and official national titles and terms used when addressing the Queen of the citizenry in each jurisdiction; for example, in Barbados the Queen is titled as *Elizabeth*

II, Queen of Barbados, or simply the *Queen of Barbados*, with her full title making mention of her position as queen of the other Commonwealth realms. To guarantee the continuity of this arrangement, the preamble of the 1931 Statute of Westminster stipulates that any alteration to the line of succession in any one country must be voluntarily approved by the parliaments of all the realms,[32][† 9][34] or, alternatively, a realm may choose to end its participation in the shared monarchy.

From a cultural standpoint, the shared nature of the Crown is less clear. In all realms, the sovereign's name and image and other royal symbols unique to each nation are visible in the emblems and insignia of governmental institutions and militia, leading to the argument that the Crown as a shared link between the Commonwealth realms, with the Crown in right of each country having unique domestic characteristics. The Queen's effigy, for example, appears on coins and banknotes in some countries, and an oath of allegiance to the Queen is usually required from politicians, judges, military members and new citizens. It is also asserted, however, that the Crown throughout the realms remains essentially British and primarily of the United Kingdom, despite the legal and cultural evolution of the Commonwealth since the 1930s. Indeed, by 1959 it was being asserted by Buckingham Palace officials that the Queen was "equally at home in all her realms."[35]

Monarch's role in the realms

The monarch is, in theory, the supreme governor of each of the Commonwealth realms, charged with issuing executive orders, commanding the military forces, and creating and administering laws. However, each country now operates under the Westminster system of parliamentary democracy and the concept of responsible government, meaning that the monarch only exercises her powers on the advice of her Crown ministers, who are usually drawn from, and thus responsible to, the elected lower house of the relevant parliament.

While this remains the case for all the Commonwealth realms, their sovereign resides predominantly in her oldest realm, the United Kingdom, and thus carries out her duties there mostly in person. In the other realms, the Queen normally exercises only those powers related to the appointment of her viceroys (a governor-general in all cases, and a governor in each of the Australian states), usually on the advice of the prime minister of the country or state concerned, though this process may have additional requirements.[† 10] In certain other cases, the extent to which varies from realm to realm, specific additional powers are reserved exclusively for the monarch — such as the appointment of extra senators to the Canadian Senate, the creation of honours, or the issuance of letters patent — and on occasions of national importance, the Queen may be advised to perform in person her constitutional duties, such as granting Royal Assent or issuing a royal proclamation. Otherwise, all royal powers, including the Royal Prerogative, are carried out on behalf of the sovereign by the relevant viceroy, which, apart from those already mentioned, include a lieutenant governor in each province of Canada (appointed by the Governor General of Canada) and the Queen's Representative in the Cook Islands, who is appointed by the Queen herself.[36] In the United Kingdom, the Queen appoints Counsellors of State to perform her constitutional duties in her absence.

Similarly, the monarch or other members of the Royal Family will perform ceremonial duties in the Commonwealth realms to mark historically significant events.[37] They do so most frequently in the United Kingdom, and in the other countries during tours at least once every five or six years, meaning the Queen is present in a number of her dominions outside the UK, or acting on behalf of those realms abroad, approximately every other year.

Citizens in Commonwealth realms or British overseas territories may request birthday or wedding anniversary messages to be sent from the sovereign. This is available for 100th, 110th, and beyond for birthdays; and 60th ("Diamond"), 65th, 70th ("Platinum"), and beyond for wedding anniversaries.[38]

Religious role of the monarch

The sovereign's religious role differs from country to country. In all realms except Papua New Guinea the Queen is

sovereign "By the Grace of God", a phrase that forms a part of her official title within those states. In Canada, the United Kingdom, and New Zealand, "Defender of the Faith" (in Latin: *fidei defensor*) — the ancient phrase first granted in 1521 by Pope Leo X to King Henry VIII — is also included as a part of the royal title and the sovereign is anointed as such in the only coronation that takes place in any of the realms,[39] a ceremony in the context of a church service imbued with theological and constitutional symbolism and meaning, held at Westminster Abbey in London, United Kingdom.

However, it is solely in the United Kingdom that the Queen actually plays a role in organised religion. In England, she acts as the Supreme Governor of the Church of England and appoints its bishops and archbishops who thereafter act as her Lords Spiritual. In Scotland, she swears an oath to uphold and protect the Church of Scotland and sends to meetings of the church's General Assembly a Lord High Commissioner as her representative, when she is not personally in attendance.[40] Unusually for the Church of Scotland, Glasgow and Dunblane Cathedrals are both owned by the British Crown,[*citation needed*] though they are not like the Chapels Royal, which exist in both the United Kingdom and Canada and form a part of the Ecclesiastical Household in those two countries. In England and Scotland, these chapels are Royal Peculiars, and fall directly within the jurisdiction of the British monarch, as opposed to a diocese, as is the norm.[*citation needed*] To them, the Queen may also appoint her own chaplains from either the Church of England or of Scotland.

Royal family

As with the sovereign, a single royal family is shared by the Commonwealth realms, similarly being most frequently referred to in a casual fashion as the *British Royal Family*, sometimes causing conflict with official national titles, such as in Canada. Though there is no strict legal or formal definition of who is or is not a member of the Royal Family, the group is loosely defined as the extended family of the monarch. These persons constitute the apex of a modern royal court, regularly performing public duties at hundreds of events throughout the 16 realms each year. For this work, the Royal Family members receive no salary from any state; instead, only the expenses incurred for each event (security, transportation, venue, etc.) are, due to the nature of the Crown in the realms, funded by the relevant state individually through the ordinary legislative budgeting process. These engagements are organised in order for the Crown to honour, encourage, and learn about the achievements or endeavours of individuals, institutions, and enterprises in a variety of areas of the lives of the Queen's subjects. As representatives of the monarch, Royal Family members often also join the nation in commemorating historical events, holidays, and celebratory and tragic occurrences, as well as sponsoring or participating in numerous charitable, cultural, and social activities. Their work, which is all formally recorded in the Court Circular, draws public attention to amicable relations within and between the nations of the Commonwealth and beyond; the members of the Royal Family draw enormous media coverage in the form of photographic, written, and televised commentary on not only their activities and public roles, but also family relationships, rites of passage, personalities, attire, and behaviour.

Flags

The Queen employs various royal standards to mark her presence, the particular one used depending on which realm she is in or acting on behalf of at the time. There are currently unique flags for Australia, Barbados, Canada, Jamaica, New Zealand, and two variations for the United Kingdom — one for Scotland and another for the rest of the country. All are heraldic banners displaying the shield of the sovereign's coat of arms for that state, and each, save for those of the UK, are defaced in the centre with the Queen's Personal Flag, a crowned *E* for *Elizabeth* surrounded by a garland of roses representing the countries of the Commonwealth. This latter flag on its own is used for realms that do not have a unique personal standard for the monarch, as well as for general use in representing the Queen as Head of the Commonwealth. The monarch previously held royal standards for Sierra Leone, Mauritius, Malta, and Trinidad and Tobago, but these banners became obsolete when the countries became republics.

Other members of the Royal Family have their own personal standards. In the United Kingdom, most have their own distinctive banner or banners. The Prince of Wales and the Duke of Cambridge also have one each for Canada. Those who do not possess a standard for an individual realm will use their British standard to identify themselves when touring other Commonwealth realms and foreign countries.

The governors-general throughout the Commonwealth realms also each use a personal flag, which, like that of the sovereign, passes to each successive occupant of the office. Most feature a lion passant atop a St. Edward's royal crown with the name of the country across a scroll underneath, all on a blue background. The two exceptions are those of, since 1981, Canada (bearing on a blue background the crest of the Royal Coat of Arms of Canada) and, since 2008, New Zealand (a St. Edward's Crown above the shield of the Coat of Arms of New Zealand). The lieutenant governors of the Canadian provinces each have their own personal standards, as do the governors of the Australian states.



The Personal Flag of Queen Elizabeth II, used in a general capacity within the Commonwealth

Historical development

Dominions emerge

The possibility that a colony within the British Empire might become a new kingdom was first mooted in the 1860s, when it was proposed that the British North American territories of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Province of Canada unite as a confederation that might be known as the *Kingdom of Canada*.[41][42][43] In light of geo-political circumstances at the time, however, the name was abandoned in favour of the *Dominion of Canada*.[† 11] As more British colonies followed Canada in gaining legislative independence from the United Kingdom, Prime Minister of Canada Wilfrid Laurier was led to insist at the 1907 Imperial Conference that a formula be created to differentiate between the Crown and the self-governing colonies. For the latter the Canadian precedent was followed, and the term *Dominion* was extended to apply to Australia, New Zealand, Newfoundland, and the colonies of the Cape, Natal, and Transvaal, before and after they merged in 1910 with the Orange River Colony to form the Union of South Africa. These countries were joined in 1921 by the Irish Free State.



A compiled portrait of the main delegates to the signing of the Treaty

Although the Dominions were capable of governing themselves internally, they technically remained — especially in regards to foreign policy and defence — subject to British authority, wherein the governor-general of each Dominion represented the British monarch-in-Council reigning over these territories as a single imperial domain. It was commonly held in some circles that the Crown was a monolithic element throughout all the monarch's territories; A.H. Lefroy wrote in 1918 that "the Crown is to be considered as one and indivisible throughout the Empire; and cannot be severed into as many kingships as there are Dominions, and self-governing colonies."[44] This unitary model began to erode, however, when the Dominions gained more international prominence as a result of their participation and sacrifice in the First World War, in 1919 prompting Canadian prime minister Robert Borden and South African minister of defence Jan Smuts to demand that the Dominions be given at the Versailles Conference full recognition as "autonomous nations of an Imperial Commonwealth." The immediate result was that, though the King signed as High Contracting Party for the empire as a whole,[45] the Dominions were

of Versailles, including some of the Dominion delegates. [† 12]



King George V with his prime ministers at the Imperial Conference of 1926[† 13]

also separate signatories to the Treaty of Versailles, as well as, together with India, founding members of the League of Nations.

The pace of independence thereafter increased, with Canada exchanging envoys with the United States the following year and in 1923 concluding in its own right the Halibut Fisheries Treaty,[45] Prime Minister of the United Kingdom David Lloyd George stating in 1921 that the "British Dominions have now been accepted fully into the community of nations,"[46] and, by 1925, the Dominions felt confident enough to refuse to be bound by Britain's adherence to the Treaty of Locarno. This, combined with a realisation that the Crown was already operating distinctly and separately within each of the jurisdictions of the Canadian provinces and Australian states,[† 14][48][45] appeared to put to rest previous assertions that the Crown could never be divided amongst the Dominions.

Between the wars

Another catalyst for change came in 1926, when then Governor General of Canada the Lord Byng of Vimy refused the advice of his prime minister (William Lyon Mackenzie King) in what came to be known colloquially as the King–Byng Affair.[49] Mackenzie King, after resigning and then being reappointed as prime minister some months later, pushed at the Imperial Conference of 1926 for a reorganisation of the way the Dominions related to the British government, resulting in the Balfour Declaration, which declared formally that the Dominions were fully autonomous and equal in status to the United Kingdom.[50] What this meant in practice was not at the time worked out; conflicting views existed, some in the United Kingdom not wishing to see a fracturing of the sacred unity of the Crown throughout the empire, and some in the Dominions not wishing to see their jurisdiction have to take on the full brunt of diplomatic and military responsibilities.[31]

What did follow was that the Dominion governments gained a separate and direct relationship with the monarch, without the British Cabinet acting as an intermediary, and the governors-general now acted solely as a personal representative of the sovereign in right of that Dominion.[† 15] Though no formal mechanism for tendering advice to the monarch had yet been established — former Prime Minister of Australia William Morris Hughes theorised that the Dominion cabinets would provide informal direction and the British Cabinet would offer formal advice[52] — the concepts were first put into legal practice with the passage in 1927 of the Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, which implicitly recognised the Irish Free State as separate from the UK, and the King as king *of* each Dominion uniquely, rather than as the British king *in* each Dominion. At the same time, terminology in foreign relations was altered to demonstrate the independent status of the Dominions, such as the dropping of the term "Britannic" from the King's style outside of the United Kingdom.[53] Then, in 1930 George V's Australian ministers employed a practice adopted by resolution at that year's Imperial Conference,[45] directly advising the King to appoint Sir Isaac Isaacs as his Australian governor-general, against the preferences of the British government and the King himself.

These new developments were explicitly codified in 1931 with the passage of the Statute of Westminster, through which Canada, the Union of South Africa, and the Irish Free State all immediately obtained formal legislative independence from the UK, while in the other Dominions' adoption of the statute was subject to ratification by the Dominion's parliament. Australia and New Zealand did so in 1942 and 1947, respectively, with the former's ratification back-dated to 1939, and, though originally covered by it, Newfoundland never ratified the bill and reverted to direct British rule in 1934. What resulted was the inability for the parliament at Westminster to legislate for any Dominion unless requested to do so. Further, the Judicial Committee of the British Privy Council was left available as the last court of appeal for some Dominions.[54] This was all met with only minor trepidation either

before or at the time,[† 16] and the government of Ireland was confident that the relationship of these independent countries under the Crown would function as a personal union,[16] akin to that which had earlier existed between the United Kingdom and Hanover (1801 to 1837), or between England and Scotland (1603 to 1707). The civil division of the Court of Appeal of England and Wales later found in 1982 that the British parliament could have legislated for a Dominion simply by including in any new law a clause claiming the Dominion cabinet had requested and approved of the act, whether that was true or not.[56] Further, the British parliament was not obliged to fulfill a Dominion's request for legislative change. However, the words in the Statute of Westminster became written expression of a conventional rule that developed whereby British law would not extend beyond the borders of the United Kingdom unless a Dominion supplicated otherwise.[45] By 1937, the Appeal Division of the Supreme Court of South Africa ruled unanimously that a repeal of the Statute of Westminster in the United Kingdom would have no effect in South Africa, stating: "We cannot take this argument seriously. Freedom once conferred cannot be revoked."[57] Others in Canada upheld the same position.[45]

The first prominent example of this arrangement working in practice came with the abdication of King Edward VIII in 1936,[45] for which it was necessary to gain the approval of all the Dominions of the Commonwealth before the resignation could take place;[58] Canada, the Union of South Africa, and the Irish Free State even passed unique legislation to solidify the changes in succession within their jurisdictions.[† 17] Following the accession of Edward's brother, George VI, to the throne, the United Kingdom created legislation that would provide for a regency in the event of the incapacitation of the monarch. Though input was sought from the Dominions on this matter, all declined to make themselves bound by the British legislation, feeling instead that the governors-general could carry out royal functions in place of a debilitated sovereign.[60]

During his tenure as Governor General of Canada, Lord Tweedsmuir urged the organisation of a royal tour of the country by King George VI, so that he might not only appear in person before his people, but also personally perform constitutional duties and pay a state visit to the United States as king of Canada.[61] While the idea was embraced in Canada as a way to "translate the Statute of Westminster into the actualities of a tour," throughout the planning of the trip that took place in 1939, the British authorities resisted at numerous points the idea that the King be attended by his Canadian ministers instead of his British ones.[62] The Canadian prime minister (still Mackenzie King) was ultimately successful, however, in being the minister in attendance, and the King did in public throughout the trip ultimately act solely in his capacity as the Canadian monarch. Yet, the international status of the Crown was also illustrated by George VI simultaneously bolstering from both Canada and the United States support for the UK in the looming war with Nazi Germany.[61]



The prime ministers of five Commonwealth countries at the 1944 Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference; from left to right: William Lyon Mackenzie King (Canada), Jan Smuts (South Africa), Winston Churchill (United Kingdom), Peter Fraser (New Zealand), and John Curtin (Australia)

When this threat became reality, there was some uncertainty in the Dominions about the ramifications of Britain's declaration of war against Adolf Hitler. Australia and New Zealand had not yet ratified the Statute of Westminster; the Australian prime minister, Robert Menzies, considered the government bound by the British declaration of war,[63][64] while New Zealand coordinated a declaration of war to be made simultaneously with Britain's.[65] As late as 1937, some scholars were still of the mind that, when it came to declarations of war, if the King signed, he did so as king of the empire as a whole; at that time, W. Kennedy wrote: "in the final test of sovereignty — that of war — Canada is not a sovereign state... and it remains as true in 1937 as it was in 1914 that when the Crown is at war, Canada is legally at war,"[66] and, one year later, A. Berriedale Keith argued that "issues of war or neutrality still are decided on the final authority of the British Cabinet."[67] In 1939, however, Canada and South Africa made separate proclamations of war against Germany a

few days after the UK's. Their example was followed more consistently by the other realms as further war was declared against Italy, Rumania, Hungary, Finland, and Japan.[45] At the war's end, it was said by F.R. Scott that "it is firmly established as a basic constitutional principle that, so far as relates to Canada, the King is regulated by Canadian law and must act only on the advice and responsibility of Canadian ministers."[68]

Post-war evolution

Once the Second World War was over, India and Ceylon became independent Dominions of the Commonwealth, though it was made clear at the time that India would soon move to a republican form of government. Unlike Ireland and Burma at the time of their becoming republics, however, there was no desire on the part of India to give up its membership in the British Commonwealth, prompting a Commonwealth Conference and the issuance of the London Declaration in 1949, which entrenched the idea of Canadian prime minister Louis St. Laurent that different royal houses and republics be allowed in the Commonwealth so long as they recognised as the international organisation's symbolic head the shared sovereign of the UK and the Dominions.[69] At approximately the same time, the tabling in 1946 of the Canadian parliament's Canadian Citizenship Act brought into question the homogeneity of the King's subjects, which, prior to that year, was uniformly defined in terms of allegiance to the sovereign, without regard to the individual's country of residence. Following negotiations, it was decided in 1947 that each Commonwealth member was free to pass its own citizenship legislation, so that its citizens owed allegiance only to the monarch in right of that country.



Princess Elizabeth, Duchess of Edinburgh, and Philip Mountbatten, Duke of Edinburgh, on a tour of Canada, 3 November 1951

As these constitutional developments were taking place, the Dominion and British governments became increasingly concerned with how to represent the more commonly accepted notion that there was no distinction between the sovereign's role in the UK and his or her position in any of the Dominions. Thus, at the 1948 Prime Ministers' Conference the term *Dominion* was avoided in favour of *Commonwealth country*, in order to avoid the subordination implied by the older designation. Then, with the British proclamation of Elizabeth II's accession to the throne in 1952, the phrases *Commonwealth realm* and *Head of the Commonwealth* became established, deriving from the words that declared the monarch as "of this Realm, and of her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth." The Commonwealth realms' prime ministers thereafter discussed the matter of the new monarch's title, with St. Laurent stating at the 1953 Commonwealth Conference that it was important to agree on a format that would "emphasise the fact that the Queen is Queen of Canada, regardless of her sovereignty over other Commonwealth countries."[25] The result was a new Royal Style and Titles Act being passed in each of the seven realms then existing (excluding Pakistan), which all identically gave formal recognition to the separateness and equality of the countries involved, and replaced the phrase "British Dominions Beyond the Seas" with "Her Other Realms and Territories", the latter using the medieval French word *realm* (from *royaume*) in place of *dominion*. Further, at her coronation, Elizabeth II's oath contained a provision requiring her to promise to govern according to the rules and customs of the realms, naming each one separately. The change in perspective was summed up by Patrick Gordon Walker's statement in the British House of Commons: "We in this country have to abandon... any sense of property in the Crown. The Queen, now, clearly, explicitly and according to title, belongs equally to all her realms and to the Commonwealth as a whole."[24]

In the same period, Walker also suggested to the British parliament that the Queen should annually spend an equal amount of time in each of her realms. The Lord Altrincham, who in 1957 criticised Queen Elizabeth II for having a court that encompassed mostly Britain and not the Commonwealth as a whole,[70] was in favour of the idea, but it did not attract wide support.[71] Another thought raised was that viceregal appointments should become trans-Commonwealth; the Governor-General of Australia would be someone from South Africa, the Governor-General

of Ceylon would come from New Zealand, and so on. The prime ministers of Canada and Australia, John Diefenbaker and Robert Menzies, respectively, were sympathetic to the concept, but, again, it was never put into practice.[72]



Princess Alexandra represents her cousin, Queen Elizabeth II, at the opening of the newly created realm of Nigeria's federal parliament, 3 October 1960

The principle of fully separate and equal realms was followed in all future grants of independence, including those that came through the *winds of change* that swept through Africa in the 1960s, the collapse of the Federation of the West Indies in 1961, and at later dates. In post-colonial Africa, within a few years of their founding the realms drafted new constitutions in order to become republics within the Commonwealth; South Africa was the only exception, having been a Dominion and then a realm for 54 years before becoming a republic in 1961. The white minority government of Rhodesia in 1965 issued its unilateral declaration of independence, and its members affirmed their loyalty to Elizabeth II as *Queen of Rhodesia*, a title to which she had not consented, did not accept, and was not recognised internationally. Her representative in the colony, Sir Humphrey Gibbs, immediately dismissed his prime minister, Ian Smith, but this action was ignored by Smith and he appointed, without the Queen's consent, an Officer Administrating the Government to perform the governor's constitutional duties until 1970, when Smith's government declared Rhodesia a republic. The country to most recently become a Commonwealth realm was Saint Kitts and Nevis, achieving the status in 1983. At the same time, in other Commonwealth realms, including the United Kingdom, movements emerged advocating a republican government in place of constitutional monarchy; they were, and continue to be, countered by monarchist leagues that support the existing system and/or celebrate the historical and modern connections the shared monarchy provides. Unsuccessful referenda on proposed models of republics have taken place in Australia, Papua New Guinea, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

On 6 July 2010, Queen Elizabeth II addressed the United Nations in New York City as queen of all 16 Commonwealth realms.[73] The following year, the Prime Minister of Jamaica spoke of a desire to make that country a republic,[74][75] while the First Minister of Scotland and leader of the Scottish National Party (which favours Scottish independence) stated an independent Scotland would be a Commonwealth realm.[76]

Former Commonwealth realms

Country[‡ 1]	Dates as realm	Original republican system	Method of transition	Royal Standard
Ceylon[‡ 2]	1948 – 1972	Parliamentary republic	New constitution	
Fiji	1970 – 1987	Parliamentary republic	Military coup	
Gambia	1965 – 1970	Presidential republic	Referendum	
Ghana	1957 – 1960	Presidential republic	Referendum	
Guyana	1966 – 1970	Parliamentary republic	Constitutional amendment	

India	1947 – 1950	Parliamentary republic	New constitution	
Ireland	1931 – 1949[‡ 3]	Parliamentary republic	Act of parliament	
Kenya	1963 – 1964	Presidential republic	New constitution	
Malawi	1964 – 1966	Single-party republic	New constitution	
Malta	1964 – 1974	Parliamentary republic	Constitutional amendment	
Mauritius	1968 – 1992	Parliamentary republic	Constitutional amendment	
Nigeria	1960 – 1963	Parliamentary republic	Constitutional amendment	
Pakistan	1947 – 1956	Parliamentary republic	New constitution	
Sierra Leone	1961 – 1971	Presidential republic	New constitution	
South Africa	1931 – 1961	Parliamentary republic	Referendum and new constitution	
Tanganyika[‡ 4]	1961 – 1962	Presidential republic	New constitution	
Trinidad and Tobago	1962 – 1976	Parliamentary republic	New constitution	
Uganda	1962 – 1963	Parliamentary republic	Constitutional amendment	

1. ^ The flags shown are those in use at the time the country was a Commonwealth realm.
2. ^ Now called Sri Lanka. The Ceylonese flag changed in 1951.
3. ^ See also: Irish head of state from 1936-1949.
4. ^ Now a part of Tanzania.

Republican referendums

Various Commonwealth realms have held referendums to consider whether they should become republics. These include:

- Ghanaian constitutional referendum, 1960 (*passed*)
- South African republic referendum, 1960 (*passed*)
- Gambian republic referendum, 1965 (*failed*)
- Gambian republic referendum, 1970 (*passed*)
- Australian republic referendum, 1999 (*failed*)
- Tuvaluan constitutional referendum, 2008 (*failed*)
- Saint Vincent and the Grenadines constitutional referendum, 2009 (*failed*)

Elizabeth II

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Elizabeth II (Elizabeth Alexandra Mary; born 21 April 1926[note 1]) is the constitutional monarch of 16 sovereign states known as the Commonwealth realms, and head of the 54-member Commonwealth of Nations. In her specific role as the monarch of the United Kingdom, one of her 16 realms, she is also Supreme Governor of the Church of England.

Elizabeth was born in London, and educated privately at home. Her father acceded to the throne as George VI in 1936 on the abdication of his brother Edward VIII. She began to undertake public duties during the Second World War, in which she served in the Auxiliary Territorial Service. On the death of her father in 1952, she became Head of the Commonwealth and queen regnant of seven independent Commonwealth countries: the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Pakistan, and Ceylon. Her coronation service in 1953 was the first to be televised. Between 1956 and 1992, the number of her realms varied as territories gained independence and some realms became republics. Today, in addition to the first four aforementioned countries, Elizabeth is Queen of Jamaica, Barbados, the Bahamas, Grenada, Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, Tuvalu, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Belize, Antigua and Barbuda, and Saint Kitts and Nevis.

In 1947 she married Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, with whom she has four children: Charles, Anne, Andrew, and Edward. In 1992, which Elizabeth termed her *annus horribilis* ("horrible year"), Charles and Andrew separated from their wives, Anne divorced, and a severe fire damaged part of Windsor Castle. Revelations continued on the state of Charles's marriage to Diana, Princess of Wales, and they divorced in 1996. The following year, Diana died in a Paris car crash, and the media criticised the royal family for remaining in seclusion in the days before her funeral. Elizabeth's personal popularity rebounded after she appeared in public and has subsequently remained high.

Her reign of 60 years is the second-longest for a British monarch; only Queen Victoria has reigned longer. Her Silver and Golden Jubilees were celebrated in 1977 and 2002; her Diamond Jubilee is being celebrated during 2012.

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Elizabeth II in 2007

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Princess Anne, Princess Royal	
Prince Andrew, Duke of York	
Prince Edward, Earl of Wessex	
Full name	
Elizabeth Alexandra Mary	
House	House of Windsor
Father	George VI
Mother	Elizabeth Bowes-Lyon
Born	21 April 1926 Mayfair, United Kingdom

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Early life



Princess Elizabeth aged 3, 1929

Elizabeth was the first child of Prince Albert, Duke of York (later King George VI), and his wife, Elizabeth. Her father was the second son of King George V and Queen Mary, and her mother was the youngest daughter of Scottish aristocrat Claude Bowes-Lyon, 14th Earl of Strathmore and Kinghorne. She was born by Caesarean section at 2.40 am (GMT) on 21 April 1926 at her maternal grandfather's London house: 17 Bruton Street, Mayfair.[1] The Anglican Archbishop of York, Cosmo Lang, baptised her in the private chapel of Buckingham Palace on 29 May.[2][note 2] She was named Elizabeth after her mother, Alexandra after George V's mother, who had died six months earlier, and Mary after her paternal grandmother.[3] Her close family called her "Lilibet".[4] George V cherished his granddaughter, and during his serious illness in 1929 her regular visits were credited in the popular press and by later biographers with raising his spirits and aiding his recovery.[5]

Elizabeth's only sibling was Princess Margaret, born in 1930. The two princesses were educated at home under the supervision of their mother and their governess, Marion Crawford, who was casually known as "Crawfie".[6] Lessons concentrated on history, language, literature and music.[7] To the dismay of the royal family,[8] in 1950 Crawford published a biography of Elizabeth and Margaret's childhood years entitled *The Little Princesses*. The book describes Elizabeth's love of horses and dogs, her orderliness, and her attitude of responsibility.[9] Others

echoed such observations: Winston Churchill described Elizabeth when she was two as "a character. She has an air of authority and reflectiveness astonishing in an infant."[10] Her cousin Margaret Rhodes described her as "a jolly little girl, but fundamentally sensible and well-behaved".[11]

Heiress presumptive

As a granddaughter of the monarch in the male line, Elizabeth's full style at birth was *Her Royal Highness Princess Elizabeth of York*. She was third in the line of succession to the throne, behind her uncle, Edward, Prince of Wales, and her father. Although her birth generated public interest, she was not expected to become queen, as the Prince of Wales was still young, and many assumed he would marry and have children of his own.[12] In 1936, when her grandfather, George V, died and her uncle Edward succeeded, she became second in line to the throne after her father. Later that year, Edward abdicated after his proposed marriage to divorced socialite Wallis Simpson provoked a constitutional crisis.[13] Elizabeth's father became king, and she became heiress presumptive, with the style *Her Royal Highness The Princess Elizabeth*.[14] If her parents had had a son, he would have been heir apparent and above her in the line of succession.[15]



Princess Elizabeth aged 7, 1933
Painting by Philip de László

Elizabeth received private tuition in constitutional history from Henry Marten, Vice-Provost of Eton College,[16] and learned French from a succession of native-speaking governesses.[17] A Girl Guides company, the 1st Buckingham Palace Company, was formed specifically so she could socialise with girls her own age.[18] Later she was enrolled as a Sea Ranger.[17]

In 1939 Elizabeth's parents toured Canada and visited the United States. As in 1927, when her parents had toured Australia and New Zealand, Elizabeth remained in Britain as her father thought her too young to undertake public tours.[19] Elizabeth "looked tearful" as her parents departed.[20] They corresponded regularly,[20] and on 18 May, she and her parents made the first royal transatlantic telephone call.[19]

Second World War

From September 1939, with the outbreak of the Second World War, Elizabeth and Margaret stayed at Balmoral Castle, Scotland, until Christmas 1939, when they moved to Sandringham House, Norfolk.[21] From February to May 1940, they lived at Royal Lodge, Windsor, until moving to Windsor Castle, where they stayed for most of the next five years.[22] The suggestion by senior politician Lord Hailsham that the two princesses should be evacuated to Canada was rejected by Elizabeth's mother; she declared, "The children won't go without me. I won't leave without the King. And the King will never leave."[23] At Windsor, the princesses staged pantomimes at Christmas in aid of the Queen's Wool Fund, which bought yarn to knit into military garments.[24] In 1940, the 14-year-old Elizabeth made her first radio broadcast during the BBC's *Children's Hour*, addressing other children who had been evacuated from the cities.[25] She stated:

> We are trying to do all we can to help our gallant sailors, soldiers and airmen, and we are trying, too, to bear our share of the danger and sadness of war. We know, every one of us, that in the end all will be well.[25]

In 1943, at the age of 16, Elizabeth undertook her first solo public appearance on a visit to the Grenadier Guards, of which she had been appointed Colonel-in-Chief the previous year.[26] As she approached her 18th birthday, the law was changed so that she could act as one of five Counsellors of State in the event of her father's incapacity or absence abroad, such as his visit to Italy in July 1944.[27] In February 1945, she joined the Women's Auxiliary Territorial Service, as an honorary Second Subaltern with the service number of 230873.[28] She trained as a driver and mechanic,[29] and was promoted to honorary Junior Commander five months later.[30]

During the war, plans were drawn up to quell Welsh nationalism by affiliating Elizabeth more closely with Wales.[31] Welsh politicians proposed that Elizabeth be made Princess of Wales on her 18th birthday. The idea was supported by Home Secretary Herbert Morrison, but rejected by the King because he felt such a title belonged solely to the wife of a Prince of Wales, and the Prince of Wales had always been the heir apparent.[32] In 1946, she was inducted into the Welsh Gorsedd of Bards at the National Eisteddfod of Wales.[33]

At the end of the war in Europe, on Victory in Europe Day, Elizabeth and her sister mingled anonymously with the celebratory crowds in the streets of London. She later said in a rare interview, "we asked my parents if we could go out and see for ourselves. I remember we were terrified of being recognised ... I remember lines of unknown people linking arms and walking down Whitehall, all of us just swept along on a tide of happiness and relief."[34] Two years later, the princess made her first overseas tour, when she accompanied her parents through southern Africa. During the tour, in a broadcast to the British Commonwealth on her 21st birthday, she pledged: "I declare before you all that my whole life, whether it be long or short, shall be devoted to your service and the service of our great imperial family to which we all belong."[35]

Marriage

Further information: Wedding of Princess Elizabeth and Philip Mountbatten, Duke of Edinburgh

Elizabeth met her future husband, Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark, in 1934 and 1937.[36] After another meeting at the Royal Naval College in Dartmouth in July 1939, Elizabeth – though only 13 years old – fell in love with Philip, and they began to exchange letters.[37] They married on 20 November 1947 at Westminster Abbey. They are second cousins once removed through King Christian IX of Denmark and third cousins through Queen Victoria. Before the marriage, Philip renounced his Greek and Danish titles, converted from Greek Orthodoxy to Anglicanism, and adopted the style *Lieutenant Philip*

The Royal Family of the United Kingdom and the other Commonwealth realms



HM The Queen
HRH The Duke of Edinburgh

- HRH The Prince of Wales
  HRH The Duchess of Cornwall
  - HRH The Duke of Cambridge
    HRH The Duchess of Cambridge
  - HRH Prince Harry of Wales
- HRH The Duke of York
  - HRH Princess Beatrice of York
  - HRH Princess Eugenie of York
- HRH The Earl of Wessex
  HRH The Countess of Wessex
  - Viscount Severn
  - Lady Louise Windsor
- HRH The Princess Royal

- HRH The Duke of Gloucester
  HRH The Duchess of Gloucester
- HRH The Duke of Kent
  HRH The Duchess of Kent
- HRH Prince Michael of Kent
  HRH Princess Michael of Kent
- HRH Princess Alexandra

Mountbatten, taking the surname of his mother's British family.[38] Just before the wedding, he was created Duke of Edinburgh and granted the style of *His Royal Highness*.[39]

The marriage was not without controversy: Philip had no financial standing, was foreign-born (though a British subject), and had sisters who had married German noblemen with Nazi links.[40] Marion Crawford wrote, "Some of the King's advisors did not think him good enough for her. He was a prince without a home or kingdom. Some of the papers played long and loud tunes on the string of Philip's foreign origin."[41] Elizabeth's mother was reported, in later biographies, to have opposed the union initially, even dubbing Philip "The Hun".[42] In later life, however, she told biographer Tim Heald that Philip was "an English gentleman".[43]

Elizabeth and Philip received 2500 wedding gifts from around the world,[44] but Britain had not yet completely rebounded from the devastation of the war. Elizabeth still required ration coupons to buy the material for her gown, designed by Norman Hartnell.[45] In post-war Britain, it was not acceptable for the Duke of Edinburgh's German relations to be invited to the wedding, including Philip's three surviving sisters.[46] Edward, the former king, was not invited either.[47]

Elizabeth gave birth to her first child, Prince Charles, on 14 November 1948, less than one month after letters patent were issued by her father allowing her children to use the style and title of a royal prince or princess. They otherwise would not have been entitled to such a status as their father was no longer a royal prince.[48] A second child, Princess Anne, was born in 1950.[49]

Following their wedding, the couple leased Windlesham Moor near Windsor Castle, until 4 July 1949,[44] when they took up residence at Clarence House in London. At various times between 1949 and 1951, the Duke of Edinburgh was stationed in the British Protectorate of Malta as a serving Royal Navy officer. He and Elizabeth lived intermittently, for several months at a time, in the Maltese hamlet of Gwardamanġia, at the Villa Gwardamanġia, the rented home of Philip's uncle, Lord Mountbatten. The children remained in Britain.[50]

Reign

Accession and coronation

George VI's health declined during 1951, and Elizabeth was soon frequently standing in for him at public events. In October of that year, she toured Canada, and visited President Truman in Washington, D.C.; on the trip, her private secretary, Martin Charteris, carried a draft accession declaration for use if the King died while she was on tour.[51] In early 1952, Elizabeth and Philip set out for a tour of Australia and New Zealand by way of Kenya. On 6 February 1952, they had just returned to their Kenyan home, Sagana Lodge, after a night spent at Treetops Hotel, when word arrived of the death of Elizabeth's father. Philip broke the news to the new queen.[52] Martin Charteris asked her to choose a regnal name; she chose to remain Elizabeth, "of course".[53] She was proclaimed queen throughout her realms, and the royal party hastily returned to the United Kingdom.[54] She and the Duke of Edinburgh moved into Buckingham Palace.[55]

With Elizabeth's accession it seemed likely that the royal house would bear her husband's name. Lord Mountbatten thought it would be the *House of Mountbatten*, as Elizabeth would typically have taken Philip's last name on marriage; however Elizabeth's grandmother Queen Mary and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill favoured the retention of the House of Windsor, and so Windsor it remained. The Duke complained, "I am the only man in the country not allowed to give his name to his own children."[56] After the death of Queen Mary on 24 March 1953 and the resignation of Churchill in 1955, the surname *Mountbatten-Windsor* was adopted in



Coronation portrait of Queen Elizabeth II and the Duke of Edinburgh, June 1953

1960 for Philip and Elizabeth's male-line descendants who do not carry royal titles.[57]

Amid preparations for the coronation, Princess Margaret informed her sister that she wished to marry Peter Townsend, a divorced commoner 16 years older than Margaret with two sons from his previous marriage. The Queen asked them to wait for a year; in the words of Martin Charteris, "the Queen was naturally sympathetic towards the Princess, but I think she thought – she hoped – given time, the affair would peter out."[58] Senior politicians were against the match, and the Church of England did not permit re-marriage after divorce. If Margaret contracted a civil marriage, she would have to renounce her right of succession.[59] Eventually, she decided to abandon her plans with Townsend.[60] In 1960, she married Antony Armstrong-Jones, who was created Earl of Snowdon the following year. They were divorced in 1978. She did not remarry.[61]

Despite the death of Queen Mary ten weeks before, the coronation went ahead on 2 June 1953. Before she died, Mary had asked that the coronation not be delayed.[62] The ceremony in Westminster Abbey, except the anointing and communion, was televised for the first time,[63] and the coverage was instrumental in boosting the medium's popularity; the number of television licences in the United Kingdom doubled to 3 million,[64] and many of the more than 20 million British viewers watched television for the first time in the homes of their friends or neighbours.[65] In North America, just under 100 million viewers watched recorded broadcasts.[66] Elizabeth's coronation gown was commissioned from Norman Hartnell and embroidered on her instructions with the floral emblems of Commonwealth countries:[67] English Tudor rose, Scots thistle, Welsh leek, Irish shamrock, Australian wattle, Canadian maple leaf, New Zealand silver fern, South African protea, lotus flowers for India and Ceylon, and Pakistan's wheat, cotton, and jute.[68]

Continuing evolution of the Commonwealth

Further information: Historical development of the Commonwealth realms



Elizabeth witnessed, over her life, the ongoing transformation of the British Empire into the Commonwealth of Nations. By the time of Elizabeth's accession in 1952, her role as nominal head of multiple independent states was already established.[69] Spanning 1953–54, the Queen and her husband embarked on a six-month around-the-world tour. She became the first reigning monarch of Australia and New Zealand to visit those nations.[70] During the tour, crowds were immense; three-quarters of the population of Australia were estimated to have seen the Queen.[71] Throughout her reign, Elizabeth has undertaken state visits to foreign countries, and tours of Commonwealth ones. She is the most widely travelled head of state in history.[72]

In 1956, French Prime Minister Guy Mollet and British Prime Minister Sir Anthony Eden discussed the possibility of France joining the Commonwealth. The proposal was never accepted, and the following

Queen Elizabeth with Prime Minister of Australia Robert Menzies during her first visit to Australia in 1954

year France signed the Treaty of Rome, which established the European Economic Community, the precursor of the European Union.[73] In November 1956, Britain and France invaded Egypt in an ultimately unsuccessful attempt to capture the Suez Canal. Lord Mountbatten claimed the Queen was opposed to the invasion, though Eden denied it. Eden resigned two months later.[74]

The absence of a formal mechanism within the Conservative Party for choosing a leader meant that, following Eden's resignation, it fell to the Queen to decide whom to commission to form a government. Eden recommended that she consult Lord Salisbury (the Lord President of the Council). Lord Salisbury and Lord Kilmuir (the Lord Chancellor) consulted the Cabinet, Winston Churchill, and the Chairman of the backbench 1922 Committee, as a result of which the Queen appointed their recommended candidate: Harold Macmillan.[75]

The Suez crisis and the choice of Eden's successor led in 1957 to the first major personal criticism of the Queen. In a magazine, which he owned and edited,[76] Lord Altrincham accused her of being "out of touch".[77] Altrincham was denounced by public figures and physically attacked by a member of the public appalled at his comments.[78] Six years later in 1963, Macmillan resigned and advised the Queen to appoint the Earl of Home as prime minister, advice that she followed.[79] The Queen again came under criticism for appointing the Prime Minister on the advice of a small number of ministers, or a single minister.[79] In 1965, the Conservatives adopted a formal mechanism for choosing a leader, thus relieving her of involvement.[80]

In 1957, she made a state visit to the United States, where she addressed the United Nations General Assembly. On the same tour, she opened the 23rd Canadian Parliament, becoming the first monarch of Canada to open a parliamentary session.[81] Two years later, she revisited the United States as a representative of Canada.[81][82] In 1961, she toured Cyprus, India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Iran.[83] On a visit to Ghana the same year, she dismissed fears for her safety, even though her host President Kwame Nkrumah, who had replaced her as head of state, was a target for assassins.[84] Harold Macmillan wrote: "The Queen has been absolutely determined all through ... She is impatient of the attitude towards her to treat her as ... a film star ... She has indeed 'the heart and stomach of a man' ... She loves her duty and means to be a Queen."[84]



Elizabeth (left) with US First Lady Pat

Elizabeth's pregnancies with Princes Andrew and Edward in 1959 and 1963, respectively, mark the only times she has not performed the State Opening of the British parliament during her reign.[85] In addition to performing traditional ceremonies, she also instituted new practices. Her first royal walkabout, meeting ordinary members of the public, took place during a tour of Australia and New Zealand in 1970.[86]

The 1960s and 1970s saw an acceleration in the decolonisation of Africa and the Caribbean. Over 20 countries gained independence from Britain as part of a planned transition to self-government. In 1965, however, Rhodesian Prime Minister Ian Smith declared unilateral independence in opposition to moves toward majority black rule. Although the Queen dismissed Smith in a formal declaration and the international community applied sanctions against Rhodesia, Smith's regime survived for over a decade.[87]

In February 1974, British Prime Minister Edward Heath called a general election in the middle of the Queen's tour of the Austronesian Pacific

Nixon, 1970; President Nixon is hidden from view, next to British Prime Minister Edward Heath, behind Elizabeth

Rim and she had to fly back to Britain, interrupting the tour.[88] The inconclusive result of the election meant that Heath, whose Conservative party had the largest share of the popular vote but no overall majority, could stay in office if he formed a coalition with the Liberals. Heath only resigned when discussions on forming a cooperative government foundered, after which the Queen asked the Leader of the Opposition, Labour's Harold Wilson, to form a government.[89]

A year later, at the height of the 1975 Australian constitutional crisis, Australian Prime Minister Gough Whitlam was dismissed from his post by Governor-General Sir John Kerr after the Opposition-controlled Senate rejected Whitlam's budget proposals.[90] As Whitlam had a majority in the House of Representatives, Speaker Gordon Scholes appealed to the Queen to reverse Kerr's decision. Elizabeth declined, stating that she would not interfere in decisions reserved by the constitution of Australia for the governor-general.[91] The crisis fuelled Australian republicanism.[90]

Silver Jubilee

In 1977, Elizabeth marked the Silver Jubilee of her accession. Parties and events took place throughout the Commonwealth, many coinciding with the Queen's associated national and Commonwealth tours. The celebrations re-affirmed the Queen's popularity, despite virtually coincident negative press coverage of Princess Margaret's separation from her husband.[92] In 1978, Elizabeth endured a state visit to the United Kingdom by Romania's communist dictator Nicolae Ceauşescu, and his wife Elena,[93] though privately she thought they had "blood on their hands".[94] The following year brought two blows: one was the unmasking of Anthony Blunt, former Surveyor of the Queen's Pictures, as a communist spy; the other was the assassination of her relative and in-law Lord Mountbatten by the Provisional Irish Republican Army.[95]

According to Paul Martin, Sr., by the end of the 1970s the Queen was worried the Crown "had little meaning for" Canadian Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau.[96] Tony Benn said that the Queen found Trudeau "rather disappointing".[96] Trudeau's supposed republicanism seemed to be confirmed by his antics, such as sliding down banisters at Buckingham Palace and pirouetting behind the Queen's back in 1977, and the removal of various Canadian royal symbols during his term of office.[96] In 1980, Canadian politicians sent to London to discuss the patriation of the Canadian constitution found the Queen "better informed on ... Canada's constitutional case than any of the British politicians or bureaucrats".[96] She was interested in the constitutional debate after the failure of Bill C-60, which would have affected her role as head of state.[96] Patriation removed the role of the British parliament in the Canadian constitution, but the monarchy was retained. Trudeau said in his memoirs: "The Queen favoured my attempt to reform the Constitution. I was always impressed not only by the grace she displayed in public at all times, but by the wisdom she showed in private conversation."[97]

1980s

During the 1981 Trooping the Colour ceremony, and only six weeks before the wedding of Charles, Prince of Wales, and Lady Diana Spencer, six shots were fired at the Queen from close range as she rode down The Mall on her horse, Burmese. Police later discovered that the shots were blanks. The 17-year-old assailant, Marcus Sarjeant, was sentenced to five years in prison and released after three.[98] The Queen's composure and skill in controlling her mount were widely praised.[99] The following year, the Queen awoke in her bedroom at Buckingham Palace to find an intruder, Michael Fagan, in the room with her. Remaining calm, and through two calls to the palace police switchboard, the Queen spoke to Fagan while he sat at the foot of her bed until

assistance arrived seven minutes later.[100] From April to September that year, the Queen remained anxious[101] but proud[102] of her son, Prince Andrew, who was serving with British forces during the Falklands War. Though she hosted President Ronald Reagan at Windsor Castle in 1982, and visited his Californian ranch in 1983, she was angered when his administration ordered the invasion of Grenada, one of her Caribbean realms, without her foreknowledge.[103]


Elizabeth riding Burmese at a Trooping the Colour ceremony

Intense media interest in the opinions and private lives of the royal family during the 1980s led to a series of sensational stories in the press, not all of which were entirely true.[104] As Kelvin MacKenzie, editor of *The Sun*, told his staff: "Give me a Sunday for Monday splash on the Royals. Don't worry if it's not true – so long as there's not too much of a fuss about it afterwards."[105] Newspaper editor Donald Trelford wrote in *The Observer* of 21 September 1986: "The royal soap opera has now reached such a pitch of public interest that the boundary between fact and fiction has been lost sight of ... it is not just that some papers don't check their facts or accept denials: they don't care if the stories are true or not." It was reported, most notably in *The Sunday Times* of 20 July 1986, that Elizabeth was worried that British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher's economic policies fostered social divisions, and was alarmed by high unemployment, a series of riots, the violence of a miners' strike, and Thatcher's refusal to apply sanctions against the apartheid regime in South Africa. The sources of the rumours included royal aide Michael Shea and Commonwealth Secretary-General Shridath Ramphal, but Shea claimed his remarks were taken out of context and embellished by speculation.[106] Thatcher reputedly said the Queen would vote for the Social Democratic Party—Thatcher's political opponents.[107] Thatcher's biographer John Campbell claimed "... the report was a piece of journalistic mischief-making".[108] Belying reports of acrimony between them, Thatcher later conveyed her personal admiration for the Queen,[109] and after Thatcher's replacement by John Major, Elizabeth gave two honours in her personal gift to Thatcher: appointment to the Order of Merit and the Order of the Garter.[110]

In 1987, the elected Fijian government was deposed in a military coup. Elizabeth, as head of state, supported the attempts of the Governor-General, *Ratu* Sir Penaia Ganilau, to assert executive power and negotiate a settlement. Coup leader Sitiveni Rabuka deposed Ganilau, abolished the monarchy, and declared Fiji a republic.[111] By the start of 1991, republican feeling in Britain had risen because of press estimates of the Queen's private wealth, which were contradicted by the palace, and reports of affairs and strained marriages among her extended family.[112] The involvement of the younger royals in the charity game show *It's a Royal Knockout* was ridiculed,[113] and the Queen was the target of satire.[114]

1990s

In 1991, in the wake of victory in the Gulf War, Elizabeth became the first British monarch to address a joint session of the United States Congress.[115] The following year, she attempted to save the failing marriage of her eldest son, Charles, by counselling him and his wife, Diana, Princess of Wales, to reconcile.[116]

In a speech on 24 November 1992, to mark the 40th anniversary of her accession, the Queen called 1992 her *annus horribilis*, meaning *horrible year*.[117] In March, her second son Prince Andrew, Duke of York, and his wife Sarah, Duchess of York, separated. In April, her daughter Anne, Princess Royal, divorced her husband Captain Mark Phillips.[118] During a state visit to Germany in October, angry demonstrators in Dresden threw eggs at her,[119] and in November Windsor Castle suffered severe fire damage. The monarchy received increased criticism and public scrutiny.[120] In an unusually personal speech, Elizabeth said that any institution must expect


Prince Philip and Elizabeth II, October 1992

criticism, but suggested it be done with "a touch of humour, gentleness and understanding".[121] Two days later, Prime Minister John Major announced reforms of the royal finances that had been planned since the previous year, including the Queen paying income tax for the first time, starting in 1993, and a reduction in the civil list.[122] In December, Charles and Diana formally separated.[123] The year ended with a lawsuit as the Queen sued *The Sun* newspaper for breach of copyright when it published the text of her annual Christmas message two days before its broadcast. The newspaper was forced to pay her legal fees, and donated £200,000 to charity.[124]

In the ensuing years, public revelations on the state of Charles and Diana's marriage continued.[125] Even though support for a British republic seemed higher than at any time in living memory, republicanism remained a minority viewpoint and Elizabeth herself had high approval ratings.[126] Criticism was focused on the institution of monarchy itself and the Queen's wider family rather than the Queen's own behaviour and actions.[127] In consultation with Prime Minister Major, Archbishop of Canterbury George Carey, her private secretary Robert Fellowes, and her husband, she wrote to Charles and Diana at the end of December 1995, saying that a divorce was desirable.[128] A year after the divorce, which took place in 1996, Diana was killed in a car crash in Paris on 31 August 1997. The Queen was on holiday with her son and grandchildren at Balmoral. Diana's two sons wanted to attend church, and so the Queen and Prince Philip took them that morning.[129] After that single public appearance, for five days the Queen and the Duke shielded their grandsons from the intense press interest by keeping them at Balmoral where they could grieve in private.[130] The royal family's seclusion caused public dismay.[131] Pressured by the hostile reaction, the Queen agreed to a live broadcast to the world, the day before Diana's funeral and returned to London to deliver it on 5 September.[132] In the broadcast, she expressed admiration for Diana, and her feelings "as a grandmother" for Princes William and Harry.[133] As a result, much of the public hostility evaporated.[133]

Golden Jubilee and beyond

In 2002, Elizabeth marked her Golden Jubilee as queen. Her sister and mother died in February and March, respectively, and the media speculated as to whether the Jubilee would be a success or a failure.[134] She again undertook an extensive tour of her realms, which began in Jamaica in February, where she called the farewell banquet "memorable" after a power cut plunged the King's House, the official residence of the Governor-General, into darkness.[135] As in 1977, there were street parties and commemorative events, and monuments were named to honour the occasion. A million people attended each day of the three-day main Jubilee celebration in London,[136] and the enthusiasm shown by the public for Elizabeth was greater than many journalists had predicted.[137]


Elizabeth II and George W. Bush share a toast during a state dinner at the

Though generally healthy throughout her life, in 2003 she had keyhole surgery on both knees, and in June 2005 she cancelled several engagements after contracting a bad cold. In October 2006, she missed

the opening of the new Emirates Stadium because of a strained back muscle that had been troubling her since the summer.[138] Two months later, she was seen in public with a bandage on her right hand, which led to press speculation of ill health.[139] She had been bitten by one of her corgis while she was separating two that were fighting.[140]

White House, 7 May 2007



Elizabeth II (centre, in pink) during a walkabout in Queen's Park, Toronto, 6 July 2010

In May 2007, *The Daily Telegraph* newspaper reported claims from unnamed sources that the Queen was "exasperated and frustrated" by the policies of British Prime Minister Tony Blair, that she had shown concern that the British Armed Forces were overstretched in Iraq and Afghanistan, and that she had raised concerns over rural and countryside issues with Blair repeatedly.[141] She was, however, said to admire Blair's efforts to achieve peace in Northern Ireland.[142] On 20 March 2008, at the Church of Ireland St Patrick's Cathedral, Armagh, the Queen attended the first Maundy service held outside of England and Wales.[143] At the invitation of Irish President Mary McAleese, in May 2011 the Queen made the first state visit to the Republic of Ireland by a British monarch.[144]

Elizabeth addressed the United Nations for a second time in 2010, again in her capacity as queen of all her realms and Head of the Commonwealth.[145] UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon introduced her as "an anchor for our age".[146] During her visit to New York, which followed a tour of Canada, she officially opened a memorial garden for the British victims of the 11 September attacks.[146]

The Queen's visit to Australia in October 2011, her 16th visit since 1954, was called her "farewell tour" in the press because of her age.[147] Elizabeth plans to celebrate her Diamond Jubilee in 2012, marking 60 years as Queen. She is the longest-lived and second-longest-reigning monarch of the United Kingdom, and the second-longest-serving current head of state (after King Bhumibol Adulyadej of Thailand). She does not intend to abdicate,[148] though the proportion of public duties performed by Prince Charles may increase as Elizabeth reduces her commitments.[149]

She is scheduled to open the 2012 Summer Olympics on 27 July and the Paralympics on 29 August in London. Her father, George VI, opened the 1948 London Olympics, and her great-grandfather, Edward VII, opened the 1908 London Olympics. Elizabeth also opened the 1976 Games in Canada, and Prince Philip opened the Melbourne Olympics in 1956.[150]

Public perception and character

Main article: Personality and image of Queen Elizabeth II

Since Elizabeth rarely gives interviews, little is known of her personal feelings. As a constitutional monarch, she has not expressed her own political opinions in a public forum. She does have a deep sense of religious and civic duty, and takes her coronation oath seriously.[151] Aside from her official religious role as Supreme Governor of the established Church of England, she personally worships with that church and with the national Church of Scotland.[152] She has demonstrated support for inter-faith relations, and has met with leaders of other religions, and granted her personal patronage to the Council of Christians and Jews.[153] A personal note about her faith often features in her annual Royal Christmas Message broadcast to the Commonwealth, such as in 2000, when she spoke about the theological significance of the millennium marking the 2000th anniversary of the birth of

Jesus Christ:

> To many of us, our beliefs are of fundamental importance. For me the teachings of Christ and my own personal accountability before God provide a framework in which I try to lead my life. I, like so many of you, have drawn great comfort in difficult times from Christ's words and example.[154]



Elizabeth II and Ronald Reagan riding at Windsor, 1982

Elizabeth is the patron of over 600 charities and other organisations.[155] Her main leisure interests include equestrianism and dogs, especially her Pembroke Welsh Corgis.[156] Her clothes consist mostly of solid-colour overcoats and decorative hats, which allow her to be seen easily in a crowd.[157]

In the 1950s, as a young woman at the start of her reign, Elizabeth was depicted as a glamorous "fairytale Queen".[158] After the trauma of the war, it was a time of hope, a period of progress and achievement heralding a "new Elizabethan age".[159] Lord Altrincham's accusation in 1957 that her speeches sounded like those of a "priggish schoolgirl" was an extremely rare criticism.[160] In the late 1960s, attempts to portray a more modern image of monarchy were made in the television documentary *Royal Family*, and by televising Prince Charles's investiture as Prince of Wales.[161]

At her Silver Jubilee in 1977, the crowds and celebrations were genuinely enthusiastic,[162] but in the 1980s public criticism of the royal family increased, as the personal and working lives of Elizabeth's children came under media scrutiny.[163] Elizabeth's popularity sank to a low point in the 1990s. Under pressure from public opinion, she began to pay income tax for the first time, and Buckingham Palace was opened to the public.[164] Discontent with the monarchy reached its peak on the death of Diana, Princess of Wales, though the Queen's popularity rebounded after her live broadcast to the world five days after Diana's death.[165]

In November 1999, a referendum in Australia on the future of the Australian monarchy favoured its retention in preference to an indirectly elected head of state.[166] Polls in Britain in 2006 and 2007 revealed strong support for Elizabeth,[167] and referendums in Tuvalu in 2008 and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines in 2009 both rejected proposals to become republics.[168]

Finances

Further information: Finances of the British Royal Family

Elizabeth's personal fortune has been the subject of speculation for many years. *Forbes* magazine estimated her net worth at around US$450 million in 2010,[169] but official Buckingham Palace statements in 1993 called estimates of £100 million "grossly overstated".[170] Jock Colville, who was her former private secretary and a director of her bank, Coutts, estimated her wealth in 1971 at £2 million (the equivalent of about £21 million today[171]).[172][173] The Royal Collection, which includes artworks and the Crown Jewels, is not owned by the Queen personally and is held in trust,[174] as are the occupied palaces in the United Kingdom such as Buckingham Palace and Windsor Castle,[175]



Sandringham House, Elizabeth's private residence in Sandringham, Norfolk

and the Duchy of Lancaster, a property portfolio valued at £383 million in 2011.[176] Sandringham House and Balmoral Castle are privately owned by the Queen.[175] The British Crown Estate—with holdings of £7.3 billion in 2011[177]—is held in trust for the nation, and cannot be sold or owned by Elizabeth in a private capacity.[178]

Titles, styles, honours, and arms

Titles and styles

Main article: List of titles and honours of Queen Elizabeth II



Personal Flag of Queen Elizabeth II

Elizabeth has held titles throughout her life, as a granddaughter of the monarch, as a daughter of the monarch, through her husband's titles, and eventually as Sovereign. In common parlance, she is *The Queen* or *Her Majesty*. Officially, she has a distinct title in each of her realms: Queen of Canada in Canada, Queen of Australia in Australia, etc. In the Channel Islands and Isle of Man, which are Crown dependencies rather than separate realms, she is known as Duke of Normandy and Lord of Mann respectively. Additional styles include Defender of the Faith and Duke of Lancaster. When in conversation with the Queen, the practice is to initially address her as *Your Majesty* and thereafter as *Ma'am*.[179]

She has received honours and awards from around the world, and has held honorary military positions throughout the Commonwealth, both before and after her accession.

Arms

See also: Flags of Elizabeth II

From 21 April 1944, Elizabeth's arms consisted of a lozenge bearing the royal coat of arms of the United Kingdom, differenced with a label of three points argent, the centre point bearing a Tudor rose and the first and third a cross of St. George.[180] After her accession as Sovereign, she adopted the royal coat of arms undifferenced. The design of the shield is also used on the Royal Standard of the United Kingdom. Elizabeth has personal flags for use in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Jamaica, Barbados, and elsewhere.[181]



Coat of arms of Princess Elizabeth (1944–1947)



Coat of arms of Princess Elizabeth, Duchess of Edinburgh (1947–1952)



Coat of arms of Elizabeth II in the United Kingdom (except Scotland)



Coat of arms of Elizabeth II in Scotland



Coat of arms of Elizabeth II in Canada (one of three versions used in her reign)[note 3]

Issue

See also: Succession to the British throne#Current line of succession

Name	Birth	Marriage		Children	Grandchildren
Prince Charles, Prince of Wales	14 November 1948	29 July 1981 Divorced 28 August 1996	Lady Diana Spencer	Prince William, Duke of Cambridge Prince Harry of Wales	
		9 April 2005	Camilla Shand		
Princess Anne, Princess Royal	15 August 1950	14 November 1973 Divorced 28 April 1992	Captain Mark Phillips	Peter Phillips	Savannah Phillips
				Zara Phillips	
		12 December 1992	Sir Timothy Laurence		
Prince Andrew, Duke of York	19 February 1960	23 July 1986 Divorced 30 May 1996	Sarah Ferguson	Princess Beatrice of York Princess Eugenie of York	
Prince Edward, Earl of Wessex	10 March 1964	19 June 1999	Sophie Rhys-Jones	Lady Louise Windsor James, Viscount Severn	

Ancestry

Main articles: Ancestry of Elizabeth II and Descent of Elizabeth II from William I

See also

- List of current heads of state and government
- List of the richest royals
- Royal intermarriage

Notes

- ^**[note 1]** See Queen's Official Birthday for an explanation of why her official birthday is not the same as her real one.
- ^**[note 2]** Her godparents were: King George V and Queen Mary; Lord Strathmore; Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught (her paternal great-granduncle); Princess Mary, Viscountess Lascelles (her paternal aunt); and Lady Elphinstone (her maternal aunt).[182]
- ^**[note 3]** Canada has used three different versions of the arms during her reign. This version was used between 1957 and 1994.[183]

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3. ^ Brandreth, p. 103
4. ^ Pimlott, p. 12
5. ^ Lacey, p. 56; Nicolson, p. 433; Pimlott, pp. 14–16
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7. ^ Brandreth, p. 124; Lacey, pp. 62–63; Pimlott, pp. 24, 69
8. ^ Brandreth, pp. 108–110; Lacey, pp. 159–161; Pimlott, pp. 20, 163
9. ^ Brandreth, pp. 108–110
10. ^ Brandreth, p. 105; Lacey, p. 81; Shawcross, pp. 21–22
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12. ^ Bond, p. 8; Lacey, p. 76; Pimlott, p. 3
13. ^ Lacey, pp. 97–98
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House of Windsor

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The **House of Windsor** is the royal house of the Commonwealth realms. It was founded by King George V by royal proclamation on the 17 July 1917, when he changed the name of his family from the German **Saxe-Coburg and Gotha** (a branch of the House of Wettin) to the English *Windsor*, due to the anti-German sentiment in the United Kingdom during World War I. Currently, the most prominent member of the House of Windsor is Queen Elizabeth II, the reigning monarch of the Commonwealth realms.

House of Windsor



Country	Antigua and Barbuda Australia Bahamas Barbados Belize Canada Grenada Jamaica New Zealand Papua New Guinea Saint Kitts and Nevis Saint Lucia Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Solomon Islands Tuvalu United Kingdom
Ancestral house	Wettin → Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Titles	*Various*
Founder	George V

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Foundation [edit]



"A God from P… comme… relinqu… membe…

Edward VII, and, in turn, his son, George V were members of the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, a German ducal family, by virtue of their descent from Albert, Prince Consort, husband of Queen Victoria. High anti-German sentiment amongst the people of the British Empire during World War I reached a peak in March 1917, when the Gotha G.IV, a heavy aircraft capable of crossing the English Channel began bombing London directly. The aircraft became a household name, and the name *Gotha* was part of the name of the royal family, *Saxe-Coburg-Gotha*. These bombings were coupled with the abdication of King George's first cousin, Nicholas II, the Tsar of Russia on 15 March 1917, which raised the spectre of the eventual abolition of all the monarchies in Europe. The King and his family were finally convinced to abandon all titles held under the German Crown, and to change German titles and house names to anglicised versions. Hence, on 17 July 1917, a royal proclamation issued by George V declared:

> Now, therefore, We, out of Our Royal Will and Authority, do hereby declare and announce that as from the date of this Our Royal Proclamation Our House and Family shall be styled and known as the House and Family of Windsor, and that all the descendants in the male line of Our said Grandmother Queen Victoria who are subjects of these Realms, other than female descendants who may marry or may have married, shall bear the said Name of Windsor....[1]

Upon hearing that his cousin had changed the name of the British royal house to Windsor, German Emperor Wilhelm II remarked jokingly that he planned to see Shakespeare's play *The Merry Wives of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha*.

The name had a long association with British royalty, through the town of Windsor, Berkshire and Windsor Castle, a link reflected in the Round Tower of Windsor Castle being the basis of the badge of the House of Windsor.

Also in 1917 Prince Louis of Battenberg adopted the surname Mountbatten, a partial translation into English. Prince Louis is the maternal grandfather of Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh. From 1917 to 1919, George V also stripped 15 of his German relations - most of whom belonged to the House of Hanover - of their British titles and styles of prince and princess.

Descendants of Elizabeth II [edit]

When Princess Elizabeth (as she then was) married Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark, the standard practice would be to adopt the name of his royal house. Because he was a prince, Prince Philip did not have a surname but he was of the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, a branch of the House of Oldenburg, and that ruled or rules as Kings of Greece, Denmark and Norway. Not wishing to repeat the difficulties of three decades previous, before his marriage Prince Philip renounced his titles and adopted the surname Mountbatten, the literal translation of the German Battenberg that his maternal grandfather had adopted in 1917. The Mountbatten/Battenberg name refers to Battenberg, a small town in Hesse.

On 9 April 1952, Queen Elizabeth II officially declared her "Will and Pleasure that I and My children shall be styled and known as the House and Family of Windsor, and that my descendants who marry and their descendants, shall bear the name of Windsor."[2] On 8 February 1960, the Queen confirmed that she and her children would continue to be known as the House and Family of Windsor, as would any agnatic descendants who enjoy the style of Royal Highness, and the title of Prince or Princess.[2] Still, Elizabeth also decreed that her agnatic descendants who do not have that style and title would bear the surname Mountbatten-Windsor.[2]

Any future monarch can change the dynastic name through a similar royal proclamation, as royal proclamations do not have statutory authority.[3]

Members [edit]

The 1917 proclamation stated that the name of the Royal House and all British descendants of Victoria and Albert in the male line were to bear the name of Windsor, except for women who married into other families.

By early 1919 the living male-line British descendants of Victoria subject to British rule were King George V, his five sons, his daughter Princess Mary, his unmarried sister Princess Victoria, his uncle Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn, his cousin Prince Arthur of Connaught, his cousin once removed Prince Alastair of Connaught, and his unmarried cousin Princess Patricia of Connaught. Prince Alastair and Princess Patricia were created by [illegible] and subsequent members of the Lascelles family, and Princess Patricia married Alexander Ramsay of Mar. Neither of the Prince Arthurs had any [illegible]

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House of Windsor descend from the sons of George V.

Two of George V's sons, Edward VIII (later Duke of Windsor) and Prince John, had no children, so the entire present day members of the House of Windsor are descendants of the other three sons, Prince Albert, Duke of York (later George VI), Prince Henry, Duke of Gloucester, and Prince George, Duke of Kent. All descendants living and dead are shown in the table.

As of January 2011, two of these descendants are dead: Princess Margaret, Countess of Snowdon, and Prince William of Gloucester. Seven are Roman Catholic or are married to a Roman Catholic (labelled "CA" in the table), and are thus excluded from the succession. The remaining 43 are in the line of succession:

- Descendants of George V in male line
- Descendants of Queen Elizabeth II and Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, in male line
- Other descendants of the House of Windsor

Generations from George V	Place in the line of succession	Name	Birth (& Age)	Image
Descendants of George VI				
2	Sovereign	HM Queen Elizabeth II	21 April 1926 (age 85)	
3	1	HRH The Prince of Wales	14 November 1948 (age 63)	
4	2	HRH The Duke of Cambridge	21 June 1982 (age 29)	
4	3	HRH Prince Harry of Wales	15 September 1984 (age 27)	
3	4	HRH The Duke of York	19 February 1960 (age 52)	
4	5	HRH Princess Beatrice of York	8 August 1988 (age 23)	
4	6	HRH Princess Eugenie of York	23 March 1990 (age 21)	
3	7	HRH The Earl of Wessex	10 March 1964 (age 48)	
4	8	Viscount Severn	17 December 2007 (age 4)	
4	9	Lady Louise Windsor	8 November 2003 (age 8)	
3	10	HRH The Princess Royal[fn 1]	15 August 1950 (age 61)	
4	11	Mr Peter Phillips	15 November 1977 (age 34)	
5	12	Miss Savannah Phillips	29 December 2010 (age 1)	
4	13	Mrs Zara Phillips MBE	15 May 1981 (age 30)	
2	Deceased	HRH Princess Margaret, Countess of Snowdon	21 August 1930 9 February 2002 (aged 71)	
3	14	Viscount Linley	3 November 1961 (age 50)	
4	15	The Hon Charles Armstrong-Jones	1 July 1999 (age 12)	
4	16	The Hon Margarita Armstrong-Jones	14 May 2002 (age 9)	
3	17	Lady Sarah Chatto	1 May 1964 (age 47)	
4	18	Master Samuel Chatto	28 July 1996 (age 15)	
4	19	Master Arthur Chatto	5 February 1999 (age 13)	
Descendants of Prince Henry, Duke of Gloucester				
2	Deceased	HRH Prince William of Gloucester	18 December 1941 28 August 1972 (aged 30)	
2	20	HRH The Duke of Gloucester	26 August 1944 (age 67)	
3	21	Earl of Ulster	24 October 1974 (age 37)	
4	22	Lord Culloden	12 March 2007 (age 5)	
4	23	Lady Cosima Windsor	20 May 2011 (age 1)	

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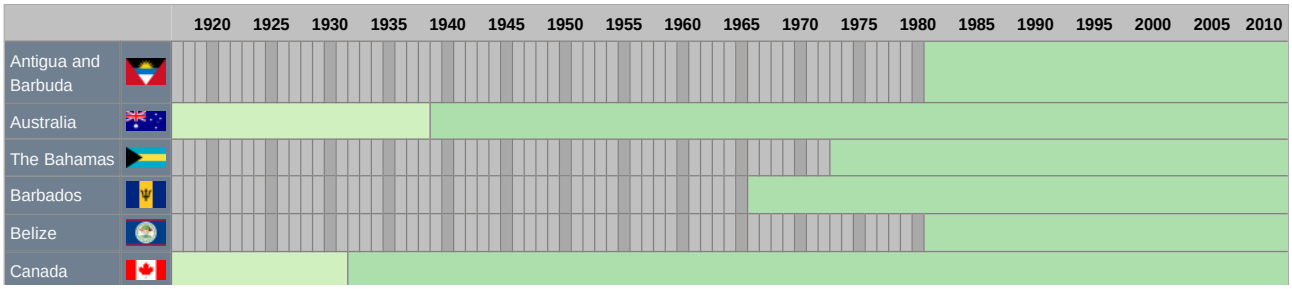
3	24	Lady Davina Lewis	19 November 1977 (age 34)	
4	25	Miss Senna Lewis	30 June 2010 (age 1)	
3	26	Lady Rose Gilman	1 March 1980 (age 32)	
4	27	Miss Lyla Gilman	1 July 2010 (age 1)	
Descendants of Prince George, Duke of Kent				
2	28	HRH The Duke of Kent	9 October 1935 (age 76)	
3	CA	Earl of St Andrews	26 May 1962 (age 49)	
4	CA	Lord Downpatrick	2 December 1988 (age 23)	
4	CA	Lady Marina Windsor	30 September 1992 (age 19)	
4	29	Lady Amelia Windsor	24 August 1995 (age 16)	
3	CA	Lord Nicholas Windsor	25 June 1970 (age 41)	
4	CA	Master Albert Windsor	22 September 2007 (age 4)	
4	CA	Leopold Windsor	8 September 2009 (age 2)	
3	30	Lady Helen Taylor	28 April 1964 (age 47)	
4	31	Master Columbus Taylor	6 August 1994 (age 17)	
4	32	Master Cassius Taylor	26 December 1996 (age 15)	
4	33	Miss Eloise Taylor	2 March 2003 (age 9)	
4	34	Miss Estella Taylor	21 December 2004 (age 7)	
2	CA	HRH Prince Michael of Kent	4 July 1942 (age 69)	
3	35	Lord Frederick Windsor	6 April 1979 (age 32)	
3	36	Lady Gabriella Windsor	23 April 1981 (age 30)	
2	37	HRH Princess Alexandra, The Honourable Lady Ogilvy	25 December 1936 (age 75)	
3	38	Mr James Ogilvy	29 February 1964 (age 48)	
4	39	Miss Flora Ogilvy	15 December 1994 (age 17)	
4	40	Master Alexander Ogilvy	12 November 1996 (age 15)	
3	41	Mrs Marina Ogilvy	31 July 1966 (age 45)	
4	42	Mr Christian Mowatt	4 June 1993 (age 18)	
4	43	Miss Zenouska Mowatt	26 May 1990 (age 21)	

Titles [edit]

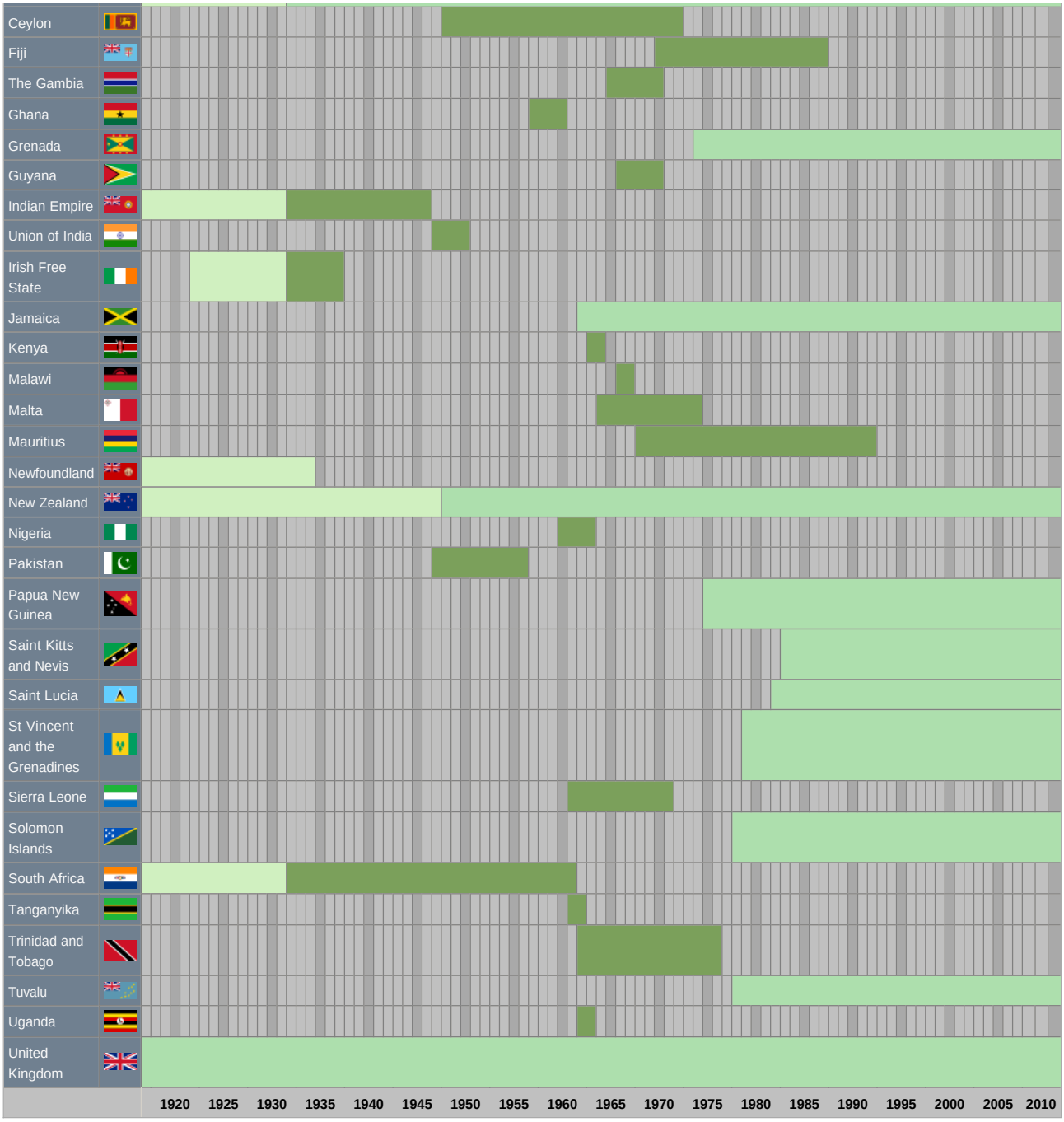
Designation and details [edit]

At the creation of the House of Windsor, its head reigned over a unitary British Empire. Following the end of the First World War, however, geo-political shifts took place that saw the emergence of the Dominions as sovereign states, the first step being the issuance of the Balfour Declaration in 1926, followed by the Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act the next year, and the Statute of Westminster in 1931. From then on, the House of Windsor became the royal house of multiple countries, a number that shifted over the decades, as some Dominions became republics and Crown colonies became realms, republics or monarchies under a different sovereign. Since 1949, two monarchs of the House of Windsor, George VI and Elizabeth II, have also been Head of the Commonwealth of Nations, comprising most (but not all) parts of the former British Empire and some states that were never part of it.

In the chart below, the countries are differentiated between light green (realms of the House of Windsor as dominions), medium green (present realms of the House of Windsor), and dark green (former realms of the House of Windsor).



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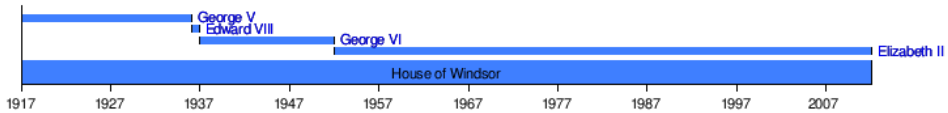


List of Commonwealth realms monarchs [edit]

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Portrait	Name	From	Until	Relationship with predecessor
	King Edward VII	22 January 1901	6 May 1910	son of Queen Victoria and Albert, Prince Consort
	King George V	6 May 1910	20 January 1936	son of Edward VII. Founder, House of Windsor.
	King Edward VIII	20 January 1936	11 December 1936	son of George V; Abdicated
	King George VI	11 December 1936	6 February 1952	son of George V & brother of abdicated Edward VIII
	Queen Elizabeth II	6 February 1952	*reigning*	daughter of George VI

Timeline of Monarchs [edit]



Further reading [edit]

- Longford, Elizabeth Harman (Countess of Longford). *The Royal House of Windsor*. Revised ed. Crown, 1984.
- Roberts, Andrew. *The House of Windsor*. University of California Press, 2000.

See also [edit]

- British Royal Family
- British prince
- British princess
- Canadian Royal Family
- Australian Royal Family
- New Zealand Royal Family
- Mountbatten-Windsor
- List of descendants of George V
- Windsor, Berkshire
- Windsor Castle
- History of the British line of succession

Notes [edit]

1. ^ Princess Anne is not 4th in line, as would be expected by her birth order, but 10th. This is a result of the rule of male-preference primogeniture currently practiced by the British monarchy.

References [edit]

1. ^ *London Gazette*: no. 30186. p. 7119. 17 July 1917.
2. ^ [a] [b] [c] Royal Styles and Titles – 1960 Letters Patent
3. ^ The Royal Family name, Royal Household, retrieved 15 February 2011

External links [edit]

- Royal Family Name from royal.gov.uk
- House of Windsor from royal.gov.uk
- House of Windsor Tree from royal.gov.uk [Lord Culloden & Albert+Leopold Windsor are missing]

Royal House **House of Windsor** Cadet branch of the **House of Wettin**		
Preceded by **House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha**	**Ruling House of the United Kingdom and the other Commonwealth realms.** 1917–present	Succeeded by **Incumbent**

VTE	**Royal houses of Europe**
Nordic countries	
Denmark	Early Danish Kings House of Pomerania Palatinate-Neumarkt Oldenburg Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
Finland	Kainuu Bjelbo Mecklenburg Oldenburg Vasa Pfalz-Zweibrücken Hesse Holstein-Gottorp Romanov

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Norway	Fairhair House of Pomerania Palatinate-Neumarkt Oldenburg Bernadotte Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
Sweden	Munsö Stenkil Sverker Eric Bjelbo Mecklenburg House of Pomerania Palatinate-Neumarkt Oldenburg Vasa Palatinate-Zweibrücken Hesse-Kassel Holstein-Gottorp Bernadotte
United Kingdom	
England	Mercia Wuffing Kent Sussex Essex Bernicia Deira Northumbria Uí Ímair Wessex Denmark Normandy Plantagenet Lancaster York Tudor Stuart Orange-Nassau
Scotland	Fergus Óengus Strathclyde Mann and the Isles Alpin Northumbria Bernicia Uí Ímair Galloway Dunkeld Fairhair Balliol Bruce Stuart Orange-Nassau
Wales	Dinefwr Aberffraw Gwynedd Mathrafal Cunedda
Ireland	Ulaid Dál Cuinn/Connachta Laigin Uí Fidgenti Uí Liatháin Eóganachta (including Mac Cárthaigh) Dáirine / Érainn (including Corcu Loígde) Dál gCais Bruce Tudor Stuart Orange-Nassau
Great Britain	Stuart Hanover Saxe-Coburg and Gotha **Windsor**
Eastern Europe	
Albania	Angevin Arianiti Kastrioti Wied Osman Zogu
Armenia	Orontid Artaxiad Arsacid Bagratid Artsruni Rubenids Hethumids Lusignans Savoy Romanov
Bosnia	Kotromanić Osman Habsburg-Lorraine
Bulgaria	Dulo Cometopuli Asen Terter Shishman Osman Battenberg Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Croatia	Trpimirović Domagojević Svačić Árpád Angevin Osman Luxembourg Habsburg Habsburg-Lorraine Bonaparte *Savoy (disputed)*
Georgia	Mukhrani Bagrationi Romanov
Greece	Doukas Komnenos Angelos Laskaris Palaeologos Osman Wittelsbach Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
Moldavia	Bogdan-Mușat Movileşti Drăculeşti Ghica Cantacuzene Cantemireşti Romanov Racoviță Mavrocordato Ypsilanti Soutzos Mourousi Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen House of Basarab
Montenegro	Vojislavljević Balšić Crnojević Petrović
Romania	House of Basarab Bogdan-Mușat Movileș ti Drăculeș ti Ghica Cantacuzene Cantemireș ti Romanov Racoviț ă Mavrocordato Ypsilantis Soutzos Mourousi Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen Romania/Royal Family
Russia	Rurikovich Borjigin Godunov Shuysky Vasa Romanov
Serbia	Vlastimirović Vojislavljević Vukanović Nemanjić Lazarević Branković Balšić Crnojević Obrenović Osman Karađorđević
Turkey	Seljuq Osman
Ukraine	Rurikovich Gediminids Giray Romanov Habsburg-Lorraine
Western Europe	
Austria	Babenberg Habsburg Habsburg-Lorraine
Belgium	Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Bohemia	Přemyslid Luxembourg Jagiellon Habsburg Habsburg-Lorraine
France	Merovingian Carolingian Capet Valois Bourbon Bonaparte Orléans
Germany	Ascania Carolingian Conradines Ottonian Luitpolding Salian Hohenstaufen Welf Habsburg Hanover Saxe-Coburg and Gotha Nassau Luxembourg Wittelsbach Schwarzburg Brunswick-Lüneburg House of Pomerania Hohenzollern Württemberg Oldenburg Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg Orange-Nassau Nassau-Weilburg Mecklenburg Vasa Pfalz-Zweibrücken Hesse Holstein-Gottorp Romanov Bonaparte Wettin Schwarzburg Lippe
Hungary	Árpád Přemyslid Wittelsbach Angevin Luxembourg Hunyadi Jagiellon Szapolyai Habsburg Habsburg-Lorraine
Gaelic Ireland	Laigin Síl Conairi Ulaid Dáirine Osraige Cruthin Dál nAraidi Connachta Uí Fiachrach Uí Briúin Uí Néill Síl nÁedo Sláine Clann Cholmáin Eóganachta Chaisil Glendamnach Raithlind Uí Dúnlainge Uí Ímair (Norse) Uí Ceinnselaig Dál gCais Ó Briain Mac Carthaig Ó Conchobhair Ó Ruairc De Burgh (Norman) FitzGerald (Norman) Ó Domhnaill Ó Néill
Italy	Este Savoy Colonna Medici Borghese Sforza Borromeo Montefeltro Orsini Visconti Gonzaga Farnese Della Rovere Acciaioli Grimaldi Pamphili Barberini Malatesta Gens Iulia Torlonia Bonaparte Murat Bourbon-Parma Bourbon-Two Sicilies
Liechtenstein	Liechtenstein
Lithuania	Mindaugas Gediminids Jagiellon Valois Bathory Vasa Wiśniowiecki Sobieski Wettin Leszczyński Poniatowski Romanov
Luxembourg	Orange-Nassau Nassau-Weilburg Bourbon-Parma
Monaco	Grimaldi
Netherlands	Bonaparte Orange-Nassau
Poland	Piast Přemyslid Samborides Griffins Jagiellon Valois Bathory Vasa Wiśniowiecki Sobieski Wettin Leszczyński Poniatowski Romanov
Portugal	Vímara Peres Borgonha Aviz and House of Aviz-Beja Habsburg Braganza and Braganza-Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Spain	Asturian Barcelona Jiménez Pérez Burgundy Trastámara Habsburg Bourbon Bonaparte Bourbon Savoy Bourbon

Categories: House of Windsor | Monarchy in Australia | Monarchy in Canada | Monarchy in New Zealand | European royal families

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Antigua and Barbuda

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Antigua and Barbuda (/ænˈtiːgə ænd bɑrˈbjuːdə/; Spanish for "ancient" and "bearded") is a twin-island nation lying between the Caribbean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. It consists of two major inhabited islands, Antigua and Barbuda, and a number of smaller islands (including Great Bird, Green, Guinea, Long, Maiden and York Islands and further south, the island of Redonda). The permanent population number approximately 81,800 (at the 2011 Census) and the capital and largest port and city is St. John's, on Antigua.

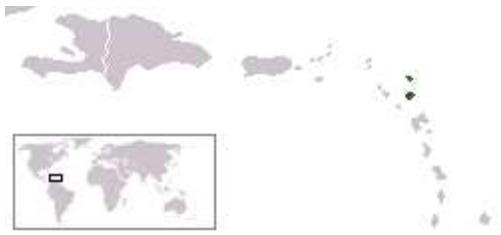
Separated by a few nautical miles, Antigua and Barbuda are in the middle of the Leeward Islands, part of the Lesser Antilles, roughly at 17 degrees north of the Equator. The country is nicknamed "Land of 365 Beaches" due to the many beaches surrounding the islands. Its governance, language, and culture have all been strongly influenced by the British Empire, of which the country was formerly a part.

Contents

- 1 History
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  - 2.2 Military
- 3 Geography
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- 9 Education
- 10 Foreign relations
- 11 See also
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History

Main article: History of Antigua and Barbuda

Antigua and Barbuda	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: Each Endeavouring, All Achieving	
Anthem: Fair Antigua, We Salute Thee **Royal anthem:** *God Save the Queen* [1]	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Saint John's 17°7′N 61°51′W
Official language(s)	English
Local language	Antiguan Creole
Ethnic groups (2001)	91% black 4.4% mixed 1.7% white 2.9% others
Demonym	Antiguan, Barbudan
Government	Parliamentary democracy under a federal constitutional monarchy
- Head of State	Elizabeth II
- Governor-General	Dame Louise Lake-Tack
- Prime Minister	Baldwin Spencer
- Opposition Leader	Lester Bird
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	November 1, 1981
Area	
- Total	440 km^2 (195th) 170 sq mi

- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- 2011 census	81,799
- Density	186/km^2 481/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$1.485 billion[1]
- Per capita	$17,082[1]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$1.105 billion[1]
- Per capita	$12,848[1]
HDI (2007)	▲ 0.868 (high) (47th)
Currency	East Caribbean dollar (XCD)
Time zone	AST (UTC-4)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	AG
Internet TLD	.ag
Calling code	+1-268

1 *God Save The Queen* is the official national anthem but it is generally used only on regal and vice-regal occasions.

Antigua was first settled by Archaic Age hunter-gatherer Amerindians, erroneously referred to as Siboney or Ciboney. Carbon-dating has established that the earliest settlements started around 3100 BC. They were succeeded by the Ceramic Age pre-Columbian Arawak-speaking Saladoid people who migrated from the lower Orinoco River.

The Arawaks introduced agriculture, raising, among other crops, the famous Antigua Black Pineapple (Moris cultivar of *Ananas comosus*), corn, sweet potatoes (white with firmer flesh than the bright orange "sweet potato" used in the United States), chiles, guava, tobacco and cotton.

The indigenous West Indians made excellent sea-going vessels which they used to sail the Atlantic and the Caribbean. As a result, Caribs and Arawaks were able to colonize much of South America and the Caribbean Islands. Their descendants still live there, notably in Brazil, Venezuela and Colombia.

Most Arawaks left Antigua around 1100 AD; those who remained were later raided by the Caribs. According to the *Catholic Encyclopedia*, the Caribs' superior weapons and seafaring prowess allowed them to defeat most of the West Indian Arawak nations, enslaving some and possibly cannibalizing others.

The *Catholic Encyclopedia* does make it clear that the European invaders had some difficulty differentiating between the native peoples they encountered. As a result, the number and types of ethnic/tribal groups in existence at that time may have been much more varied and numerous than just the two mentioned in this article.

European and African diseases, malnutrition and slavery eventually killed most of the Caribbean's native population, although no researcher has conclusively proven any of these causes as the real reason for these deaths.[2] Smallpox was probably the greatest killer.[3] In fact, some historians believe that the psychological stress of slavery may also have played a part in the massive number of deaths amongst enslaved natives. Others believe that the reportedly abundant, but starchy, low-protein diet may have contributed to severe malnutrition of the Amerindians, who were used to a diet fortified with protein from the sea.[2]

The island of Antigua, originally called "Wa'ladli" by Arawaks, is today called "Wadadli" by locals. It is possible that Caribs called it "Wa'omoni". Christopher Columbus, while sailing by in 1493, may have named it Santa Maria la Antigua after an icon in the Spanish Seville Cathedral. The Spaniards did not colonize Antigua because it lacked fresh water but not aggressive Caribs.

The English settled on Antigua in 1632; Sir Christopher Codrington settled on Barbuda in 1684. Slavery, established to run sugar plantations around 1684, was abolished in 1834. The British ruled from 1632 to 1981, with a brief French interlude in 1666.

The islands became an independent state within the Commonwealth Realm system on November 1, 1981, with Elizabeth II as the first Queen of Antigua and Barbuda. The Right Honourable Vere Cornwall Bird became the first Prime Minister.

Politics

Main article: Politics of Antigua and Barbuda



Map of Antigua and Barbuda.

The politics of Antigua and Barbuda take place within a framework of a federal, parliamentary, representative democratic monarchy, in which the Head of State is the Monarch who appoints the Governor General as vice-regal representative. Elizabeth II is the present Queen of Antigua and Barbuda, having served in that position since the islands' independence from the United Kingdom in 1981. The Queen is currently represented by Governor General Dame Louise Lake-Tack (1944–) who became the first woman to hold this position. A Council of Ministers is appointed by the Governor General on the advice of the Prime Minister, currently Winston Baldwin Spencer (1948–). The Prime Minister is the Head of Government.

Executive power is exercised by the government while legislative power is vested in both the government and the two Chambers of Parliament. The bicameral Parliament consists of the Senate (17 members appointed by members of the government and the opposition party, and approved by the Governor-General), and the House of Representatives (17 members elected by first past the post (check this entry) to serve five-year terms). The Speaker of the House is author and former St. John's University professor (New York) D. Gisele Isaac (check), while the President of the Senate is educator Hazlyn Francis-Mason.

The last elections held were on March 12, 2009, during which the Antigua Labour Party won seven seats, the United Progressive Party nine and the Barbuda People's Movement one.

Since 1949, the party system had been dominated by the populist Antigua Labour Party. However, the Antigua and Barbuda legislative election of 2004 saw the defeat of the longest-serving elected government in the Caribbean. Prime Minister Lester Bryant Bird, who had succeeded his father Vere Cornwall Bird, and Deputy Robin Yearwood had been in office since 1994.

The elder Bird was Prime Minister from 1981 to 1994 and Chief Minister of Antigua from 1960 to 1981, except for the 1971–1976 period when the Progressive Labour Movement (PLM) defeated his party. Vere Cornwall Bird, the nation's first Prime Minister, is credited with having brought Antigua and Barbuda and the Caribbean into a new era of independence.

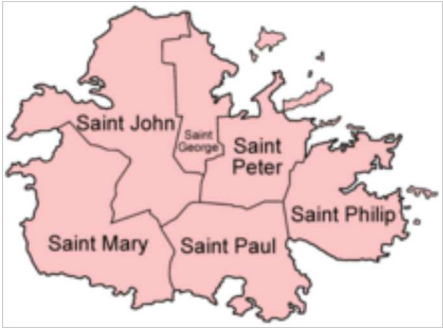
The Judicial Branch is the Eastern Caribbean Supreme Court (based in Saint Lucia; one judge of the Supreme Court is a resident of the islands and presides over the High Court of Justice). In addition, Antigua is a member of the Caribbean Court of Justice. The Supreme Court of Appeal was the British Judicial Committee of the Privy Council up until 2001, when the nations of the Caribbean Community voted to abolish the right of appeal to the Privy Council in favor of a Caribbean Court of Justice. Some debate between member countries repeatedly delayed the court's date of inauguration. As of March 2005 (check the status of this action), only Barbados was set to replace appeals to the Privy Council with appeals the Caribbean Court of Justice, which by then had come into operation.

Administration

Main article: Parishes and dependencies of Antigua and Barbuda

Antigua and Barbuda is divided into six parishes and two dependencies:

- Parishes
  1. Saint George
  2. Saint John
  3. Saint Mary
  4. Saint Paul
  5. Saint Peter
  6. Saint Philip
- Dependencies
  1. Barbuda
  2. Redonda



Parishes of Antigua

Note: Though Barbuda and Redonda are called dependencies, they are integral parts of the state, making them essentially administrative divisions. Dependency is simply a title.

Military

The Royal Antigua and Barbuda Defence Force has 285 members; within it, 200 12-to-18-year-old youngsters make up the Antigua and Barbuda Cadet Corps.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Antigua and Barbuda

Islands

- Antigua – largest island
- Barbuda
- Bird Island
- Bishop Island
- Blake Island
- Cinnamon Island
- Codrington Island
- Crump Island
- Dulcina Island
- Exchange Island
- Five Islands
- Great Bird Island
- Green Island
- Guiana Island
- Hale Gate Island
- Hawes Island
- Henry Island
- Johnson Island
- Kid Island
- Laviscounts Island
- Lobster Island
- Long Island
- Maid Island
- Moor Island
- Nanny Island
- Pelican Island
- Prickly Pear Island
- Rabbit Island
- Rat Island
- Red Head Island
- Redonda
- Sandy Island
- Smith Island
- The Sisters
- Vernon Island
- Wicked Will Island
- York Island

Economy

Main article: Economy of Antigua and Barbuda

Tourism dominates the economy, accounting for more than half of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Antigua is famous for its many luxury resorts. Weak tourist activity since early 2000 has slowed the economy, however, and squeezed the government into a tight fiscal corner.

Investment banking and financial services also make up an important part of the economy. Major world banks with offices in Antigua include the Bank of America (Bank of Antigua), Barclays, the Royal Bank of Canada (RBC) and Scotia Bank. Financial-services corporations with offices in Antigua include PriceWaterhouseCoopers. The US Securities and Exchange Commission has accused the Antigua-based Stanford International Bank, owned by Texas billionaire Allen Stanford, of orchestrating a huge fraud which may have bilked investors of some $8 billion.[4] (check status 20100312)



Downtown St. John's

The twin-island nation's agricultural production is focused on its domestic market and constrained by a limited water supply and a labor shortage stemming from the lure of higher wages in tourism and construction work.

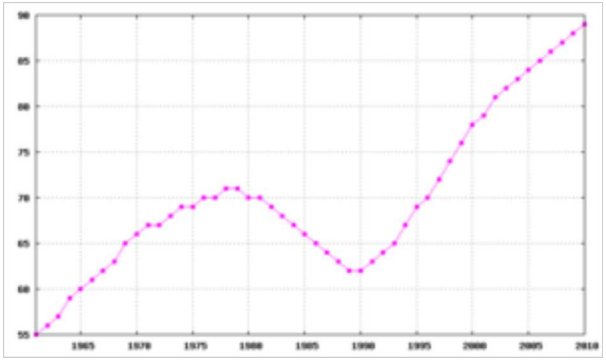
Manufacturing is made up of enclave-type assembly for export, the major products being bedding, handicrafts and electronic components. Prospects for economic growth in the medium term will continue to depend on income growth in the industrialized world, especially in the United States, from which about one-third of all tourists come.

Following the opening of the American University of Antigua College of Medicine by investor and attorney Neil Simon in 2003, a new source of revenue was established. The university employs many local Antiguans and the approximate 1000 students consume a large amount of the goods and services.

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Antigua and Barbuda

Ethnicity



Population of Antigua and Barbuda, Data of FAO, year 2005. Number of inhabitants in thousands.

Antigua has a population of 85,632, mostly made up of people of West African, British, and Portuguese descent. The ethnic distribution consists of 91% Black or Mulatto, 4.4% mixed race, 1.7% White, and 2.9% other (primarily East Indian and Asian). Most Whites are of Irish or British descent. Christian Levantine Arabs, and a small number of Asians and Sephardic Jews make up the remainder of the population.

Behind the late 20th-century revival and redefinition of the role of Afro-Antiguans and Barbudans in the society's cultural life is a history of racial/ethnic tensions which systematically excluded non-Whites. Within the colonial framework established by the British soon after their initial settlement of Antigua in 1623, five distinct and carefully ranked racial/ethnic groups emerged.

At the top of this social structure were the British rulers. Amongst them were divisions between British Antiguans and non-creolized Britons, with the latter coming out on top. In short, this was a racial/ethnic hierarchy which gave maximum recognition to people and cultural practices of Anglican origin.

Immediately below the British were the mulattos, a mixed-race group of Afro-European origin. Mulattos, lighter in shade than most Africans, developed a complex system based on skin shade to distinguish themselves from the

latter and to legitimate their claims to higher status. In many ways, they paralleled the British White Supremacy ideology.

In the middle of this social stratification were the Portuguese, 2,500 of whom migrated as workers from Madeira (a Portuguese archipelago in the North Atlantic, to the southwest of the Iberian Peninsula) between 1847 and 1852 because of a severe famine there. Many established small businesses and joined the ranks of the mulatto class. The British never really considered the Portuguese as Whites and did not allow them into their ranks. Amongst Antiguans and Barbudans of Portuguese descent, status differences were based on the varying degrees of assimilation into the dominant group's Anglicized practices.

Next to the bottom were Middle Easterners who began migrating to Antigua and Barbuda around the turn of the 20th century. Starting as itinerant traders, they soon worked their way into the social mix. Although Middle Easterners came from a variety of areas, as a group they are usually referred to as Syrians.

Afro-Antiguans and Afro-Barbudans were at the bottom. Forced into slavery, Africans started arriving in Antigua and Barbuda in large numbers during the 1670s. Very quickly, they grew into the largest racial/ethnic group. Their entry into the local social structure was marked by a profound racialization: They ceased being Yoruba, Igbo, or Akan and became Negroes or Blacks.[*citation needed*]

In the 20th century, the colonial social structure gradually started to be phased out with the introduction of universal education and better economic opportunities. This process allowed Blacks to rise to the highest echelons of society and government.

In the last decade, Spanish-speaking immigrants from the Dominican Republic and Afro-Caribbean immigrants from Guyana and Dominica were added to this ethnic mosaic. They have entered at the social structure's bottom; it is still too early to predict their patterns of assimilation and social mobility.

Today, an increasingly large percentage of the population lives abroad, most notably in the United Kingdom (Antiguan Britons), United States and Canada. A minority of Antiguan residents are immigrants from other countries, particularly from Dominica, Guyana and Jamaica, and, increasing, from the Dominican Republic, St. Vincent and the Grenadines and Nigeria. An estimated 4,500 American citizens also make their home in Antigua and Barbuda, making their numbers one of the largest American populations in the English-speaking Eastern Caribbean.[5]

Religion



St. John's Cathedral

Seventy-four percent [6] of Antiguans are Christians, with the Anglican denomination (about 44%) being the largest. Other Christian denominations present are Baptists,[7] Presbyterians[8][9] and Catholics.

Non-Christian religions practiced in the islands include the Rastafari Movement, Islam, Judaism and the Bahá'í Faith.

Languages

English is the official language, but many of the locals speak Antiguan Creole. The Barbudan accent is slightly different from the Antiguan.

In the years before Antigua and Barbuda's independence, Standard English was widely spoken in preference to Antiguan Creole, but afterwards Antiguans began treating Antiguan Creole as a respectable aspect of their

culture. Generally, the upper and middle classes shun Antiguan Creole. The educational system dissuades the use of Antiguan Creole and instruction is done in Standard (British) English.

Many of the words used in the Antiguan dialect are derived from British as well as African languages. This can be easily seen in phrases such as: "Me nah go" meaning "I am not going". Another example is: "Ent it?" meaning "Ain't it?" which is itself dialectical and means "Isn't it?". Common island proverbs can often be traced to Africa.

Culture

See also: Antigua and Barbuda cuisine and Music of Antigua and Barbuda

The culture is predominantly British: For example, cricket is the national sport and Antigua has produced several famous cricket players including Sir Vivian Richards, Anderson "Andy" Roberts, and Richard "Richie" Richardson. Other popular sports include football, boat racing and surfing (the Antigua Sailing Week attracts locals and visitors from all over the world).

American popular culture and fashion also have a heavy influence. Most of the country's media is made up of major United States networks. Many Antiguans prefer to make a special shopping trip to San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Family and religion play an important roles in the lives of Antiguans. Most attend religious services on Sunday, although there is a growing number of Seventh-day Adventists who observe the Sabbath on Saturday. [*citation needed*]

The national Carnival held each August commemorates the abolition of slavery in the British West Indies, although on some islands, Carnival may celebrate the coming of Lent. Its festive pageants, shows, contests and other activities are a major tourist attraction.

Calypso and soca music are important in Antigua and Barbuda.[*citation needed*]

Corn and sweet potatoes play an important role in Antiguan cuisine. For example, a popular Antiguan dish, Dukuna (DOO-koo-NAH) is a sweet, steamed dumpling made from grated sweet potatoes, flour and spices. One of the Antiguan staple foods, fungi (FOON-ji), is a cooked paste made of cornmeal and water.

Media

Up until April 2010 there were two daily newspapers: Daily Observer and which also published newspapers on other Caribbean islands. Antigua Sun has ceased operation in April. It has been in circulation for 13 years. Besides most American television networks, the local channel ABS TV 10 is available (it is the only station which shows exclusively local programs). There are also several local and regional radio stations, such as V2C-AM 620, ZDK-AM 1100, VYBZ-FM 92.9, and ZDK-FM 97.1.

Sports

See also: Cricket in the West Indies

Like many Commonwealth countries, cricket is the most popular sport. The Antigua and Barbuda national cricket team represented the country at the 1998 Commonwealth Games, but Antiguan cricketers otherwise play for the Leeward Islands cricket team in domestic matches and the West Indies cricket team internationally. The 2007 Cricket World Cup was hosted in the West Indies from March 11 to April 28, 2007. Antigua hosted eight matches at the Sir Vivian Richards Stadium, which was completed on February 11, 2007 and can hold up to

20,000 people. Antigua is a Host of Stanford Twenty20 – Twenty20 Cricket, a version started by Allen Stanford in 2006 as a regional cricket game with almost all Caribbean islands taking part. Antiguan Viv Richards scored the fastest Test Century and Brian Lara twice scored the World Test Record at the Antigua Recreation Ground.


Antigua Recreation Ground

Association football is also a very popular sport. Antigua has a national football team which has entered World Cup qualification for the 1974 tournament and for the 1986 one and onwards. A professional team has also been formed, Antigua Barracuda FC, which is slated to join the USL First Division in 2011.

Athletics are popular. Talented athletes are trained from a young age, and Antigua and Barbuda has produced a few fairly adept athletes. Janill Williams, a young athlete with much promise comes from Gray's Farm, Antigua. Sonia Williams and Heather Samuel represented Antigua and Barbuda at the Olympic Games. Other prominent rising stars include Brendan Christian (100 m, 200 m), Daniel Bailey (100 m, 200 m) and James Grayman (high jump).

Antigua can boast of some excellent *tennis* players, most notably Brian Philip #1 and Roberto Esposito #2 on the island for under-18 tournaments, who both are also involved in under-18 ITF tournaments. Their coach's (Eli Armstrong) daughter Keishora Armstrong, who will be turning 13 later this year, is the under-18's champion on the girls' circuit.

Education

The people of Antigua & Barbuda enjoy a more-than-90% literacy rate. In 1998, Antigua and Barbuda adopted a national mandate to become the pre-eminent provider of medical services in the Caribbean. As part of this mission, Antigua and Barbuda is building the most technologically advanced hospital in the Caribbean, the Mt. St. John Medical Centre. The island of Antigua currently has two medical schools, the American University of Antigua (AUA),[10] founded in 2004, and The University of Health Sciences Antigua (UHSA),[11] founded in 1982.

There is also a government owned state college in Antigua as well as the Antigua and Barbuda Institute of Information Technology (ABIIT)and the Antigua and Barbuda Hospitality Training Institute (ABHTI). The University of the West Indies has a branch in Antigua for locals to continue University studies.

Antigua has two international primary/secondary schools Including (Alphabetically) CCSET International which offers the Ontario Secondary School Diploma and Island Academy which offers the International Baccalaureate. There are also may other private schools but these institutions tend to follow the same local curriculum (CXCs) as government schools. Both international schools are relatively inexperienced with offering international degrees. CCSET international has existed for several years but only began offering an International Degree in 2007. While CCSET's graduating classes have consistently been awarded the OSSD this is somewhat controversial because CCSET students do not receive their diploma from CCSET directly as it is not able to grant OSSD credits instead they receive this diploma from one of CCSET's (constantly changing) partner schools based in Ontario. In contrast Island Academy has offered international degrees for much longer than CCSET but has been inconsistent with their program they have switched from offering the OSSD to the IB, back to the OSSD and finally back to the IB again in February 2009. Sense 2009 island Academy has not granted any IB diplomas to students.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Antigua and Barbuda

Antigua and Barbuda is a member of the United Nations, the Bolivarian Alliance for the Americas, the Commonwealth of Nations, the Caribbean Community, the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States, the Organization of American States, the World Trade Organization and the Eastern Caribbean's Regional Security System.

Antigua and Barbuda is also a member of the International Criminal Court (with a Bilateral Immunity Agreement of Protection for the US military as covered under Article 98).

See also

- Outline of Antigua and Barbuda
- Bibliography of Antigua and Barbuda
- Index of Antigua and Barbuda-related articles
- Commonwealth of Nations
- Leeward Islands
- List of Antiguans and Barbudans

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History of Antigua and Barbuda

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of Antigua and Barbuda** can be separated into three distinct eras. In the first, the islands were inhabited by three successive Amerindian societies. The islands were neglected by the first wave of European colonisation, but were settled by England in 1632. Under British control, the islands witnessed an influx of both Britons and African slaves. In 1981, the islands were granted independence as the modern state of Antigua and Barbuda.

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- 1 Pre-Columbian settlements
- 2 European colonization
- 3 Political development
- 4 Independent Antigua and Barbuda
- 5 See also
- 6 References

Pre-Columbian settlements

Antigua was first settled by pre-agricultural Amerindians known as "Archaic People", (although they are commonly, but erroneously known in Antigua as Siboney, a preceramic Cuban people). The earliest settlements on the island date to 2900 BC. They were succeeded by ceramic-using agriculturalist Saladoid people who migrated up the island chain from Venezuela. They were later replaced by Arawakan speakers around 1200 AD, and around 1500 by Island Caribs.[1]

The Arawaks were the first well-documented group of Antiguans. They paddled to the island by canoe (piragua) from Venezuela, ejected by the Caribs—another people indigenous to the area. Arawaks introduced agriculture to Antigua and Barbuda, raising, among other crops, the famous Antiguan "Black" pineapple. They also cultivated various other foods including:

- corn
- sweet potatoes (White with firmer flesh than the bright orange "sweet potato" used in the United States.)
- chiles
- guava
- tobacco
- cotton

Some of the vegetables listed, such as corn and sweet potatoes, still play an important role in Antiguan cuisine.

For example, a popular Antiguan dish, Ducuna (DOO-koo-NAH) is a sweet, steamed dumpling made from grated sweet potatoes, flour and spices. In addition, one of the Antiguan staple foods, fungee (FOON-ji), is a cooked paste made of cornmeal and water.

The bulk of the Arawaks left Antigua about 1100 A.D. Those who remained were subsequently raided by the Caribs. According to the Catholic Encyclopedia, the Carib's superior weapons and seafaring prowess allowed

them to defeat most Arawak nations in the West Indies—enslaving some, and cannibalizing others.

The Catholic Encyclopedia does make it clear that the European invaders had some difficulty identifying and differentiating between the various native peoples they encountered. As a result, the number and types of ethnic/tribal/national groups in existence at the time may be much more varied and numerous than the two mentioned in this Article.

According to A Brief History of the Caribbean (Jan Rogozinski, Penguin Putnam, Inc September 2000), European and African diseases, malnutrition and slavery eventually destroyed the vast majority of the Caribbean's native population. No researcher has conclusively proven any of these causes as the real reason for the destruction of West Indian natives. In fact, some historians believe that the psychological stress of slavery may also have played a part in the massive number of native deaths while in servitude. Others believe that the reportedly abundant, but starchy, low-protein diet may have contributed to severe malnutrition of the "Indians" who were used to a diet fortified with protein from sea-life.

The Indigenous West Indians made excellent sea vessels that they used to sail the Atlantic and Caribbean. As a result, Caribs and Arawaks populated much of South American and the Caribbean Islands. Relatives of the Antiguan Arawaks and Caribs still live in various countries in South America, notably Brazil, Venezuela and Colombia. The smaller remaining native populations in the West Indies maintain a pride in their heritage.

European colonization

Christopher Columbus landed on the islands in 1493, naming the larger one *Santa Maria de la Antigua*. However, early attempts by Europeans to settle the islands failed due to the Caribs' excellent defenses. [*citation needed*] England succeeded in colonising the islands in 1632, with Thomas Warner as the first governor. Settlers raised tobacco, indigo, ginger, and sugarcane as cash crops. Sir Christopher Codrington established the first large sugar estate in Antigua in 1674, and leased Barbuda to raise provisions for his plantations. Barbuda's only town is named after him. In the fifty years after Codrington established his initial plantation, the sugar industry became so profitable that many farmers replaced other crops with sugar, making it the economic backbone of the islands. Codrington and others brought slaves from Africa's west coast to work the plantations under brutal conditions.

During the 18th century, Antigua was used as the headquarters of the British Royal Navy Caribbean fleet. English Dockyard, as it came to be called, a sheltered and well-protected deepwater port, was the main base and facilities there were greatly expanded during the later 18th century. Admiral Lord Horatio Nelson commanded the British fleet for much of this time, and made himself unpopular with local merchants by enforcing the Navigation Act, a British ruling that only British-registered ships could trade with British colonies. As the United States were no longer British colonies, the act posed a problem for merchants, who depended on trade with the fledgling country.

Political development

With all others in the British Empire, Antiguan slaves were emancipated in 1834, but remained economically dependent upon the plantation owners. Economic opportunities for the new freedmen were limited by a lack of surplus farming land, no access to credit, and an economy built on agriculture rather than manufacturing. Poor labour conditions persisted until 1939 when a member of a royal commission urged the formation of a trade union movement.

The Antigua Trades and Labour Union, formed shortly afterward, became the political vehicle for Vere Cornwall

Bird who became the union's president in 1943. The Antigua Labour Party (ALP), formed by Bird and other trade unionists, first ran candidates in the 1946 elections and became the majority party in 1951 beginning a long history of electoral victories.

Voted out of office in the 1971 general elections that swept the progressive labour movement into power, Bird and the ALP returned to office in 1976.

Independent Antigua and Barbuda

The islands achieved independence from the United Kingdom in 1981, becoming the nation of Antigua and Barbuda. It remains part of the Commonwealth of Nations, and remains a constitutional monarchy, with Queen Elizabeth II as Queen of Antigua and Barbuda.

In 1997, Prime Minister Lester Bird announced that a group of ecologically sensitive islands just off Antigua's northeastern coast, previously proposed for national park status, were being turned over to Malaysian developers. The Guiana Island Development Project deal, calling for a 1000-room hotel, an 18-hole golf course and a world-class casino, sparked widespread criticism by environmentalists, minority members in parliament, and the press. The issue came to a head when a local resident shot the PM's brother. Today, the proposed development is mired in lawsuits and politics.

The ALP won renewed mandates in the general elections in 1984 and 1989. In the 1989 elections, the ruling ALP won all but two of the 17 seats. During elections in March 1994, power passed from Vere Bird to his son, Lester Bird, but remained within the ALP which won 11 of the 17 parliamentary seats. The United Progressive Party won the 2004 elections and Baldwin Spencer became Prime Minister, removing from power the longest-serving elected government in the Caribbean.

See also

- Antigua and Barbuda
- Antigua Carnival
- British colonization of the Americas
- French colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of the British West Indies
- History of North America
- History of the Caribbean
- Politics of Antigua and Barbuda
- List of Prime Ministers of Antigua and Barbuda
- Spanish colonization of the Americas

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Monarchy of Antigua and Barbuda

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Antigua and Barbuda is a constitutional monarchy and a Commonwealth realm, with Queen Elizabeth II as its reigning monarch since November 1, 1981. As such she is Antigua and Barbuda's Sovereign and head of state and officially called Queen of Antigua and Barbuda.

Most of the Queen's powers in Antigua and Barbuda are exercised by the Governor General, presently Louise Lake-Tack, though the Monarch does hold several powers that are hers alone.

The Queen is the only member of the Antiguan and Barbudian Royal Family with any constitutional role; she, her husband, Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, their son The Prince of Wales, and other members of the Royal Family, including the Queen's other children and cousins, undertake various public ceremonial functions within Antigua and Barbuda and abroad.

Queen of Antigua and Barbuda

MONARCHY



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	November 1, 1981

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Origins

The current Antiguan and Barbudian monarchy can trace its ancestral lineage back to the Anglo-Saxon and Merovingian periods, and ultimately back to the kings of the Angles, the early Scottish kings, and the Frankish kingdom of Clovis I. Parts of the territories that today comprise Antigua and Barbuda were claimed under King Charles I in 1632. The country was proclaimed fully independent, via constitutional patriation, by Queen

Elizabeth II in 1981.

International and domestic aspects

Sixteen states within the 54-member Commonwealth of Nations are known as Commonwealth realms and Antigua and Barbuda is one of these. Despite sharing the same person as their respective national monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms is sovereign and independent of the others.[1]

See also: Commonwealth realm: Constitutional implications

Development of shared monarchy

The Balfour Declaration of 1926 provided the Dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of, in theory, a shared Crown that operates independently in each realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the Dominions were secondary. The Monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, legal, and of convenience. The Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, 1927 was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the Statute of Westminster, 1931.

Under the Statute of Westminster, Antigua and Barbuda has a common monarchy with Britain and the other Commonwealth realms, and though laws governing the line of succession to the Antiguan and Barbudian throne lie within the control of the Antiguan and Barbudian Parliament, Antigua and Barbuda cannot change the rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship by means of a constitutional amendment. This situation applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the UK.

On all matters of the Antiguan and Barbudian State, the Monarch is advised solely by Antiguan and Barbudian ministers. Effective with the patriation of Antigua and Barbuda's Constitution, no British or other realm government can advise the Monarch on any matters pertinent to Antigua and Barbuda.

Title

Main article: List of titles and honours of Queen Elizabeth II

In Antigua and Barbuda, the Queen's official title is:

- *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Antigua and Barbuda and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth.*

This style communicates Antigua and Barbuda's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the Monarch's role specifically as Queen of Antigua and Barbuda, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms, by mentioning Antigua and Barbuda separately the other Commonwealth realms. Typically, the Sovereign is styled "Queen of Antigua and Barbuda," and is addressed as such when in Antigua and Barbuda, or performing duties on behalf of Antigua and Barbuda abroad.

Finance

Antiguans and Barbudians do not pay any money to the Queen, either for personal income or to support the royal residences outside of Antigua and Barbuda. Only when the Queen is in Antigua and Barbuda, or acting

abroad as Queen of Antigua and Barbuda, does the Antiguan and Barbudian government support her in the performance of her duties. This rule applies equally to other members of the Royal Family.

Usually the Queen's Antiguan and Barbudian government pays only for the costs associated with the Governor General in his or her exercising of the powers of the Crown on behalf of the Queen, including travel, security, residences, offices, ceremonial occasions, etc.

Succession



Charles, Prince of Wales, is the heir apparent to the Antiguan and Barbudian Throne

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles. The Governor General is expected to proclaim him King of Antigua and Barbuda upon his accession to the Throne upon the demise of the Crown.

Succession to the throne is by male-preference primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the *Act of Settlement*, as well as the English *Bill of Rights*. These documents, though originally passed by the Parliament of England, are now part of Antiguan and Barbudian constitutional law, under control of the Antiguan and Barbudian parliament only. As such, the rules for succession are not fixed, but may be changed by a constitutional amendment.

This legislation restricts the succession to the natural (i.e. non-adopted), legitimate descendants of Sophia, Electress of Hanover (1630–1714), a granddaughter of James I, and lays out the rules that the Monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As Antigua and Barbuda's laws governing succession are currently identical to those of the United Kingdom (by the *Statute of Westminster*) see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

Upon a "demise in the Crown" (the death of a Sovereign) his or her heir immediately and automatically succeeds, without any need for confirmation or further ceremony. (Hence arises the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!") Nevertheless, it is customary for the accession of the Sovereign to be publicly proclaimed. After an appropriate period of mourning has passed, the Sovereign is also crowned in Westminster Abbey, normally by the Archbishop of Canterbury. A coronation is not necessary for a Sovereign to rule; for example, Edward VIII was never crowned, yet was undoubtedly king during his short reign.

After an individual ascends the Throne, he or she continues to reign until death. Monarchs are not allowed to unilaterally abdicate; no Antiguan and Barbudian monarch has abdicated.

Constitutional role

Antigua and Barbuda's constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Antiguan and Barbudian in origin, which gives Antigua and Barbuda a similar parliamentary system of government as the other Commonwealth realms. All powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the Monarch, who is represented in the country by the Governor-General of Antigua and Barbuda — appointed by the Monarch upon the advice of the Prime Minister of Antigua and Barbuda; most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by these vice-regal representative.

Constitutional duties

The role of the Queen and the Governor General is both legal and practical; the Crown is regarded as a corporation, in which several parts share the authority of the whole, with the Queen as the person at the centre of the constitutional construct.

The vast powers that belong to the Crown are collectively known as the Royal Prerogative, which includes many powers such as the ability to make treaties or send ambassadors, as well as certain duties such as to defend the realm and to maintain the Queen's peace. Parliamentary approval is not required for the exercise of the Royal Prerogative; moreover, the Consent of the Crown must be obtained before either House may even debate a bill affecting the Sovereign's prerogatives or interests. It is important to note that the Royal Prerogative belongs to the Crown, and not to any of the ministers, though it may sometimes appear that way.[*citation needed*] Although the Royal Prerogative is extensive, it is not unlimited. For example, the Monarch does not have the prerogative to impose and collect new taxes; such an action requires the authorization of an Act of Parliament.

The Crown is responsible for appointing a Prime Minister. In accordance with unwritten constitutional conventions, the Monarch or Governor General must appoint the individual most likely to maintain the support of the House of Commons: usually, the leader of the party which has a majority in that House. If no party has a majority, two or more groups may form a coalition, whose agreed leader is then appointed Prime Minister. In a Parliament in which no party or coalition holds a majority, the Crown is required by convention to appoint the individual most likely to command the support of the House of Commons, usually, but not necessarily, the leader of the largest party. Situations can arise in which the Governor General's judgement about the most suitable leader to be Prime Minister has to be brought into play. The Queen is informed by the Governor General of the acceptance of the resignation of a prime minister and the swearing-in of a new prime minister and members of the Ministry.

It is a duty of the Crown to also appointment and dismiss ministers, members of various executive agencies, other officials. The appointment of Senators and the Speaker of the Senate also falls under the Royal Prerogative. Effectively, however, the appointees are chosen by the Prime Minister, or, for less important offices, by other ministers.

In addition, it is the Crown's prerogative to declare war, make peace, and direct the actions of the military, although the Prime Minister holds *de facto* decision-making power over the armed forces. The Royal Prerogative also extends to foreign affairs: the Sovereign or Governor General may negotiate and ratify treaties, alliances, and international agreements; no parliamentary approval is required. However, a treaty cannot alter the domestic laws of the Antigua and Barbuda; an Act of Parliament is necessary in such cases. The Governor General, on behalf of the Queen, also accredits Antiguan and Barbudian High Commissioners and ambassadors, and receives diplomats from foreign states. In addition, all Antiguan and Barbudian passports are issued in the Monarch's name. In Antigua and Barbuda major public inquiries are called Royal Commissions, and are created by the Cabinet on behalf of the Monarch through a Royal Warrant.

The Sovereign is one of the three components of Parliament; the others are the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Governor General is also responsible for summoning the House of Commons, though it remains the Monarch's prerogative to prorogue, and dissolve Parliament. The new parliamentary session is marked by the State Opening of Parliament, during which either the Sovereign of the Governor General reads the Speech from the Throne in the Senate Chamber, outlining the Government's legislative agenda. Prorogation usually occurs about one year after a session begins, and formally concludes the session. Dissolution, the timing of which is affected by a variety of factors, ends a parliamentary term (which lasts a maximum of five years), and is followed by general elections for all seats in the House of Commons. The Monarch or Governor General may theoretically refuse a dissolution.

Because the Antiguan and Barbudian Monarchy is a constitutional one, the powers that are constitutionally the Monarch's are exercised almost wholly upon the advice of his or her Prime Minister and the Ministers of the

Crown in Cabinet, who are, in turn, accountable to the democratically elected House of Commons, and through it, to the people. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". This means that the Monarch's role, and thereby the Vice-regent's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments and agencies operate.

Legal role

All laws in Antigua and Barbuda are enacted with the sovereign's, or the vice-regal's signature. The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it and proclamation are required for all acts of Parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor General, with the Public Seal of Antigua and Barbuda. The Vice-regal may reserve a bill for the Monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the Monarch to make a personal decision on the bill. The Monarch has the power to disallow a bill (within a time limit specified by the Constitution).

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects. The Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the Monarch personally are not cognizable. In international cases, as a sovereign and under established principles of international law, the Queen of Antigua and Barbuda is not subject to suit in foreign courts without her express consent.[*citation needed*] The Sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In Antigua and Barbuda the legal personality of the State is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Antigua and Barbuda." For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Antigua and Barbuda. The monarch as an individual takes no more role in such an affair than in any other business of government.

The Oath of Allegiance is required by law to be sworn by new members of the Royal Antigua and Barbuda Defence Force, police officers, and parliamentarians; it is an oath to the Monarch as Sovereign of Antigua and Barbuda, and to his/her heirs and successors according to law. The Oath of Allegiance is as follows:

> *I, _____, do swear (or solemnly affirm) that I will faithfully bear true allegiance to Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth the Second, Her Heirs and Successors, according to law. So help me God. (To be omitted in affirmation).*

Further information: The Crown

History

Elizabeth II, Queen of Antigua and Barbuda, and her husband, the royal consort the Duke of Edinburgh, included the Antigua and Barbuda in their Caribbean tour of 1966, and in the Silver Jubilee tour of October, 1977. The Queen visited again in 1985.[2]

The Earl of Wessex opened Antigua and Barbuda's new parliament building on the country's twenty fifth anniversary of independence, October 30, 2006, reading a message from his mother, the Queen. HRH The Duke of York visited Antigua and Barbuda in January 2001.[3]

Australia

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Australia (/əˈstreɪljə/), officially the **Commonwealth of Australia**,[10] is a country in the Southern Hemisphere comprising the mainland of the Australian continent as well as the island of Tasmania and numerous smaller islands in the Indian and Pacific Oceans.[N 4] It is the world's sixth-largest country by total area. Neighbouring countries include Indonesia, East Timor and Papua New Guinea to the north; the Solomon Islands, Vanuatu and New Caledonia to the north-east; and New Zealand to the south-east.

For at least 40,000 years[12] before European settlement in the late 18th century, Australia was inhabited by indigenous Australians,[13] who belonged to one or more of roughly 250 language groups.[14][15] After discovery by Dutch explorers in 1606, Australia's eastern half was claimed by Great Britain in 1770 and settled through penal transportation to the colony of New South Wales from 26 January 1788. The population grew steadily in subsequent decades; the continent was explored and an additional five self-governing Crown Colonies were established.

On 1 January 1901, the six colonies federated, forming the Commonwealth of Australia. Since Federation, Australia has maintained a stable liberal democratic political system which functions as a federal parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy. The federation comprises six states and several territories. The population of 22.7 million is heavily concentrated in the Eastern states and is highly urbanised.

A highly developed country, Australia is the world's 13th-largest economy and has the world's fifth-highest per capita income. Australia's military expenditure is the world's 13th-largest. With the second-highest human development index globally, Australia ranks highly in many international comparisons of national performance, such as quality of life, health, education, economic freedom, and the protection of civil liberties and political rights.[16] Australia is a member of the G20, OECD, WTO, APEC, UN, Commonwealth of Nations, ANZUS, and the Pacific Islands Forum.

Contents

Commonwealth of Australia	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Anthem: "Advance Australia Fair"[N 1]	
	
Capital **Largest city**	Canberra Sydney
Official language(s)	None[N 2]
National language	English (*de facto*)[N 2]
Demonym	Australian, Aussie[3][4]
Government - Monarch - Governor-General - Prime Minister	Federal parliamentary constitutional monarchy Elizabeth II Quentin Bryce Julia Gillard
Legislature - Upper house - Lower house	Parliament Senate House of Representatives
Independence - Constitution - Statute of Westminster - Statute of Westminster Adoption Act	from the United Kingdom 1 January 1901 11 December 1931 9 October 1942 (with effect from 3 September 1939)

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- Australia Act	3 March 1986
Area	
- Total	7,617,930 km^2 (6th) 2,941,299 sq mi
Population	
- 2012 estimate	22,864,003[5] (52nd)
- 2006 census	19,855,288[6]
- Density	2.8/km^2 (233rd) 7.3/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$918.978 billion[7] (18th)
- Per capita	$40,836[7] (12th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$1.507 trillion[7] (13th)
- Per capita	$66,984[7] (5th)
Gini (2006)	30.5[8] (medium)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.929[9] (very high) (2nd)
Currency	Australian dollar (AUD)
Time zone	various[N 3] (UTC+8 to +10.5)
- Summer (DST)	various[N 3] (UTC+8 to +11.5)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	AU
Internet TLD	.au
Calling code	+61

Etymology

Pronounced [əˈstɹæɪljə, −liə] in Australian English,[17] the name *Australia* is derived from the Latin *australis*, meaning "southern". The country has been referred to colloquially as *Oz* since the early 20th century.[N 5] *Aussie* is a common colloquial term for "Australian". In neighbouring New Zealand the term "Aussie" is sometimes applied as a noun to the nation as well as its residents.[22]

Legends of *Terra Australis Incognita*—an "unknown land of the South"—date back to Roman times and were commonplace in medieval geography, although not based on any documented knowledge of the continent. Following European discovery, names for the Australian landmass were often references to the famed *Terra Australis*.

The earliest recorded use of the word *Australia* in English was in 1625 in "A note of Australia del Espíritu Santo, written by Sir Richard Hakluyt", published by Samuel Purchas in *Hakluytus Posthumus*, a corruption of the original Spanish name "Tierra Austral del Espíritu Santo" (Southern Land of the Holy Spirit)[23] for an island in Vanuatu.[24] The Dutch adjectival form *Australische* was used in a Dutch book in Batavia (Jakarta) in 1638, to refer to the newly discovered lands to the south.[25] *Australia* was later used in a 1693 translation of *Les Aventures de Jacques Sadeur dans la Découverte et le Voyage de la Terre Australe*, a 1676 French novel by Gabriel de Foigny, under the pen-name Jacques Sadeur.[26] Referring to the entire South Pacific region,

Alexander Dalrymple used it in *An Historical Collection of Voyages and Discoveries in the South Pacific Ocean* in 1771. By the end of the 18th century, the name was being used to refer specifically to Australia, with the botanists George Shaw and Sir James Smith writing of "the vast island, or rather continent, of Australia, Australasia or New Holland" in their 1793 *Zoology and Botany of New Holland*,[27] and James Wilson including it on a 1799 chart.[28]

The name *Australia* was popularised by the explorer Matthew Flinders, who pushed for it to be formally adopted as early as 1804. When preparing his manuscript and charts for his 1814 *A Voyage to Terra Australis*, he was persuaded by his patron, Sir Joseph Banks, to use the term *Terra Australis* as this was the name most familiar to the public. Flinders did so, but allowed himself the footnote:

> "Had I permitted myself any innovation on the original term, it would have been to convert it to Australia; as being more agreeable to the ear, and an assimilation to the names of the other great portions of the earth."[29]

This is the only occurrence of the word *Australia* in that text; but in Appendix III, Robert Brown's *General remarks, geographical and systematical, on the botany of Terra Australis*, Brown makes use of the adjectival form *Australian* throughout,[30]—the first known use of that form.[31] Despite popular conception, the book was not instrumental in the adoption of the name: the name came gradually to be accepted over the following ten years.[32]

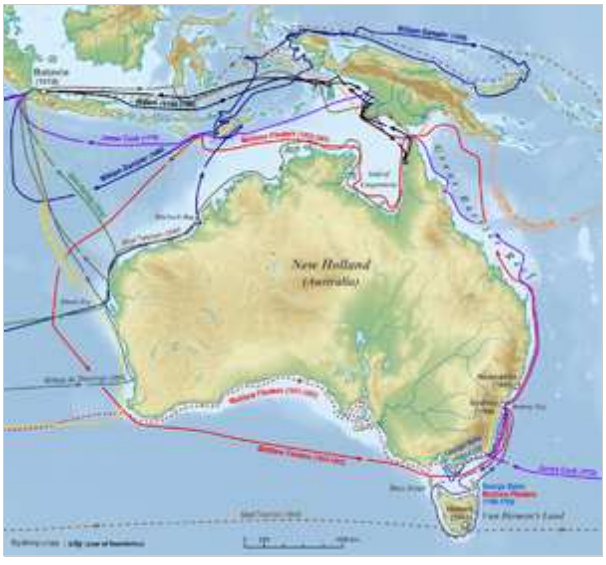
The first time that the name Australia appears to have been officially used was in a despatch to Lord Bathurst of 4 April 1817 in which Governor Lachlan Macquarie acknowledges the receipt of Capt. Flinders' charts of Australia.[33] On 12 December 1817 Macquarie recommended to the Colonial Office that it be formally adopted.[34] In 1824, the Admiralty agreed that the continent should be known officially as *Australia*.[35]

The first map on which the word Australia occurs was published in St Petersburg in 1824. It is in Krusenstern's "Atlas de l'Océan Pacifique".[36]

History

Main article: History of Australia

Human habitation of the Australian continent is estimated to have begun between 42,000 and 48,000 years ago,[37] possibly with the migration of people by land bridges and short sea-crossings from what is now South-East Asia. These first inhabitants may have been ancestors of modern Indigenous Australians. At the time of European settlement in the late 18th century, most Indigenous Australians were hunter-gatherers, with a complex oral culture and spiritual values based on reverence for the land and a belief in the Dreamtime. The Torres Strait Islanders, ethnically Melanesian, were originally horticulturalists and hunter-gatherers.[38]



Exploration by Europeans till 1812

Following sporadic visits by fishermen from the Malay Archipelago,[39] the first recorded European sighting of the Australian mainland and the first recorded European landfall

- 1606 Willem Janszoon
- 1606 Luis Váez de Torres
- 1616 Dirk Hartog
- 1619 Frederick de Houtman
- 1644 Abel Tasman
- 1696 Willem de Vlamingh
- 1699 William Dampier
- 1770 James Cook
- 1797–1799 George Bass
- 1801–1803 Matthew Flinders

on the Australian continent were attributed to the Dutch navigator Willem Janszoon. He sighted the coast of Cape York Peninsula on an unknown date in early 1606, and made landfall on 26 February at the Pennefather River on the western shore of Cape York, near the modern town of Weipa.[40] The Dutch charted the whole of the western and northern coastlines of "New Holland" during the 17th century, but made no attempt at settlement.[40] William Dampier, an English explorer and privateer landed on the north-west coast of Australia in 1688 and again in 1699 on a return trip. In 1770, James Cook sailed along and mapped the east coast of Australia, which he named New South Wales and claimed for Great Britain.[41] Cook's discoveries prepared the way for establishment of a new penal colony. Captain Arthur Phillip led the First Fleet into Port Jackson on 26 January 1788.[42] This date became Australia's national day, Australia Day. (The British Crown Colony of New South Wales was not formally promulgated until 7 February 1788, but 26 January has entered the popular consciousness as the effective date of its foundation.) Van Diemen's Land, now known as Tasmania, was settled in 1803 and became a separate colony in 1825.[43] The United Kingdom formally claimed the western part of Australia in 1828.[44]

Separate colonies were carved from parts of New South Wales: South Australia in 1836, Victoria in 1851, and Queensland in 1859.[45] The Northern Territory was founded in 1911 when it was excised from South Australia.[46] South Australia was founded as a "free province"—it was never a penal colony.[47] Victoria and Western Australia were also founded "free", but later accepted transported convicts.[48][49] A campaign by the settlers of New South Wales led to the end of convict transportation to that colony; the last convict ship arrived in 1848.[50]



Port Arthur, Tasmania was Australia's largest gaol for transported convicts.

The indigenous population, estimated at 750,000 to 1,000,000 at the time of European settlement,[51] declined steeply for 150 years following settlement, mainly due to infectious disease.[52] The "Stolen Generations" (removal of Aboriginal children from their families), which historians such as Henry Reynolds have argued could be considered genocide,[53] may have contributed to the decline in the Indigenous population.[54] Such interpretations of Aboriginal history are disputed by conservative commentators such as former Prime Minister John Howard as exaggerated or fabricated for political or ideological reasons.[55] This debate is known within Australia as the History wars.[56] The Federal government gained the power to make laws with respect to Aborigines following the 1967 referendum.[57] Traditional ownership of land—aboriginal title—was not recognised until 1992, when the High Court case *Mabo v Queensland (No 2)* overturned the notion of Australia as *terra nullius* ("land belonging to no one") before European occupation.[58]

A gold rush began in Australia in the early 1850s,[59] and the Eureka Rebellion against mining licence fees in 1854 was an early expression of civil disobedience.[60] Between 1855 and 1890, the six colonies individually gained responsible government, managing most of their own affairs while remaining part of the British Empire.[61] The Colonial Office in London retained control of some matters, notably foreign affairs,[62] defence,[63] and international shipping.



The Last Post is played at an ANZAC Day ceremony in Port Melbourne, Victoria. Similar ceremonies are held in most suburbs and towns.

On 1 January 1901 federation of the colonies was achieved after a decade of planning, consultation, and voting.[64] The Commonwealth of Australia was established and it became a dominion of the British Empire in 1907. The Federal Capital Territory (later renamed the Australian Capital Territory) was formed in 1911 as the location for the future federal capital of Canberra. Melbourne was the temporary seat of government from 1901 to 1927 while Canberra was constructed.[65] The Northern Territory was transferred from the control of the South Australian government to the federal parliament in 1911.[66] In 1914, Australia joined Britain in fighting World War I, with support from both the outgoing Liberal Party and the incoming Labor Party.[67] Australians took part in many of the major battles fought on the Western Front.[68] Of about 416,000 who served, about 60,000 were killed and another 152,000 were wounded.[69] Many Australians regard the defeat of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZACs) at Gallipoli as the birth of the nation—its first major military action.[70][71] The Kokoda Track campaign is regarded by many as an analogous nation-defining event during World War II.[72]



Australia's national flag comprises the Union Jack, the Commonwealth Star, and the Southern Cross.

Britain's Statute of Westminster 1931 formally ended most of the constitutional links between Australia and the UK. Australia adopted it in 1942,[73] but it was backdated to 1939 to confirm the validity of legislation passed by the Australian Parliament during World War II.[74][75] The shock of the UK's defeat in Asia in 1942 and the threat of Japanese invasion caused Australia to turn to the United States as a new ally and protector.[76] Since 1951, Australia has been a formal military ally of the US, under the ANZUS treaty.[77] After World War II Australia encouraged immigration from Europe. Since the 1970s and following the abolition of the White Australia policy, immigration from Asia and elsewhere was also promoted.[78] As a result, Australia's demography, culture, and self-image were transformed.[79] The final constitutional ties between Australia and the UK were severed with the passing of the Australia Act 1986, ending any British role in the government of the Australian States, and closing the option of judicial appeals to the Privy Council in London.[80] In a 1999 referendum, 55 per cent of Australian voters and a majority in every Australian state rejected a proposal to become a republic with a president appointed by a two-thirds vote in both Houses of the Australian Parliament. Since the election of the Whitlam Government in 1972,[81] there has been an increasing focus in foreign policy on ties with other Pacific Rim nations, while maintaining close ties with Australia's traditional allies and trading partners.[82]

Government

Main articles: Government of Australia, Politics of Australia, and Monarchy of Australia

Australia is a constitutional monarchy with a federal division of powers. It uses a parliamentary system of government with Queen Elizabeth II at its apex as the Queen of Australia, a role that is distinct from her position as monarch of the other Commonwealth realms. The Queen resides in the United Kingdom, and she is represented by her viceroys in Australia (the Governor-General at the federal level and by the Governors at the state level), who by convention act on the advice of her ministers. Supreme executive authority is vested by the

Constitution of Australia in the sovereign, but the power to exercise it is conferred by the Constitution specifically to the Governor-General.[83][84] The most notable exercise of the Governor-General's reserve powers outside a Prime Minister's request was the dismissal of the Whitlam Government in the constitutional crisis of 1975.[85]



Parliament House, Canberra was opened in 1988, replacing the provisional Parliament House building opened in 1927.

The federal government is separated into three branches:

- The legislature: the bicameral Parliament, defined in section 1 of the constitution as comprising the Queen (represented by the Governor-General), the Senate, and the House of Representatives;
- The executive: the Federal Executive Council, in practice the Governor-General as advised by the Prime Minister and Ministers of State;[86]
- The judiciary: the High Court of Australia and other federal courts, whose judges are appointed by the Governor-General on advice of the Council.



Government House, Canberra, also known as "Yarralumla", is the official residence of the Governor-General.

In the Senate (the upper house), there are 76 senators: twelve each from the states and two each from the mainland territories (the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory).[87] The House of Representatives (the lower house) has 150 members elected from single-member electoral divisions, commonly known as "electorates" or "seats", allocated to states on the basis of population,[88] with each original state guaranteed a minimum of five seats.[89] Elections for both chambers are normally held every three years, simultaneously; senators have overlapping six-year terms except for those from the territories, whose terms are not fixed but are tied to the electoral cycle for the lower house; thus only 40 of the 76 places in the Senate are put to each election unless the cycle is interrupted by a double dissolution.[87]



Julia Gillard, Prime Minister of Australia since 2010

Australia's electoral system uses preferential voting for all lower house elections with the exception of Tasmania and the ACT, which, along with the Senate and most state upper houses, combine it with proportional representation in a system known as the single transferable vote. Voting is compulsory for all enrolled citizens 18 years and over in every jurisdiction,[90] as is enrolment (with the exception of South Australia).[91] The party with majority support in the House of Representatives forms the government and its leader becomes Prime Minister. In cases where no party has majority support, the Governor-General has the power to appoint the Prime Minister, and if necessary dismiss one that has lost the confidence of Parliament.[92]

There are two major political groups that usually form government, federally and in the states: the Australian Labor Party, and the Coalition which is a formal grouping of the Liberal Party and its minor partner, the National Party.[93][94] Independent members and several minor parties—including the Greens and the Australian Democrats—have achieved representation in Australian parliaments, mostly in upper houses.

Following a partyroom leadership challenge, Julia Gillard became the first female Prime Minister in June 2010.[95] The most recent federal election was held on 21 August 2010 and resulted in the first hung parliament

in over 50 years. Gillard was able to form a minority Labor government with the support of independents.

States and territories

Main article: States and territories of Australia

Australia has six states—New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia—and two major mainland territories—the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory (ACT). In most respects these two territories function as states, but the Commonwealth Parliament can override any legislation of their parliaments. By contrast, federal legislation overrides state legislation only in areas that are set out in Section 51 of the Australian Constitution; state parliaments retain all residual legislative powers, including those over schools, state police, the state judiciary, roads, public transport, and local government, since these do not fall under the provisions listed in Section 51.[96]



A clickable map of Australia's states and mainland territories

Each state and major mainland territory has its own parliament—unicameral in the Northern Territory, the ACT, and Queensland, and bicameral in the other states. The states are sovereign entities, although subject to certain powers of the Commonwealth as defined by the Constitution. The lower houses are known as the Legislative Assembly (the House of Assembly in South Australia and Tasmania); the upper houses are known as the Legislative Council. The head of the government in each state is the Premier, and in each territory the Chief Minister. The Queen is represented in each state by a Governor; and in the Northern Territory, the Administrator.[97] In the Commonwealth, the Queen's representative is the Governor-General.[98]

The federal parliament directly administers the following territories:[86]

- Ashmore and Cartier Islands
- Australian Antarctic Territory
- Christmas Island and Cocos (Keeling) Islands
- Coral Sea Islands
- Heard Island and McDonald Islands
- Jervis Bay Territory, a naval base and sea port for the national capital in land that was formerly part of New South Wales

Norfolk Island is also technically an external territory; however, under the Norfolk Island Act 1979 it has been granted more autonomy and is governed locally by its own legislative assembly. The Queen is represented by an Administrator, currently Owen Walsh.[99]

Foreign relations and military

Main articles: Foreign relations of Australia and Australian Defence Force

Over recent decades, Australia's foreign relations have been driven by a close association with the United States through the ANZUS pact, and by a desire to develop relationships with Asia and the Pacific, particularly through ASEAN and the Pacific Islands Forum. In 2005 Australia secured an inaugural seat at the East Asia Summit following its accession to the Treaty of Amity and Cooperation in Southeast Asia, and in 2011 attended the Sixth East Asia Summit in Indonesia. Australia is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, in which the Commonwealth Heads of Government meetings provide the main forum for co-operation.[100]



Australian Army soldiers conducting a foot patrol during a joint training exercise with US forces in Shoalwater Bay (2007).

Australia has pursued the cause of international trade liberalisation.[101][102][103] It led the formation of the Cairns Group and Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation.[104][105] Australia is a member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development and the World Trade Organization,[106][107] and has pursued several major bilateral free trade agreements, most recently the Australia – United States Free Trade Agreement[108] and Closer Economic Relations with New Zealand,[109] with another free trade agreement being negotiated with China—the Australia – China Free Trade Agreement—and Japan,[110] South Korea in 2011,[111][112] Australia–Chile Free Trade Agreement, ASEAN – Australia – New Zealand Free Trade Area, and the Trans-Pacific Strategic Economic Partnership.

Along with New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Malaysia and Singapore, Australia is party to the Five Power Defence Arrangements, a regional defence agreement. A founding member country of the United Nations, Australia is strongly committed to multilateralism[113] and maintains an international aid program under which some 60 countries receive assistance. The 2005–06 budget provides A$2.5 billion for development assistance;[114] as a percentage of GDP, this contribution is less than that recommended in the UN Millennium Development Goals. Australia ranks seventh overall in the Center for Global Development's 2008 Commitment to Development Index.[115]

Australia's armed forces—the Australian Defence Force (ADF)—comprise the Royal Australian Navy (RAN), the Australian Army and the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF), in total numbering 80,561 personnel (including 55,068 regulars and 25,493 reservists).[116] The titular role of Commander-in-Chief is vested in the Governor-General, who appoints a Chief of the Defence Force from one of the armed services on the advice of the government.[117] Day-to-day force operations are under the command of the Chief, while broader administration and the formulation of defence policy is undertaken by the Minister and Department of Defence.

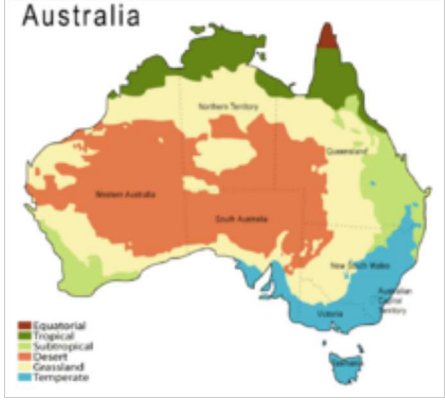
In the 2010–11 budget, defence spending was A$25.7 billion,[118] representing the 13th largest defence budget.[119] Australia has been involved in UN and regional peacekeeping, disaster relief and armed conflict; it currently has deployed approximately 3,330 defence force personnel in varying capacities to 12 overseas operations in areas including East Timor, Solomon Islands and Afghanistan.[120]

Geography and climate

Main articles: Geography of Australia, Climate of Australia, and Geology of Australia

Australia's landmass of 7,617,930 square kilometres (2,941,300 sq mi)[121] is on the Indo-Australian Plate.

Surrounded by the Indian and Pacific oceans,[N 4] it is separated from Asia by the Arafura and Timor seas, with the Coral Sea lying off the Queensland coast, and the Tasman Sea lying between Australia and New Zealand. The world's smallest continent[122] and sixth largest country by total area,[123] Australia—owing to its size and isolation—is often dubbed the "island continent",[124] and is sometimes considered the world's largest island.[125] Australia has 34,218 kilometres (21,262 mi) of coastline (excluding all offshore islands),[126] and claims an extensive Exclusive Economic Zone of 8,148,250 square kilometres (3,146,060 sq mi). This exclusive economic zone does not include the Australian Antarctic Territory.[127] Excluding Macquarie Island, Australia lies between latitudes 9° and 44°S, and longitudes 112° and 154°E.



Climatic zones in Australia, based on the Köppen climate classification.

The Great Barrier Reef, the world's largest coral reef,[128] lies a short distance off the north-east coast and extends for over 2,000 kilometres (1,240 mi). Mount Augustus, claimed to be the world's largest monolith,[129] is located in Western Australia. At 2,228 metres (7,310 ft), Mount Kosciuszko on the Great Dividing Range is the highest mountain on the Australian mainland. Even taller are Mawson Peak (at 2,745 metres or 9,006 feet), on the remote Australian territory of Heard Island, and, in the Australian Antarctic Territory, Mount McClintock and Mount Menzies, at 3,492 metres (11,457 ft) and 3,355 metres (11,007 ft) respectively.[130]


Everlastings on Mount Hotham, located in Victoria

Australia's size gives it a wide variety of landscapes, with subtropical rain forests in the north-east, mountain ranges in the south-east, south-west and east areas, and a dry desert in its centre.[131] It is the flattest continent,[132] with the oldest and least fertile soils;[133][134] desert or semi-arid land commonly known as the outback makes up by far the largest portion of land.[135] The driest inhabited continent, only its south-east and south-west corners have a temperate climate.[136] The population density, 2.8 inhabitants per square kilometre, is among the lowest in the world,[137] although a large proportion of the population lives along the temperate south-eastern coastline.[138]

Eastern Australia is marked by the Great Dividing Range that runs parallel to the coast of Queensland, New South Wales, and much of Victoria—although the name is not strictly accurate, as in parts the range consists of low hills and the highlands are typically no more than 1,600 metres (5,249 ft) in height.[139] The coastal uplands and a belt of Brigalow grasslands lie between the coast and the mountains, while inland of the dividing range are large areas of grassland.[139][140] These include the western plains of New South Wales, and the Einasleigh Uplands, Barkly Tableland, and Mulga Lands of inland Queensland. The northern point of the east coast is the tropical rainforested Cape York Peninsula.[141][142][143][144]

The landscapes of the northern part of the country—the Top End and the Gulf Country behind the Gulf of Carpentaria, with their tropical climate—consist of woodland, grassland, and desert.[145][146][147] At the north-west corner of the continent are the sandstone cliffs and gorges of The Kimberley, and below that the Pilbara. South and inland of these lie more areas of grassland: the Ord Victoria Plain and the Western Australian Mulga shrublands.[148][149][150] At the heart of the country are the uplands of central Australia; prominent features of the centre and south include the inland Simpson, Tirari and Sturt Stony, Gibson, Great Sandy, Tanami,

and Great Victoria deserts, with the famous Nullarbor Plain on the southern coast.[151][152][153][154]


Topographic map of Australia

The climate of Australia is significantly influenced by ocean currents, including the Indian Ocean Dipole and the El Niño-Southern Oscillation, which is correlated with periodic drought, and the seasonal tropical low pressure system that produces cyclones in northern Australia.[155][156] These factors induce rainfall to vary markedly from year to year. Much of the northern part of the country has a tropical predominantly summer rainfall (monsoon) climate.[157] The southwest corner of the country has a Mediterranean climate.[158] Much of the southeast (including Tasmania) is temperate.[157]

Environment

Main article: Environment of Australia

Although most of Australia is semi-arid or desert, it includes a diverse range of habitats from alpine heaths to tropical rainforests, and is recognised as a megadiverse country. Because of the continent's great age, extremely variable weather patterns, and long-term geographic isolation, much of Australia's biota is unique and diverse. About 85 per cent of flowering plants, 84 per cent of mammals, more than 45 per cent of birds, and 89 per cent of in-shore, temperate-zone fish are endemic.[159] Australia has the greatest number of reptiles of any country, with 755 species.[160]


The koala and the *eucalyptus* form an iconic Australian pair

Australian forests are mostly made up of evergreen species, particularly eucalyptus trees in the less arid regions, wattles replace them in drier regions and deserts as the most dominant species.[161] Among well-known Australian fauna are the monotremes (the platypus and echidna); a host of marsupials, including the kangaroo, koala, and wombat, and birds such as the emu and the kookaburra.[161] Australia is home to many dangerous animals including some of the most venomous snakes in the world.[162] The dingo was introduced by Austronesian people who traded with Indigenous Australians around 3000 BCE.[163] Many plant and animal species became extinct soon after first human settlement,[164] including the Australian megafauna; others have disappeared since European settlement, among them the thylacine.[165][166]

Many of Australia's ecoregions, and the species within those regions, are threatened by human activities and introduced plant and animal species.[167] The federal *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* is the legal framework for the protection of threatened species.[168] Numerous protected areas have been created under the National Strategy for the Conservation of Australia's Biological Diversity to protect and preserve unique ecosystems;[169][170] 65 wetlands are listed under the Ramsar Convention,[171] and 16 natural World Heritage Sites have been established.[172] Australia was ranked 51st of 163 countries in the world on the 2010 Environmental Performance Index.[173]

Climate change has become an increasing concern in Australia in recent years, and protection of the

environment is a major political issue.[174][175] In 2007, the Rudd Government signed the instrument of ratification of the Kyoto Protocol. Nevertheless, Australia's carbon dioxide emissions per capita are among the highest in the world, lower than those of only a few other industrialised nations.[176] Rainfall in Australia has slightly increased over the past century, both nationwide and for two quadrants of the nation,[177] According to the Bureau of Meteorology's 2011 Australian Climate Statement, Australia had lower than average temperatures in 2011 as a consequence of a La Nina weather pattern, however, "the country's 10-year average continues to demonstrate the rising trend in temperatures, with 2002-2011 likely to rank in the top two warmest 10-year periods on record for Australia, at 0.52 °C above the long-term average".[178] Water restrictions are frequently in place in many regions and cities of Australia in response to chronic shortages due to urban population increases and localised drought.[179][180] Throughout much of the continent, major flooding regularly follows extended periods of drought, flushing out inland river systems, overflowing dams and inundating large inland flood plains, as occurred throughout Eastern Australia in 2010, 2011 and 2012 after the 2000s Australian drought.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Australia

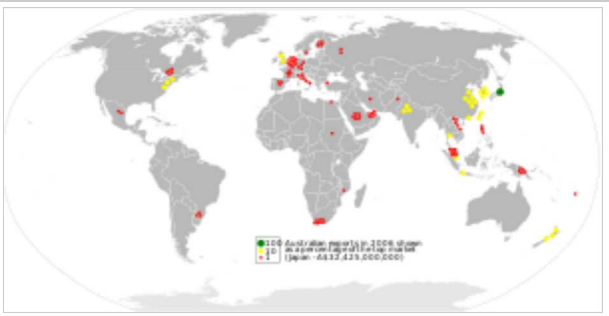
See also: Economic history of Australia and Median household income in Australia and New Zealand

Australia has a market economy with high GDP per capita and a low rate of poverty. The Australian dollar is the currency for the nation, including Christmas Island, Cocos (Keeling) Islands, and Norfolk Island, as well as the independent Pacific Island states of Kiribati, Nauru, and Tuvalu. After the 2006 merger of the Australian Stock Exchange and the Sydney Futures Exchange, the Australian Securities Exchange is now the ninth largest in the world.[182]



The Super Pit gold mine in Kalgoorlie, Australia's largest open cut mine.[181]

Ranked third in the Index of Economic Freedom (2010),[183] Australia is the world's thirteenth largest economy and has the fifth highest per capita GDP at $66,984; significantly higher than that of the United States, United Kingdom, Germany, France, Canada, Japan, and New Zealand. The country was ranked second in the United Nations 2011 Human Development Index and first in Legatum's 2008 Prosperity Index.[184] All of Australia's major cities fare well in global comparative livability surveys;[185] Melbourne reached first place on *The Economist*'s 2011 World's Most Livable Cities list, followed by Sydney, Perth, and Adelaide in sixth, eighth, and ninth place respectively.[186] Total government debt in Australia is about $190 billion.[187] Australia has among the highest house prices and some of the highest household debt levels in the world.[188]



Destination and value of Australian exports in

An emphasis on exporting commodities rather than manufactured goods has underpinned a significant increase in Australia's terms of trade since the start of the 21st century, due to rising commodity prices. Australia has a balance of payments that is more than 7 per cent of GDP negative, and has had persistently large current account deficits for more than 50 years.[190] Australia has grown at an average annual rate of 3.6 per cent for over 15 years, in comparison to the OECD annual average of 2.5 per cent.[190] There are differing opinions based on evidence as

2006[189]

to whether or not Australia had been one of the few OECD nations to avoid experiencing a recession during the late 2000s global financial downturn.[191][191][192] Six of Australia's major trading partners had been in recession which in turn affected Australia, and economic growth was hampered significantly over recent years.[193][194]

The Hawke Government floated the Australian dollar in 1983 and partially deregulated the financial system.[195] The Howard Government followed with a partial deregulation of the labour market and the further privatisation of state-owned businesses, most notably in the telecommunications industry.[196] The indirect tax system was substantially changed in July 2000 with the introduction of a 10 per cent Goods and Services Tax (GST).[197] In Australia's tax system, personal and company income tax are the main sources of government revenue.[198]

In July 2011, there were 11,450,500 people employed, with an unemployment rate of 5.1 per cent.[199] Youth unemployment (15–24) rose from 8.7 per cent to 9.7 per cent over 2008–2009.[200] Over the past decade, inflation has typically been 2–3 per cent and the base interest rate 5–6 per cent. The service sector of the economy, including tourism, education, and financial services, accounts for about 70 per cent of GDP.[201] Rich in natural resources, Australia is a major exporter of agricultural products, particularly wheat and wool, minerals such as iron-ore and gold, and energy in the forms of liquified natural gas and coal. Although agriculture and natural resources account for only 3 per cent and 5 per cent of GDP respectively, they contribute substantially to export performance. Australia's largest export markets are Japan, China, the US, South Korea, and New Zealand.[202] Australia is the world's fourth largest exporter of wine, in an industry contributing $5.5 billion per annum to the nation's economy.[203]

Demography

Main articles: Demographics of Australia and Immigration to Australia

For almost two centuries the majority of settlers, and later immigrants, came from the British Isles. As a result the people of Australia are mainly a mixture of British and Irish ethnic origin. In the 2006 Australian census, the most commonly nominated ancestry was Australian (37.13 per cent),[205] followed by English (32 per cent), Irish (9 per cent), Scottish (8 per cent), Italian (4 per cent), German (4 per cent), Chinese (3 per cent), and Greek (2 per cent).[206]



Nearly three quarters of Australians live in metropolitan cities and coastal areas. The beach is an integral part of the Australian identity.[204]

Australia's population has quadrupled since the end of World War I,[207] much of the increase from immigration. Following World War II and through to 2000, almost 5.9 million of the total population settled in the country as new immigrants, meaning that nearly two out of every seven Australians were born overseas.[208] Most immigrants are skilled,[209] but the immigration quota includes categories for family members and refugees.[209] By 2050, Australia's population is currently projected to reach around 42 million.[210]

In 2001, 23.1 per cent of Australians were born overseas; the five largest immigrant groups were those from the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Italy, Vietnam, and China.[202][211] Following the abolition of the White Australia policy in 1973, numerous government initiatives have been established to encourage and promote racial harmony based on a policy of multiculturalism.[212] In 2005–06, more than 131,000 people emigrated to

Australia, mainly from Asia and Oceania.[213] The migration target for 2010–11 is 168,700, compared to 67,900 in 1998–99.[214]



The Barossa Valley is a wine-producing region in South Australia. Fewer than 15 per cent of Australians live in rural areas.

The Indigenous population—mainland Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders—was counted at 410,003 (2.2 per cent of the total population) in 2001, a significant increase from 115,953 in the 1976 census.[215] A large number of Indigenous people are not identified in the Census due to undercount and cases where their Indigenous status is not recorded on the form; after adjusting for these factors, the ABS estimated the true figure for 2001 to be around 460,140 (2.4 per cent of the total population).[216]

Indigenous Australians experience higher than average rates of imprisonment and unemployment,[217] lower levels of education, and life expectancies for males and females that are 11–17 years lower than those of non-indigenous Australians.[202][218][219] Some remote Indigenous communities have been described as having "failed state"-like conditions.[220][221][222][223][224]

In common with many other developed countries, Australia is experiencing a demographic shift towards an older population, with more retirees and fewer people of working age. In 2004, the average age of the civilian population was 38.8 years.[225] A large number of Australians (759,849 for the period 2002–03)[226] live outside their home country.

Language

Main article: Australian English

Although Australia has no official language, English is so entrenched that it has become the de facto national language.[2] Australian English is a major variety of the language with a distinctive accent and lexicon. General Australian serves as the standard dialect. Spelling is similar to that of British English with a number of exceptions.[228] According to the 2006 census, English is the only language spoken in the home for close to 79 per cent of the population. The next most common languages spoken at home are Italian (1.6 per cent), Greek (1.3 per cent) and Cantonese (1.2 per cent);[229] a considerable proportion of first- and second-generation migrants are bilingual. A 2010–2011 study by the Australia Early Development Index found that the most common language spoken by children after English was Arabic, followed by Vietnamese, Greek, Chinese, and Hindi.[230]

Between 200 and 300 Indigenous Australian languages are thought to have existed at the time of first European contact, of which only about 70 have survived. Many of these are exclusively spoken by older people; only 18 Indigenous languages are still spoken by all age groups.[231] At the time of the 2006 Census, 52,000 Indigenous Australians, representing 12 per cent of the Indigenous population, reported that they spoke an Indigenous language at home.[232] Australia has a sign language known as Auslan, which is the main language of about 5,500 deaf people.[233]

Religion

Main article: Religion in Australia

Australia has no state religion, and section 116 of the Australian Constitution prohibits the federal government from making any law to establish any religion, impose any religious observance, or prohibit the free exercise of any religion.[234] In the 2006 census, 64 per cent of Australians were counted as Christian, including 26 per cent as Roman Catholic and 19 per cent as Anglican. About 19 per cent of the population stated "no religion" (which includes humanism, atheism, agnosticism and rationalism), which was the fastest-growing group from 2001 to 2006, and a further 12 per cent did not answer (the question is optional) or did not give a response adequate for interpretation. The largest non-Christian religion in Australia is Buddhism (2.1 per cent), followed by Islam (1.7 per cent), Hinduism (0.8 per cent) and Judaism (0.5 per cent). Overall, fewer than 6 per cent of Australians identify with non-Christian religions.[235]



WR Thomas, *A South Australian Corroboree*, 1864, Art Gallery of South Australia. Aboriginal Australians developed the animist religion of the Dreamtime.

Prior to European settlement in Australia, the animist beliefs of Australia's indigenous people had been practised for millennia. In the case of mainland Aboriginal Australians, their spirituality is known as The Dreamtime and it places a heavy emphasis on belonging to the land. The collection of stories that it contains shaped Aboriginal law and customs. Aboriginal art, story and dance continue to draw on these spiritual traditions. In the case of the Torres Strait Islanders who inhabit the islands between Australia and New Guinea, spirituality and customs reflected their Melanesian origins and dependence on the sea. The 1996 Australian census counted more than 7000 respondents as followers of a traditional Aboriginal religion.[236]



St Mary's Catholic Cathedral, Sydney, built to a design by William Wardell. About a quarter of Australians are Roman Catholic.

Since the arrival of the First Fleet of British ships in 1788, Christianity has grown to be the major religion. Consequently, the Christian festivals of Christmas and Easter are public holidays, the skylines of Australian cities and towns are marked by church and cathedral spires, and the Christian churches have played an integral role in the development of education, health and welfare services in Australia. The Catholic education system operates as the largest non-government educator, accounting for about 21% of all secondary enrolments at the close of the 2000s (decade), with Catholic Health Australia similarly being the largest non-government provider. Christian welfare organisations also play a prominent role within national life, with organisations like the Salvation Army, St Vincent de Paul Society and Anglicare enjoying widespread support. Such contributions are recognised on Australia's currency, with the presence of Christian pastors like Aboriginal writer David Unaipon ($50); founder of the Royal Flying Doctor Service, John Flynn ($20); and Catherine Helen Spence ($5) who was Australia's first female candidate for political office. Other significant Australian religious figures have included St. Mary McKillop, who became the first Australian to be recognised as a saint by the Roman Catholic Church in 2010 and Church of Christ pastor Sir Douglas Nicholls, who, like Martin Luther King in the United States, led a movement against racial inequality in Australia and was also the first indigenous Australian to be appointed as a State Governor.

For much of Australian history the Church of England (now known as the Anglican Church of Australia) was the largest religious affiliation, however multicultural immigration has contributed to a decline in its relative position, with the Roman Catholic Church benefiting from the opening of post-war Australia to multicultural immigration

and becoming the largest group. Similarly, Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism and Judaism have all been expanding in the post war decades. Weekly attendance at church services in 2001 was about 1.5 million[237] (about 7.8 per cent of the population).[238]

An international survey, made by the private, not-for profit German think-tank, the Bertelsmann Foundation, found that "Australia is one of the least religious nations in the western world, coming in 17th out of 21 [countries] surveyed" and that "Nearly three out of four Australians say they are either not at all religious or that religion does not play a central role in their lives."[239] A survey of 1,718 Australians by the Christian Research Association at the end of 2009 suggested that the number of people attending religious services per month in Australia has dropped from 23 per cent in 1993 to 16 per cent in 2009, and while 60 per cent of 15 to 29-year-old respondents in 1993 identified with Christian denominations, 33 per cent did in 2009.[240]

Education

Main article: Education in Australia

School attendance is compulsory throughout Australia. Education is the responsibility of the individual states and territories[241] so the rules vary between states, but in general children are required to attend school from the age of about 5 up until about 16.[242][243] In at least some states (eg, WA)[244] children aged 16–17 are required to either attend school or participate in vocational training, such as an apprenticeship.

Australia has an adult literacy rate that is assumed to be 99 per cent. In the Programme for International Student Assessment, Australia regularly scores among the top five of thirty major developed countries (member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). Catholic education accounts for the largest non-government sector.

Australia has 37 government-funded universities and two private universities, as well as a number of other specialist institutions that provide approved courses at the higher education level.[245] The University of Sydney is Australia's oldest university, having been founded in 1850, followed by the University of Melbourne three years later. Other notable universities include those of the Group of Eight leading tertiary institutions, including the University of Adelaide (which boasts an association with five Nobel Laureates), the Australian National University located in the national capital of Canberra, Monash University and the University of New South Wales.

The OECD places Australia among the most expensive nations to attend university.[246] There is a state-based system of vocational training, known as TAFE, and many trades conduct apprenticeships for training new tradespeople.[247] Approximately 58 per cent of Australians aged from 25 to 64 have vocational or tertiary qualifications,[202] and the tertiary graduation rate of 49 per cent is the highest among OECD countries. The ratio of international to local students in tertiary education in Australia is the highest in the OECD countries.[248]

Health

See also: Health care in Australia

Life expectancy in Australia in 2006 was 78.7 years for males and 83.5 years for females.[249] Australia has the highest rates of skin cancer in the world,[250] while cigarette smoking is the largest preventable cause of death and disease.[251] Australia has one of the highest proportions of overweight citizens among developed nations.[252]

Total expenditure on health (including private sector spending) is around 9.8 per cent of GDP.[253] Australia introduced universal health care in 1975.[254] Known as Medicare it is now nominally funded by an income tax surcharge known as the *Medicare levy*, currently set at 1.5 per cent.[255] The states manage hospitals and attached outpatient services, while the Commonwealth funds the Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme (reducing the costs of medicines) and general practice.[254]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Australia



The Royal Exhibition Building in Melbourne was the first building in Australia to be listed as a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2004[256]

Since 1788, the basis of Australian culture has been strongly influenced by Anglo-Celtic Western culture.[257][258] Distinctive cultural features have also arisen from Australia's natural environment and Indigenous cultures.[259][260] Since the mid-20th century, American popular culture has strongly influenced Australia, particularly through television and cinema.[261] Other cultural influences come from neighbouring Asian countries, and through large-scale immigration from non-English-speaking nations.[261][262]

Arts

Main articles: Visual arts of Australia, Theatre of Australia, and Dance in Australia

Australian visual arts are thought to have begun with the cave and bark paintings of its Indigenous peoples. The traditions of Indigenous Australians are largely transmitted orally, through ceremony and the telling of Dreamtime stories.[263] From the time of European settlement, a theme in Australian art has been the natural landscape,[259] seen for example in the works of Albert Namatjira,[264] Arthur Streeton and others associated with the Heidelberg School,[259] and Arthur Boyd.[265]



Sunlight Sweet by Australian landscape artist Arthur Streeton.

The country's landscape remains a source of inspiration for Australian modernist artists; it has been depicted in acclaimed works by the likes of Sidney Nolan,[266] Fred Williams,[267] Sydney Long,[268] and Clifton Pugh.[269] Australian artists influenced by modern American and European art include cubist Grace Crowley,[270] surrealist James Gleeson,[271] and pop artist Martin Sharp.[272] Contemporary Indigenous Australian art is the only art movement of international significance to emerge from Australia[273][274] and "the last great art movement of the 20th century";[275] its exponents have included Emily Kngwarreye.[276][277] Art critic Robert Hughes has written several influential books about Australian history and art, and was described as the "world's most famous art critic" by *The New York Times*.[278] The National Gallery of Australia and state galleries maintain Australian and overseas collections.[279] Australia has one of the world's highest attendances of art galleries and museums per head of population—far more than Britain or America.[280]

Many of Australia's performing arts companies receive funding through the federal government's Australia Council.[281] There is a symphony orchestra in each state,[282] and a national opera company, Opera Australia,[283] well-known for its famous soprano Joan Sutherland.[284] At the turn of the 19th to 20th century, Nellie Melba was one of the world's leading opera singers.[285] Ballet and dance are represented by The Australian Ballet and various state companies. Each state has a publicly funded theatre company.[286][287][288]

Australian literature has also been influenced by the landscape; the works of writers such as Banjo Paterson, Henry Lawson, and Dorothea Mackellar captured the experience of the Australian bush.[289] The character of the nation's colonial past, as represented in early literature, is popular with modern Australians.[259] In 1973, Patrick White was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature,[290] the first Australian to have achieved this.[291] Australian winners of the Man Booker Prize have included Peter Carey and Thomas Keneally;[292] David Williamson, David Malouf, and J. M. Coetzee, who recently became an Australian citizen, are also renowned writers,[293] and Les Murray is regarded as "one of the leading poets of his generation".[294]



Performance of Aboriginal song and dance in the Australian National Maritime Museum in Sydney

Media

Main articles: Television in Australia, Cinema of Australia, Media of Australia, Australian literature, and Music of Australia

The Australian cinema industry began with the 1906 release of *The Story of the Kelly Gang*, which is regarded as being the world's first feature-length film;[295] but both Australian feature film production and the distribution of British-made features declined dramatically after World War I as American studios and distributors monopolised the industry,[296] and by the 1930s around 95 per cent of the feature films screened in Australia were produced in Hollywood. By the late 1950s feature film production in Australia had effectively ceased and there were no all-Australian feature films made in the decade between 1959 and 1969.[297]

Thanks to initiatives by the Gorton and Whitlam federal governments, the New Wave of Australian cinema of the 1970s brought provocative and successful films, some exploring the nation's colonial past, such as *Picnic at Hanging Rock* and *Breaker Morant*,[298] while the so-called "Ocker" genre produced several highly successful urban-based comedy features including *The Adventures of Barry McKenzie* and *Alvin Purple*.[299][300][301] Later hits included *Mad Max* and *Gallipoli*.[302][303] More recent successes included *Shine* and *Rabbit-Proof Fence*.[304][305] Notable Australian actors include Judith Anderson,[306] Errol Flynn,[307] Nicole Kidman, Hugh Jackman, Heath Ledger, Geoffrey Rush, and Cate Blanchett—current joint director of the Sydney Theatre Company.[308][309]

Australia has two public broadcasters (the Australian Broadcasting Corporation and the multicultural Special Broadcasting Service), three commercial television networks, several pay-TV services,[310] and numerous public, non-profit television and radio stations. Each major city has at least one daily newspaper,[310] and there are two national daily newspapers, *The Australian* and *The Australian Financial Review*.[310] In 2010, Reporters Without Borders placed Australia 18th on a list of 178 countries ranked by press freedom, behind New Zealand (8th) but ahead of the United Kingdom (19th) and United States (20th).[311] This relatively low ranking is primarily because of the limited diversity of commercial media ownership in Australia;[312] most print media

are under the control of News Corporation and Fairfax Media.[313]

Cuisine

Main article: Australian cuisine

The food of Indigenous Australians was largely influenced by the area in which they lived. Most tribal groups subsisted on a simple hunter-gatherer diet, hunting native game and fish and collecting native plants and fruit. The general term for native Australian flora and fauna used as a source of food is bush tucker.[314][315] The first settlers introduced British food to the continent[316] which much of what is now considered typical Australian food is based on the Sunday roast has become an enduring tradition for many Australians.[317] Since the beginning of the 20th century, food in Australia has increasingly been influenced by immigrants to the nation, particularly from Southern European and Asian cultures.[316][317] Australian wine is produced in 60 distinct production areas totaling approximately 160,000 hectares, mainly in the southern, cooler parts of the country. The wine regions in each of these states produce different wine varieties and styles that take advantage of local climates and soil types. The predominant varieties are Shiraz, Cabernet Sauvignon, Chardonnay, Merlot, Sémillon, Pinot noir, Riesling, and Sauvignon blanc.[318][319][320][203][321][322] In 1995, an Australian red wine, Penfolds Grange, won the Wine Spectator award for Wine of the Year, the first time a wine from outside France or California achieved this distinction.[323]

Sport

Main article: Sport in Australia

Around 24 per cent Australians over the age of 15 regularly participate in organised sporting activities in Australia.[202] Australia has strong international teams in cricket, field hockey, netball, rugby league, and rugby union, having been Olympic or world champions at least twice in each sport in the last 25 years for both men and women where applicable.[325][326][327][328][329][330][331][332] Australia is also powerful in track cycling, rowing, and swimming, having consistently been in the top-five medal-winners at Olympic or World Championship level since 2000.[333][334][335] Swimming is the strongest of these sports; Australia is the second-most prolific medal winner in the sport in Olympic history.[336][337][338]



Cricket has been an important part of Australia's sporting culture since the 19th century.[324]

Some of Australia's most internationally well-known and successful sportspeople are swimmers Dawn Fraser, Murray Rose, Shane Gould, and Ian Thorpe; sprinters Shirley Strickland, Betty Cuthbert, and Cathy Freeman;[339] tennis players Rod Laver, Roy Emerson, Ken Rosewall, Evonne Goolagong, and Margaret Court; cricketers Donald Bradman and Shane Warne; three-time Formula One world champion Jack Brabham; five-time motorcycle grand prix world champion Mick Doohan; golfers Greg Norman and Karrie Webb;[340] cyclist Hubert Opperman; and prodigious billiards player Walter Lindrum.[341] Nationally, other popular sports include Australian rules football, horse racing, squash, surfing, soccer, and motor racing. The annual Melbourne Cup horse race and the Sydney to Hobart yacht race attract intense interest.

Australia has participated in every summer Olympics of the modern era,[342] and every Commonwealth Games.[343] Australia hosted the 1956 Summer Olympics in Melbourne and the 2000 Summer Olympics in Sydney,[344] and has ranked among the top six medal-takers since 2000.[345] Australia has also hosted the 1938,

1962, 1982, 2006 Commonwealth Games and will host the 2018 Commonwealth Games.[346] Other major international events held in Australia include the Australian Open tennis grand slam tournament, international cricket matches, and the Australian Formula One Grand Prix. Sydney hosted the 2003 Rugby World Cup and the annual Australia–New Zealand Bledisloe Cup is keenly watched. The highest-rating television programs include sports telecasts such as the summer Olympics, FIFA World Cup, Rugby League State of Origin, and the grand finals of the National Rugby League and Australian Football League.[347] Skiing in Australia began in the 1860s and snow sports take place in the Australian Alps and parts of Tasmania.

See also

- Outline of Australia
- Index of Australia-related articles

Notes

1. ^ Australia also has a royal anthem, "God Save the Queen (or King)", which is played in the presence of a member of the Royal family when they are in Australia. In all other appropriate contexts, the national anthem of Australia, "Advance Australia Fair", is played.[1]
2. ^ ***a*** ***b*** English does not have *de jure* status.[2]
3. ^ ***a*** ***b*** There are minor variations from these three time zones, see Time in Australia.
4. ^ ***a*** ***b*** Australia describes the body of water south of its mainland as the Southern Ocean, rather than the Indian Ocean as defined by the International Hydrographic Organization (IHO). In 2000, a vote of IHO member nations defined the term "Southern Ocean" as applying only to the waters between Antarctica and 60 degrees south latitude.[11]
5. ^ The Oxford English Dictionary records a first occurrence in 1908, in the form *Oss*. *Oz* is often taken as an oblique reference to the fictional Land of Oz in the film *The Wizard of Oz* (1939), based on L. Frank Baum's novel *The Wonderful Wizard of Oz* (1900).[18] Australians' "image of Australia as a 'Land of Oz' is not new, and dedication to it runs deep".[19] The spelling *Oz* is likely to have been influenced by the 1939 film, though the pronunciation was probably always with a /z/, as it is also for *Aussie*, sometimes spelt *Ozzie*.[20] The Baz Luhrmann film *Australia* (2008) makes repeated reference to *The Wizard of Oz*, which appeared just before the wartime action of *Australia*. Some critics have even speculated that Baum was inspired by Australia, in naming the *Land of Oz*: "In *Ozma of Oz* (1907) Dorothy gets back to Oz as the result of a storm at sea while she and Uncle Henry are traveling by ship to Australia. So, like Australia, Oz is somewhere to the west of California. Like Australia, Oz is an island continent. Like Australia, Oz has inhabited regions bordering on a great desert. One might almost imagine that Baum intended Oz to be Australia, or perhaps a magical land in the center of the great Australian desert."[21]

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1. ^ It's an Honour – Symbols – Australian National Anthem (http://www.itsanhonour.gov.au/symbols/anthem.cfm) and DFAT – "The Australian National Anthem" (http://www.dfat.gov.au/facts/nat_anthem.html) ; "National Symbols" (http://web.archive.org/web/20070611101901/http://www.aph.gov.au/library/handbook/40thparl/national+symbols.pdf) . *Parliamentary Handbook of the Commonwealth of Australia* (29th ed.). 2002 (updated 2005). http://web.archive.org/web/20070611101901/http://www.aph.gov.au/library/handbook/40thparl/national+symbols.pdf. Retrieved 7 June 2007.
2. ^ ***a*** ***b*** "Pluralist Nations: Pluralist Language Policies?" (http://www.immi.gov.au/media/publications/multicultural/confer/04/speech18b.htm) . *1995 Global Cultural Diversity Conference Proceedings, Sydney*. Department of Immigration and Citizenship. http://www.immi.gov.au/media/publications/multicultural/confer/04/speech18b.htm. Retrieved 11 January 2009. "English has no de jure status but it is so entrenched as the common language that it is de facto the official language as well as the national language."
3. ^ The Macquarie Dictionary
4. ^ *Collins English Dictionary*. Bishopbriggs, Glasgow: HarperCollins. 2009. p. 18. ISBN 978-0-00-786171-2.

Brunei

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Brunei /bruːˈnaɪ/, officially the **Nation of Brunei, the Abode of Peace**[8] (Malay: *Negara Brunei Darussalam*, Jawi: نڬارا بروني دارالسلام), is a sovereign state located on the north coast of the island of Borneo, in Southeast Asia. Apart from its coastline with the South China Sea, it is completely surrounded by the state of Sarawak, Malaysia, and it is separated into two parts by Limbang, which is part of Sarawak. It is the only sovereign state completely on the island of Borneo, with the remainder of the island belonging to Malaysia and Indonesia. Brunei's population was 401,890 in July 2011.[9]

The official national history claims that Brunei can trace its beginnings to the 7th century, when it was a subject state of the Srivijayan empire under the name P'o-li. It later became a vassal state of Majapahit empire before converting to Islam in the 15th century. At the peak of its empire, the sultanate had control that extended over the coastal regions of modern-day Sarawak and Sabah, the Sulu archipelago, and the islands off the northwest tip of Borneo. The thalassocracy was visited by Ferdinand Magellan in 1521 and fought the Castille War in 1578 against Spain. Its empire began to decline with the forced ceding of Sarawak to James Brooke and the ceding of Sabah to the British North Borneo Chartered Company. After the loss of Limbang, Brunei finally became a British protectorate in 1888, receiving a resident in 1906. In the years after the Japanese wartime occupation during World War II, it formalised a constitution and fought an armed rebellion.[10] Brunei regained its independence from the United Kingdom on 1 January 1984. Economic growth during the 1970s and 1990s, averaging 56% from 1999 to 2008, has transformed Brunei Darussalam into a newly industrialised country.

Brunei has the second highest Human Development Index among the South East Asia nations after Singapore, and is classified as a developed country.[11] According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), Brunei is ranked 5th in the world by gross domestic product per capita at purchasing power parity. Forbes also ranks Brunei as the fifth richest nation out of 182 nations due to its extensive petroleum and natural gas fields.[12]

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Negara Brunei Darussalam
نڬارا بروني دارالسلام



Flag



Crest

Motto: "الدائمون المحسنون بالهدى" "*Sentiasa membuat kebajikan dengan petunjuk Allah*"
"Always in service with God's guidance" (translation)

Anthem: *Allah Peliharakan Sultan*
God Bless the Sultan



Location of **Brunei** (red)

Capital (and largest city)	Bandar Seri Begawan 4°53.417′N 114°56.533′E
Official language(s)	Bahasa Melayu (Malay)[1][2]
Recognised national languages	Melayu Brunei (Kedayan)
Official scripts	Malay alphabet, Jawi alphabet[3]
Demonym	Bruneian
Government	Unitary Islamic absolute monarchy
- Sultan	Hassanal Bolkiah
- Crown Prince	Al-Muhtadee Billah
- Prime Minister	Hassanal Bolkiah

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Legislature	Legislative Council
Formation	
- Sultanate	14th century
- British protectorate	1888
- Independence	1 January 1984
Area	
- Total	5,765 km^2 (172nd) 2,226 sq mi
- Water (%)	8.6
Population	
- 2011 estimate	401,890[4] (174th)
- 2001 census	332,844
- Density	67.3/km^2 (134th) 174.4/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$21.237 billion[5] (122nd)
- Per capita	$49,719[5] (5th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$16.313 billion[5] (166th)
- Per capita	$38,192[5] (26th)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.838[6] (very high) (33rd)
Currency	Brunei dollar (BND)
Time zone	(UTC+8[7])
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	BN
Internet TLD	.bn[7]
Calling code	+673[1]

1 Also 080 from East Malaysia

Etymology

According to legend, Brunei was founded by Awang Alak Betatar. His move from Garang, a place in the Temburong District[13] to the Brunei river estuary led to the discovery of Brunei. According to legend, upon landing he exclaimed "*Baru nah!*" (loosely translating as "that's it!" or "there"), from which the name *Brunei* was derived.[14]

It was renamed *Barunai* in the 14th century, possibly influenced by the Sanskrit word *varuṇ* (वरुण), meaning either "ocean" or mythological "regent of ocean." The word *Borneo* is of the same origin. In the country's full name *Negara Brunei Darussalam*, *Darussalam* (Arabic: دار السلام) means "Abode of Peace", while *Negara* means "country" in Malay.

History

Main article: History of Brunei

Early History

In the absence of any other evidence scholars have created an early history of Brunei that is mainly based on flexible interpretations of Chinese texts. This early part reads: Chinese records from the sixth century mention a state called P'o-li on the northwest coast of Borneo.[15] In the seventh century, Chinese and Arab accounts state a place called Vijayapura, which was thought to be founded by members of the royal family of Funan.[16] They were believed to have landed on the northwest coast of Borneo with some of their followers. They then captured P'o-li and renamed the territory 'Vijayapura' (meaning 'victory'). In 977, Chinese records started to use Po-ni instead of Vijayapura to refer to Brunei.[17] In 1225 a Chinese official named Chua Ju-Kua reported that Brunei has 100 warships to protect its trade and that there was a lot of gold in the kingdom.[18] Another report in 1280 described Po-ni as controlling large parts of Borneo Island (modern day Sabah and Sarawak, Sulu and some parts of the Philippines. In the fourteenth century, Po-ni became a vassal state of Majapahit, and had to pay an annual payment of 40 katis of camphor. Po-ni was attacked and looted of its treasure and gold by the Sulus in 1369. A fleet from Majapahit succeeded in driving away the Sulus but Po-ni became much weaker after the attack.[19] A Chinese report of 1371 described Po-ni as poor and totally controlled by Majapahit.[20]

The power of the Sultanate of Brunei was at its peak between the 15th and 17th centuries, with its power extending from northern Borneo to the southern Philippines.[4]

By the 16th century, Islam was firmly rooted in Brunei, and the country had built one of its biggest mosques. In 1578, Alonso Beltrán, a Spanish traveler described it as being five stories tall and built on the water.[21]

War with Spain and decline

European influence gradually brought an end to this regional power, as Brunei entered a period of decline compounded by internal strife over royal succession. Piracy was also detrimental to the kingdom.[4] Spain declared it war in 1578, attacking and capturing Brunei's capital at the time, Kota Batu. This was achieved as a result in part of the assistance rendered to them by two Bruneian noblemen, Pengiran Seri Lela and Pengiran Seri Ratna. The former had travelled to Manila to offer Brunei as a tributary of Spain for help to recover the throne usurped by his brother, Saiful Rijal.[22] The Spanish agreed that if they succeeded in conquering Brunei, Pengiran Seri Lela would indeed become the Sultan, while Pengiran Seri Ratna would be the new Bendahara. In March 1578, the Spanish fleet, led by De Sande himself, acting as Capitán-General, started their journey towards Brunei. The expedition consisted of 400 Spaniards, 1,500 Filipino natives and 300 Borneans.[23] The campaign was one of many, which also included action in Mindanao and Sulu.[24][25]

The Spanish succeeded in invading the capital on 16 April 1578, with the help of Pengiran Seri Lela and Pengiran Seri Ratna. The Sultan Saiful Rijal and Paduka Seri Begawan Sultan Abdul Kahar were forced to flee to Meragang then to Jerudong. In Jerudong, they made plans to chase the conquering army away from Brunei. The Spanish suffered heavy losses due to a cholera or dysentery outbreak.[26][27] They were so weakened by the illness that they decided to abandon Brunei to return to Manila on 26 June 1578, after just 72 days. Before doing so, they burned the mosque, a high structure with a five-tier roof.[28]

Pengiran Seri Lela died in August–September 1578, probably from the same illness that had afflicted his Spanish allies, although there was suspicion he could have been poisoned by the ruling Sultan. Seri Lela's daughter left with the Spanish and went on to marry a Christian Tagalog, named Agustín de Legazpi de Tondo.[29]

The local Brunei accounts[15] differ greatly from the generally accepted view of events. The *Castilian War* entering the national conscience as a heroic episode, with the Spaniards being driven out by Bendahara Sakam, supposedly a brother of the ruling Sultan, and a thousand native warriors. This version, nevertheless, is disputed by most historians and considered a folk-hero recollection, probably created decades or centuries after.[30]

Notwithstanding the retreat, Brunei lost a number of territories to Spain, including the island of Luzon.[31]

A civil war was fought from 1660 to 1673.

British Intervention

The decline of the Bruneian Empire culminated in the 19th century, when Brunei lost much of its territory to the White Rajahs of Sarawak, resulting in its current small landmass and separation into two parts.[32] The Treaty of Protection which was negotiated by Sir Hugh Low was signed into effect on 17 September 1888. This enables Britain control over Brunei's external affairs. This treaty was signed after Sultan Hashim, the Sultan at that time, appealed to the British to stop partitioning and annexing Brunei, as what James Brooke was doing since 1846.[33] One of the terms in the agreement included that the Sultan "could not cede or lease any territory to foreign powers without British consent." When James Brooke later annexed the Pandaruan district, however the British did not take any action against him as they regarded James Brooke as not being a foreigner.

The British also attacked Brunei on July 1846 due to disagreement of on who was the rightful Sultan.[34] Brunei was a British protectorate from 1888 to 1984.[4] British Residents were introduced in Brunei under the Supplementary Protectorate Agreement in 1906.[35] The Residents were to advise the Sultan on all matters of administration. However, the Resident assumed more executive control than the Sultan. The Residential system ended in 1959.[36]

Discovery of Oil

Oil was discovered in 1929 after several fruitless attempts.[37] Two men, F.F. Marriot and T.G. Cochrane smelled oil near the Seria river in late 1926.[38] They informed a geophysicist which then conducted a survey there. In 1927, gas seepages were reported in the area. Seria Well Number One (S-1) was drilled on 12 July 1928. Oil was struck at 297 meters on 5 April 1929. Seria Well Number 2 was drilled on 19 August 1929 and is still producing oil to this date.[39] Oil production increased considerably in the 1930s. In 1940, oil production was at more than six million barrels.[39] The British Malayan Petroleum Company (now Brunei Shell Petroleum Company) was formed on 22 July 1922.[40]

The first offshore well was drilled in 1957.[41]

Japanese Occupation

Brunei was occupied by Japan from 1941 to 1945 during World War II. The Japanese landed 10,000 men at Kuala Belait on 16 December 1941. The British in Brunei were easily defeated due to their unpreparedness and the fact that they were outnumbered. After capturing Kuala Belait, the Japanese army moved on to Brunei Town (now Bandar Seri Begawan) and captured it on 22 December 1941, capturing the police headquarters there. Brunei was liberated on 10 June 1945 under Operation Oboe Six.[42][43]

Post World War II

After World War II, a new government was formed in Brunei under the British Military Administration (BMA). It consisted mainly of Australian officers and servicemen.[44] The administration of Brunei was handed over to the Civil Administration on 6 July 1945. The Brunei State Council was also revived that year.[42] The BMA was also tasked to revive the Bruneian economy, which was extensively damaged by the Japanese during their occupation. They were also tasked with putting out the fires started on the wells of Seria, which was started by the Japanese

prior to their defeat.[42] Before 1941, the Governor of the Straits Settlements based in Singapore was responsible for the duties of British High Commissioner for Brunei, Sarawak, and North Borneo (now Sabah).[45] The first British High Commissioner for Brunei was the Governor of Sarawak, Sir Charles Ardon Clarke. The Barisan Pemuda ("Youth Movement") (abbreviated as BARIP) was the first political party to be formed in Brunei. It was formed on 12 April 1946. The aims of the party were to "preserve the sovereignty of the Sultan and the country, and to defend the rights of the Malays."[46] BARIP also contributed to the formation of the country's National Anthem. The party was dissolved in 1948 due to inactivity.

In 1959, a new constitution was written declaring Brunei a self-governing state, while its foreign affairs, security, and defense remained the responsibility of the United Kingdom.[9] There was a small rebellion against the monarchy in 1962, which was suppressed with help from the United Kingdom. This event became known as the Brunei Revolt and was partly responsible for the failure to create the North Borneo Federation. The rebellion partially affected Brunei's decision to opt out of the Malaysian Federation.[9]

Brunei gained its independence from the United Kingdom on 1 January 1984.[9] The official National Day, which celebrates the country's independence, however, is held on 23 February due to tradition.

Writing of the Constitution

In July 1953, Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddien III formed a seven-member committee named Tujuh Serangkai to find out the citizens' views regarding a written constitution for Brunei. In May 1954, a meeting attended by the Sultan, the Resident and the High Commissioner was held to discuss the findings of the committee. In March 1959 Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddien III led a delegation to London to discuss the proposed Constitution.[47] The British delegation was led by Sir Alan Lennox-Boyd who was the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The British Government later accepted the draft constitution. On 29 September 1959, the Constitution Agreement was signed in Bandar Seri Begawan. The agreement was signed by Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddien III and Sir Robert Scott, the Commissioner-General for Southeast Asia. Some of the points of the constitution were:[35]

- The Sultan was made the Supreme Head of State.
- Brunei was responsible for its internal administration.
- The British Government was now responsible for foreign and defence affairs only.
- The post of Resident was abolished and replaced by a British High Commissioner.

Five councils were also set up:[48]

- The Executive Council
- The Legislative Council of Brunei
- The Privy Council
- The Council Of Succession
- The State Religious Council

The National Development Plans

A series of National Development Plans were initiated by the 28th Sultan of Brunei, Omar Ali Saifuddien III.

The First National Development Plan

The First National Development plan was introduced in 1953.[49] A total sum of B$100 million was approved by the Brunei State Council for the plan. E.R. Bevington from the Colonial Office in Fiji.[50] A $14 million Gas Plant was built under the plan. In 1954, survey and exploration work were undertaken by the Brunei Shell Petroluem on

both offshore and onshore fields. By 1956, production reached 114,700 bpd. Developments on education were also made. In 1952, a written policy on education was made.[50] By 1958, expenditure on education totaled at $4 million.[50] Communications were also improved with new roads built and and reconstruction works at Berakas Airport being completed at 1954.[51]

The Second National Development Plan

The second National Development Plan was launched in 1962.[51] A major oil and gas field was discovered in 1963, with this discovery, Liquefied Natural Gas became important. Developments in the oil and gas sector has continued actively and oil production has steadily increased since then.[52] The plan also saw an increase of production of meat and eggs. The fishing industry increased its output by 25% throughout the course of the plan. The Muara Deepwater Port was also constructed under the plan. Power requirements were met and studies were made to provide electricity to rural areas.[52] Efforts were made to eradicate malaria, with the help of the World Health Organisation, under the plan. Efforts were successful, bringing the down the cases of malaria from 300 cases in 1953 to only 66 cases in 1959.[53] The death rate was also brought down from 20 per thousand in 1947 to 11.3 per thousand in 1953.[53] This has been attributed to public sanitation and improvement of drainage and the provision of piped pure water to the population.[53]

Politics and government

Main article: Politics of Brunei

Brunei has a constitutional sultanate. It has a legal system based on English common law, although Islamic shariah law supersedes this in some cases.[4]

The political system in the country is governed by the constitution and the tradition of the Malay Islamic Monarchy, the concept of “Melayu Islam Beraja” (MIB). The three components of MIB cover Malay culture, Islamic religion and the political framework under the monarchy.[54]

Under Brunei's 1959 constitution, His Majesty Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan Haji Hassanal Bolkiah Mu'izzaddin Waddaulah is the head of state with full executive authority, including emergency powers which are renewed every two years, since 1962. The Sultan's role is enshrined in the national ideology known as Melayu Islam Beraja (MIB), or Malay Muslim Monarchy. The country has been under hypothetical martial law since the Brunei Revolt of 1962.[9] Hassanal Bolkiah is also the state's Prime Minister, Finance Minister and Defence Minister.[55] The Royal family retains a venerated status within the country.[9] The country also has its own parliament.



Hassanal Bolkiah, Sultan of Brunei.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Brunei

With its traditional ties with the United Kingdom, it became the 49th member of the Commonwealth immediately on the day of its independence on 1 January 1984.[56] As its first initiatives toward improved regional relations, Brunei joined ASEAN on 7 January 1984, becoming the sixth member.[57] It later joined the United Nations at the 39th Session of the United Nations General Assembly and became a full member on 21 September 1984 as a means

to achieve recognition of its sovereignty and full independence from the world community.[58] As it is an Islamic country, Brunei Darussalam became a full member of the Organisation of the Islamic Conference (now the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation) in January 1984 at the Fourth Islamic Summit held in Morocco.[59]

After its accession to the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation forum (APEC) in 1989, Brunei hosted the APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting in November 2000 and the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF) in July 2002.[60] As for other economic ties, Brunei Darussalam became an original member of the World Trade Organization (WTO) since it came into force in 1 January 1995,[61] and is a major player in BIMP-EAGA which was formed during the Inaugural Ministers' Meeting in Davao, Philippines on 24 March 1994.[62]

Brunei is recognized by every nation in the world. It shares a close relationship particularly with the Philippines and other nations such as Singapore. In April 2009, Brunei and the Philippines signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) that seeks to strengthen the bilateral cooperation of the two countries in the fields of agriculture and farm-related trade and investments.[63]

Brunei is one of many nations to lay claim to some of the disputed Spratly Islands.[64] The status of Limbang as part of Sarawak was disputed by Brunei since the area was first annexed in 1890.[65] The issue was reportedly settled in 2009, with Brunei agreeing to accept the border in exchange for Malaysia giving up claims to oil fields in Bruneian waters.[66] The government, however, denies this and says that their claim on Limbang was never dropped.[67][68]

Subdivisions

Main articles: Districts of Brunei and Mukims of Brunei

Brunei is divided into four districts (*daerah*):[69]

- Belait
- Brunei and Muara
- Temburong
- Tutong



The district of Temburong is physically separated from the rest of Brunei by part of Sarawak State (Malaysia). The districts are subdivided into 38 *mukims*.[9]

Rank	Mukim	Population	Town/Suburb/Town	District
1	Sengkurong	62,400	Jerudong and Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
2	Gadong A & Gadong B	59,610	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
3	Berakas A	57,500	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
4	Kuala Belait	35,500	Kuala Belait	Belait

Rank	Mukim	Population	Town/Suburb/Town	District
5	Seria	32,900	Seria Town (Pekan Seria)	Belait
6	Berakas B	23,400	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
7	Sungai Liang	18,100	None	Belait
8	Pengkalan Batu	approx. 15,000	None	Brunei-Muara
9	Kilanas	approx. 14,000	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
10	Kota Batu	12,600	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
11	Pekan Tutong	12,100	Pekan Tutong	Tutong
12	Mentiri	10,872	None	Brunei-Muara
13	Serasa	approx. 10,000	Muara Town (Pekan Muara)	Brunei-Muara
14	Kianggeh	8,540	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
15	Burong Pinggai Ayer	approx. 8,200	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
16	Keriam	8,000	None	Tutong
17	Lumapas	7,458	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
18	Kiudang	7,000	None	Tutong
19	Saba	approx. 6,600	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara
20	Sungai Kedayan	approx. 6,000	Bandar Seri Begawan	Brunei-Muara

Geography

Main article: Geography of Brunei


The topographic map of Brunei

Brunei is a southeast Asian country consisting of two unconnected parts with the total area of 5,765 square kilometres (2,226 sq mi). It has 161 kilometres (100 mi) of coastline next to the South China sea, and it shares a 381 km (237 mi) border with Malaysia. It has 500 square kilometres (193 sq mi) of territorial waters, and an 200 nm exclusive economic zone.[4]

77% of the population lives in the eastern part of Brunei, while only about 10,000 live in the mountainous south eastern part (the district of Temburong). The total population of Brunei Darussalam is approximately 408,000 (July 2010) of which around 150,000 live in the capital Bandar Seri Begawan.[70] Other major towns are the port town of Muara, the oil producing town of Seria and its neighboring town, Kuala Belait. In the Belait district, the Panaga area is home to large numbers of expatriates due to Royal Dutch Shell and British Army housing and recreational facilities located there.[71]

Most of Brunei is within the Borneo lowland rain forests ecoregion that covers most of the island but there are areas of mountain rain forests inland.[72]

The climate of Brunei is tropical equatorial.[4] The average annual temperature is 26.1 °C (79.0 °F), with the April–May average of 24.7 °C (76.5 °F) and the October–December average of 23.8 °C (74.8 °F).[73]

Month	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Year
Mean Maximum (°C)	25.8	24.8	27.2	27.1	27.5	27.1	28.4	28.3	28.0	26.5	24.4	24.0	**28.3**
Mean Minimum (°C)	22.1	22.0	22.5	23.9	23.9	24.7	24.1	24.3	25.3	23.1	22.2	23.6	**26.2**
Average Rainfall (mm)	277.7	138.3	113.0	200.3	239.0	214.2	228.8	215.8	257.7	319.9	329.4	343.5	**2873.9**

Economy

Main article: Economy of Brunei

This small, wealthy economy is a mixture of foreign and domestic entrepreneurship, government regulation, welfare measures, and village tradition. Crude oil and natural gas production account for about 90% of its GDP.[9] About 167,000 barrels of oil are produced everyday, making Brunei the fourth largest producer of oil in South-east Asia.[9] It also produces approximately 895 million cubic feet of liquified natural gas per day, making Brunei the ninth-largest exporter of the substance in the world.[9] Substantial income from overseas investment supplements income from domestic production. Most of these investments are made by the Brunei Investment Agency, an arm of the Ministry of Finance.[9] The government provides for all medical services[74] and subsidizes rice[75] and housing.[9] The national airline, Royal Brunei, is trying to make Brunei a modest hub for international travel between Europe and Australia/New Zealand. Central to this strategy is the position that the airline maintains at London Heathrow Airport. It holds a daily slot at the highly capacity-controlled airport, which it serves from Bandar Seri Begawan via Dubai. The airline also has services to major Asian destinations including Shanghai, Bangkok, Singapore and Manilla.[*citation needed*] Brunei is increasingly importing from other countries.[76]

Brunei's leaders are very concerned that steadily increased integration in the world economy will undermine internal social cohesion although it became a more prominent player by serving as chairman for the 2000 Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) forum. Stated plans for the future include upgrading the labour force, reducing unemployment, which currently stands at 6%,[77] strengthening the banking and tourism sectors, and, in general, further widening the economic base.[78]

To achieve its target for food self-sufficiency, Brunei renamed its Brunei Darussalam Rice 1 to Laila Rice during the launch of the "Padi Planting Towards Achieving Self-Sufficiency of Rice Production in Brunei Darussalam" ceremony at the Wasan padi fields in April 2009.[79] In August 2009, the Royal Family reaped the first few Laila padi stalks, after years of multiple attempts to boost local rice production, a goal which was envisioned about half a century ago.[80] In July 2009 Brunei launched its national halal branding scheme, Brunei Halal, with an aim to export to foreign markets.[81]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Brunei

The population of Brunei in July 2011 was 401,890 of which 76% live in urban areas. The average life expectancy is 76.17 years. In 2004, 66.3% of the population were Malay, 11.2% are Chinese, 3.4% are Indigenous, with

smaller groups making up the rest.[4]

The official language of Brunei is Malay. There are calls to expand the use of the language in Brunei.[82] The principal spoken language is Melayu Brunei (Brunei Malay, AKA Kedayan). Brunei is rather divergent from standard Malay and the rest of the Malay dialects, being about 80% cognate with standard Malay, and is mostly mutually unintelligible with it.[1] English and Chinese are also widely spoken[83][84] and there is a relatively large expatriate community.[85] Bahasa Rojak, often spoken by the media and the public, is known as a "mixed language" and considered detrimental to normal Malay.[86] Other languages spoken include Kedayan, Tutong, Murut, Dusun and Iban.[83]



Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddin Mosque at night.

Islam is the official religion of Brunei,[4] and two-thirds of the population adheres to Islam. Other faiths practiced are Buddhism (13%, mainly by the Chinese) and Christianity (10%).[4] Freethinkers, mostly Chinese, form about 7% of the population. Although most of them practice some form of religion with elements of Buddhism, Confucianism and Taoism, they prefer to present themselves as having professed no religion officially, hence regarded as atheists in official censuses. Followers of indigenous religions are about 2% of the population.[87]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Brunei

The culture of Brunei is predominantly Malay (reflecting its ethnicity), with heavy influences from Islam, but is seen as more conservative than Malaysia.[88]

Brunei's culture is mainly derived from the Old Malay World, which encompassed the Malay Archipelago and from this stemmed what is known as the Malay Civilisation. Based on historical facts, various cultural elements and foreign civilisations had a hand in influencing the culture of this country. Thus, the influence of culture can be traced to four dominating periods of animism, Hinduism, Islam and the West. However, it was Islam that managed to wind its roots deeply into the culture of Brunei hence it became a way of life and adopted as the state's ideology and philosophy.[89]

As a Sharia country, the sale and public consumption of alcohol is banned.[90] Non-Muslims are allowed to bring in a limited amount of alcohol from their point of embarkation overseas for their own private consumption.[54]

Titles[91]

Royalty: [92]

- '**Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan**' is the official title of the Sultan of Brunei. The present Sultan's official name (with full title) is "Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan Haji Hassanal Bolkiah Muizzaddin Waddaulah, Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan Negara Brunei Darussalam"
- With the style of: - **His Majesty.**

- **Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Raja Isteri**, i.e. Raja Isteri, with the style of: - **Her Majesty**.
- **Duli Yang Teramat Mulia Pengiran Isteri**, i.e. Princess with the style of:- **Her Royal Highness**.
- **Duli Yang Teramat Mulia Paduka Seri Duli Pengiran Muda Mahkota**, i.e. Crown Prince with the style of:- **His Royal Highness**.
- **Yang Teramat Mulia Paduka Seri Duli Pengiran Muda**, i.e. Prince (younger sons and grandsons of the Sultan, in the male line) with the style of:- **His Royal Highness.**
- **Pengiran Anak Istri**: a title used for the senior and royal wives of a Pengiran Muda.
- **Yang Teramat Mulia Paduka Seri Duli Pengiran Anak Puteri**, i.e. Princess (Daughters and granddaughters of the Sultan, in the male line) with the style of:- **Her Royal Highness.**
- **Paduka Seri Pengiran Anak Puteri**: style used for the daughters of a Sultan born of Royal wives.
- **Yang Amat Mulia Duli Pengiran Anak,** (Grandsons & Granddaughters of the Sultan, being the sons of daughters/being the daughters of daughters)
- **Yang Amat Mulia (Y.A.M.)**: the style used for the daughter of a Sultan by a senior wife, the children of a Sultan by his junior wives, the children of the Pangiran Shahbandar, Maharaja Laila, Paduka Tuan, Maharaja Adinda, Cheteria Besar, Cheteria Pengalasan and Cheteria Damit.
- **Yang Teramat Mulia (Y.T.M.)**: the style used for the children of a Sultan by a Royal wife, the children of the Sri Paduka Duli Pangiran Bendahara, the di-Gadong, the Pemancha and the Temenggong.

WAZIRs: [93]

- **Vizier(or Wazir)**: the highest noble officials, ranking immediately after the Sultan.

- **Duli Pengiran Perdana Wazir Sahibul Himmah Wal-Waqar**: Chief Vizier - the highest Vizier title, usually held by a senior member of the Royal family.
- **Duli Pengiran Bendahara Paduka Seri Maharaja Permaisuara**: the full style for one of the high Vizier title, usually held by a senior member of the Royal family.
- **Pengiran DiGadong Sahibul Mal**: the full style for one of the senior Vizier titles, frequently held by members of the Royal family.
- **Duli Pengiran di-Gadong Sahib ul-Mal ul-Mulk ul-Adli**: the full style for one of the senior Vizier titles, frequently held by members of the Royal family.
- **Duli Pengiran Pemancha Sahib ul-Rai' wa ul-Mushuarat**: the full style for one of the senior Vizier titles, frequently held by members of the Royal family.
- **Duli Pengiran Shahbandar Sahib ul-Bandar Bait ul-Karib**: the full style for one of the Vizier titles of the second rank, frequently held by members of the Royal family.

OTHERS (Title by inheritance)

- **Pengiran**: title of married male descendants in the male line of a Sultan or great nobleman, or for any female descendant in the male line who has married a man of that rank.[94]
- **Awangku** - hereditary title for the unmarried male children of a **Pengiran**. They may later claim the title Pengiran since they are also related to the Brunei Sultanate. This, however can only be done after he gets the approval of the elders and is considered as matured enough to carry the title, or after which he has married.
- **Dayangku** - hereditary title for the unmarried female children of a **Pengiran** (retained after marriage if the husband is a commoner).

SALUTATIONS [95]

- **Awang**: style of address originally used for lesser nobles but now used for addressing men in Brunei and it is equivalent to **Mr.**.
- **Dayang**: style of address originally used for lesser nobles but now used for addressing women in Brunei and it is equivalent to **Miss**.
- **Haji** (or **Hajah** for female) can be used by people who have completed the pilgrimage of Hajj to Mecca.

This title is abbreviated as "Hj." or "Hjh." (before the name for males/females).

- **Dato** : part of the title for non-nobles, now also used for certain higher classes of the Orders of Chivalry, equivalent to Knight Commander.
- **Dato Paduka**: the most common title awarded in Brunei, of which it is a class of the Darjah Seri Paduka Mahkota Brunei Yang Amat Mulia (The Most Honourable Order of Seri Paduka Mahkota Brunei). Other versions of Dato Paduka includes Dato Seri Paduka, Dato Paduka Seri, Dato Laila Utama, Dato Paduka Seri Laila Jasa and others. These title awards are granted by His Majesty the Sultan of Brunei, and the titles are non-hereditary.[96]
- **Datin**: The wife of a Dato Paduka, except when the recipient is a female, whereby she would be addressed as **Datin Paduka.**
- **Menteri** (or Mantri): **Minister**, ranking below vizier (Wazir).
- **Pehin**: a non-noble official of high rank.
- **Orang Kaya**: literally "rich man", part of a title for non-nobles.
- **Tuan/Puan Yang Terutama** (T.Y.T.): **His/Her Excellency** (is the style of a state Governor - a title for serving Ambassadors).

Media

Media in Brunei are extremely pro-government. The country has been given "Not Free" status by Freedom House; press criticism of the government and monarchy is rare.[97] Nonetheless, the press is not overtly hostile toward alternative viewpoints and is not restricted to publishing only articles regarding the government. The government allowed a printing and publishing company, Brunei Press PLC, to form in 1953. It continues to print the leading English daily *Borneo Bulletin*. This paper began as a weekly community paper, became the country's daily paper in 1990, and "remains the foremost source of information on local and foreign affairs."[54] Apart from The *Borneo Bulletin*, there is also the *Media Permata*, the local Malay newspaper which is circulated daily. *The Brunei Times* is another English independent newspaper published in Brunei Darussalam.[98]

The Brunei government owns and operates six television channels with the introduction of digital TV using DVB-T (RTB 1, RTB 2, RTB 3 (HD), RTB 4, RTB 5 and RTB New Media (Game portal) and five radio stations (National FM, Pilihan FM, Nur Islam FM, Harmony FM and Pelangi FM). A private company has made cable television available (Astro-Kristal) as well as one private radio station, Kristal FM.[54] It also has an online campus radio station, *UBD FM* that streams from the its first university, *Universiti Brunei Darussalam*.[99]

Defence

Main article: Royal Brunei Armed Forces

Brunei maintains three infantry battalions stationed around the country.[9] The Brunei navy has several "Ijtihad"-class patrol boats purchased from a German manufacturer . The United Kingdom also maintains a base in Seria, the center of the oil industry in Brunei. A Gurkha battalion consisting of 1500 personnel is stationed there.[9] United Kingdom military personnel are stationed there under a defence agreement signed between the two countries.[9]

Infrastructure

Further information: Transport in Brunei

The major population centres in the country are linked by a network of 2,800 kilometres of road. The 135 km

highway from Muara Town to Kuala Belait is being upgraded to a dual carriageway.[54]

Brunei is accessible by air, sea and land transport. Brunei International Airport is the main entry point to the country. Royal Brunei Airlines[100] is the national carrier. There is another airfield, the Anduki Airfield, located in Seria. The ferry terminal at Muara services regular connections to Labuan (Malaysia). Speedboats provide passenger and goods transportation to the Temburong district.[101] The main highway running across Brunei is the Tutong-Muara Highway. The country's road network is well developed. Brunei has one main sea port located at Muara.[9]

With one private car for every 2.09 persons, Brunei Darussalam has one of the highest car ownership rates in the world. This has been attributed to the absence of a comprehensive transport system, low import tax and low unleaded petrol price of B$0.53 per litre.[54]

Healthcare in Brunei is charged at B$1 per consultation for citizens.[102] A health center run by Brunei Shell Petroleum is located in Panaga. For medical assistance not available in the country, citizens are sent overseas at the government's expense.[102]

The largest hospital in Brunei is Raja Isteri Pengiran Anak Saleha Hospital (RIPAS) hospital, which has 538 beds,[102] is situated in the country's capital Bandar Seri Begawan. There are two private medical centres, Gleneagles JPMC Sdn Bhd .[103] and Jerudong Park Medical Centre. The Health Promotion Centre opened in November 2008 and serves to educate the public on the importance of having a healthy lifestyle.[104]

There is currently no medical school in Brunei, and Bruneians wishing to study to become doctors must attend university overseas. However, the Institute of Medicines had been introduced at the Universiti Brunei Darussalam and a new building has been built for the faculty. The building, including research lab facilities, was completed in 2009. There has been a School of Nursing since 1951.[105] 58 nurse managers were appointed in RIPAS to improve service and provide better medical care.[106] In December 2008, The nursing college merged with the Institute of Medicines at the Universiti Brunei Darussalam to produce more nurses and midwives.[107] It is now called the PAPRSB (Pengiran Anak Puteri Rashidah Sa'datul Bolkiah) Institute of Health Sciences.[108]

See also

- Outline of Brunei
- Index of Brunei-related articles

- Astronomy in Brunei
- Brooketon
- Commonwealth of Nations
- Communications in Brunei
- Girl Guides in Brunei
- Hospitals in Brunei
- Istana Nurul Iman (Sultan's Palace)
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- Media of Brunei
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- Scouting in Brunei
- Sport in Brunei
- Transport in Brunei
- Universiti Brunei Darussalam

Notes and references

1. ^ ***a b*** The Prime Minister's Office of Brunei Darussalam (http://www.pmo.gov.bn/)

Monarchy of Australia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Monarchy of Australia** is a form of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign of Australia. The monarchy is a constitutional one modelled on the Westminster style of parliamentary government, incorporating features unique to the Constitution of Australia.

The present monarch is Elizabeth II, styled Queen of Australia, who has reigned since 6 February 1952. She is represented in Australia by the Governor-General, in accordance with the Australian Constitution and Letters Patent from the Queen.[1][2] In each of the states, the monarch is represented by a governor, appointed directly by the Queen on the advice of each of her respective state governments.

The Australian monarch, besides reigning in Australia, separately serves as monarch for each of fifteen other Commonwealth countries known as Commonwealth realms. This developed from the former colonial relationship of these countries to Britain, but they are now independent of each other and are legally distinct.

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Queen of Australia

MONARCHY
FEDERAL



Coat of arms of Australia



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Queen Victoria
Formation:	1 January 1901

Australia



This article is part of a series about the
Politics and government of Australia

- 10.2 Australia
- 10.3 Other
- 11 Bibliography
- 12 Notes
- 13 References
- 14 External links

International and domestic aspects

Further information: Commonwealth realm: The Crown in the Commonwealth realms

The monarch of Australia is the same person as the monarch of the fifteen other Commonwealth realms within the 54-member Commonwealth of Nations; however, each country is sovereign and independent of the others.[3] On all matters of the Australian state, the monarch is advised by Australian federal Ministers of the Crown[4][5] and, effective with the Australia Act 1986, no British government can advise the monarch on any matters pertinent to Australia. The British Government is thus considered a foreign power in regard to Australia's domestic and foreign affairs. Still, the High Court of Australia found that those natural-born subjects of other Commonwealth realms who migrated to Australia could not be classified as aliens (as referred to in the constitution) within Australia, given that they owed allegiance to the same monarch and thus are subjects of the Queen of Australia.[6] However, in Sue v Hill, the High Court of Australia found that the United Kingdom was a foreign power for the purposes of Section 44 of the Australian Constitution, which determines eligibility for parliamentary office.[7]

Title

Further information: List of titles and honours of Queen Elizabeth II and Australian peers

The shared and domestic aspects of the Crown are also highlighted in the sovereign's Australian title, currently *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God Queen of Australia and Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*. The Australian monarch has maintained the style of "Elizabeth the Second", even though she is the first Queen of Australia with that name. The sovereign's role specifically as Queen of Australia, as well as her status as monarch of other nations, is communicated by mentioning Australia separately from, but along with, the Queen's other lands. Typically, the sovereign is styled *Queen of Australia* and is addressed as such when in Australia or performing duties on behalf of Australia abroad. The sovereign is the only member of the Royal Family to have a title established through Australian law; other members are accorded a courtesy title, which is the title they have been granted via Letters Patent in the United Kingdom.

Commonwealth

• **Queen** (Elizabeth II)
• Constitution Act
• Statute of Westminster
• Australia Act

Executive (The Crown)

• Governor-General (Quentin Bryce)
• Prime Minister (Julia Gillard) • Cabinet
• Federal Executive Council
• Current ministry

Legislative

• Parliament
  • Senate
  • House of Representatives

  • Opposition Leader (Tony Abbott)

Judicial

• High Court
• Lower Courts

Elections

• Federal electoral system
• Electoral divisions
• Election of 1901 · *1903 - 1974* · 1975 · 1977 · 1980 · 1983 · 1984 · 1987 · 1990 · 1993 · 1996 · 1998 · 2001 · 2004 · 2007 · 2010 · *Next* ·
Political parties

By-elections

States/territories

Executive
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• Premiers and Chief Ministers
• NSW · Vic · Qld · WA · SA · Tas · ACT · NT

Legislative
• Parliaments and Assemblies
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Prior to 1953, the title had simply been the same as that in the United Kingdom, the current form of the title being the result of occasional discussion and an eventual meeting of Commonwealth representatives in London in December 1952, at which Canada's preferred format for the monarch's title was: *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of [Realm] and of Her other realms and territories, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith*;[8] however, Australia wished to have the United Kingdom mentioned as well.[9] Thus, the resolution was a title that included the United Kingdom but, for the first time, also mentioned Australia, and the other Commonwealth realms, separately. The passage of a new Royal Style and Titles Act by the parliament of Australia put these recommendations into law. This act was further amended in 1973, removing specific reference to the monarch's role as Queen of the United Kingdom. Still, laws pre-dating the Royal Styles and Titles Acts have not been amended to alter references to the *Queen of the United Kingdom*.[10]

Finance

Australians do not pay any money to the Queen, either for personal income or to support the royal residences outside of Australia. Only when the Queen is in Australia, or acting abroad as Queen of Australia, does the Australian government support her in the performance of her duties. This rule applies equally to other members of the Royal Family. Usually the Queen's Australian governments pay only for the costs associated with the governor-general and governors in their exercising of the powers of the Crown on behalf of the Queen, including travel, security, residences, offices and ceremonial occasions, etc.

Succession

Succession is by primogeniture[11] governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement 1701 and the Bill of Rights 1689. This legislation limits the succession to the natural (i.e. non-adopted), legitimate descendants of Sophia, Electress of Hanover and stipulates that the monarch must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. Prior to 2011, the law gave preference to sons over any older sisters and stipulated that the monarch cannot be married to a Roman Catholic.[11] Though these constitutional laws, as they apply to Australia, lie within the control of the British parliament,[12] via adopting the Statute of Westminster, the UK agreed not to change its rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship; a situation which applies symmetrically in all the other realms and which has been likened to a treaty amongst these countries.[13]



Charles, Prince of Wales, is the heir apparent to the Australian

Upon a demise of the Crown (the death or abdication of a sovereign) it is customary for the accession of the new monarch to be publicly proclaimed by the governor-general on behalf of the Federal Executive Council, which meets at Government House, Canberra, after the accession. Parallel proclamations are made by the governors in each state.[14] Regardless of any proclamations, the late sovereign's heir immediately and automatically succeeds, without any need for confirmation or further ceremony; hence arises the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!" Following an appropriate period of mourning, the monarch is also crowned in the United Kingdom, though this ritual is not necessary for a sovereign to reign; for example, Edward VIII was never crowned, yet was undoubtedly king during his short time on the throne. After an individual ascends the throne, he or she typically continues to reign until death. There is no provision in the law for a monarch to unilaterally abdicate; the only Australian monarch to abdicate, Edward VIII, did so with the authorisation of the Australian government, granted in His Majesty's Declaration of Abdication Act, 1936.

throne.

Personification of the state

Further information: The Crown

Today the sovereign is regarded as the legal personality of the Australian state, which is therefore referred to as *Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Australia*. For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the Commonwealth government, the respondent is formally described as *Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Australia*, or simply *Regina*. Likewise, in a case in which a party sues both the state of Queensland and the federal government, the respondents would formally be called *Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Queensland* and *Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Australia*.

As such, all state lands are called *Crown land*, state owned buildings and equipment are called *Crown held property*, and the copyright for all government publications is called *Crown copyright*. In this role, the monarch is also the locus of oaths of allegiance; many employees of the Crown are required by law to recite this oath before taking their posts, such as all members of the Commonwealth parliament, all members of the state and territorial parliaments, as well as all magistrates, judges and justices of the peace. This is in reciprocation to the sovereign's Coronation Oath, wherein he or she promises "to govern the Peoples of... Australia... according to their respective laws and customs".[15] Previously, new appointees to Cabinet would also swear an oath that included allegiance to the monarch before taking their post. This oath was never written in law, however, and would only take the form of what the prime minister of the time suggested to the governor-general. In December 2007, Kevin Rudd did not swear allegiance to the sovereign when sworn in by the Governor-General, making him the first prime minister not to do so;[16] however, he (like all other Members of Parliament) did swear allegiance to the Queen, as required by law, when sworn-in by the Governor-General as newly-elected parliamentarians. Similarly, the Oath of Citizenship contained a statement of allegiance to the reigning monarch until 1994, when a pledge of allegiance to Australia and its values was introduced. The High Court found, in 2002, though, that allegiance to the Queen of Australia was the "fundamental criterion of membership" in the Australian body politic, from a constitutional, rather than statutory, point of view.[6]

Constitutional role

Australia's constitution is a written one, based on the Westminster model of government, with federal elements modelled on the United States Constitution and a distinct separation of powers. It gives Australia a parliamentary system of government similar to the other Commonwealth realms, wherein the role of the Queen and the Governor-General is both legal and practical. The Crown is regarded as a corporation, in which several parts share the authority of the whole, with the Queen as the person at the centre of the constitutional construct,[18] meaning all powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the monarch;[19] the 1993 Republic Advisory Committee concluded that "the Queen" in the constitution means "the Australian Government".[5] The sovereign is represented in the federal sphere by the Governor-General – appointed by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister of Australia – and in the states by governors – appointed by the monarch upon the advice of the relevant state premier.

There is some debate over whether the sovereign or the governor-general is Australia's head of state.[20]

> *We have a very good system now in terms of political stability... one of the reasons why we have had this wonderful stability is because of the constitutional linkages from Crown to Governor-General to Prime Minister at the Federal level, and Crown to Governor to Premiers at the State level. There are checks and balances in the system, and that is why we never had civil wars, that is why we never had huge political upheavals except in '32 and '75. So the system as it is has worked very well.*[17]
>
> —Governor-General Michael Jeffery, 2003

Executive



Australia Act 1986 (United Kingdom) document, located in Parliament House, Canberra, and bearing the signature of Elizabeth II, Queen of Australia.

In Australia's constitutional system, one of the main duties of the Governor-General is to appoint a prime minister, who thereafter heads the Cabinet and advises the governor-general on how to execute his or her executive powers over all aspects of government operations and foreign affairs. This means that the monarch's and the viceroy's roles are primarily symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments and agencies operate. In practice, ministers direct the use of the Royal Prerogative, which includes the privilege to declare war, maintain peace, and direct the actions of the Australian Defence Force. The governor-general is empowered by the Constitution to summon and prorogue parliament, and call elections; however the powers are almost never exercised without advice from the prime minister. Still, the Royal Prerogative belongs to the Crown, and not to any of the ministers and the governor-general may unilaterally use these powers in exceptional constitutional crisis situations,[21] such as when, during the 1975 Australian constitutional crisis, Sir John Kerr dismissed Prime Minister Gough Whitlam, on the occasion of a stalemate over government funding between the House of Representatives and the Senate. There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by the Queen. These include signing the appointment papers of governors-general, the confirmation of the creation of awards of Australian honours,[22][23] and the approval of any change in her Australian title.



Elizabeth II is greeted by Margaret Whitlam at Fairbairn RAAF base, with Gough Whitlam, Prime Minister of Australia, and Lady Hasluck, wife of the then Governor-General, looking on.

In accordance with convention, the governor-general, to maintain the stability of government, must appoint as prime minister the individual most likely to maintain the support of the House of Representatives: usually the leader of the political party with a majority in that house, but also when no party or coalition holds a majority (referred to as a minority government situation), or other scenarios in which the governor-general's judgement about the most suitable candidate for prime minister has to be brought into play.[24] The governor-general also appoints to Cabinet the other ministers of the Crown, who are, in turn, accountable to the Parliament, and through it, to the people. The Queen is informed by her viceroy of the acceptance of the resignation of a prime minister and the swearing-in of a new prime minister and other members of the ministry, and she holds audience with her Australian ministers where possible.[25]

Members of various executive agencies and other officials are appointed by the governor-general, including High Court justices. Ministers and parliamentary secretaries are also appointed to the Federal Executive Council. Public inquiries are also commissioned by the Crown through a Royal Warrant, and are called Royal Commissions. A casual vacancy in the Senate is filled by an appointee from the same political party by a state parliament or state governor.

Foreign affairs

The Royal Prerogative also extends to foreign affairs: the Governor-General-in-Council negotiates and ratifies treaties, alliances, and international agreements.[26] As with other uses of the Royal Prerogative, no parliamentary approval is required;[27] however, a treaty cannot alter the domestic laws of Australia; an Act of Parliament is necessary in such cases. The governor-general, on behalf of the Queen, also accredits Australian High Commissioners and ambassadors, and receives diplomats from foreign states. In addition, the issuance of passports

falls under the Royal Prerogative, and, as such, all Australian passports are issued in the name of the governor-general as the monarch's representative.

Parliament

The sovereign, along with the Senate and the House of Representatives, being one of the three components of parliament, is called the *Queen-in-Parliament*. The authority of the Crown therein is embodied in the mace (House of Representatives) and Black Rod (Senate), which both bear a crown at their apex. The monarch and viceroy do not, however, participate in the legislative process save for the granting of Royal Assent by the Governor-General. Further, the constitution outlines that the Governor-General alone is responsible for summoning, proroguing, and dissolving parliament,[28] after which the writs for a general election are usually dropped by the Prime Minister at Government House. The new parliamentary session is marked by the State Opening of Parliament, during which either the monarch or the Governor-General reads the Speech from the Throne. As the monarch and viceroy, by convention, cannot enter the House of Representatives, this, as well as the bestowing of Royal Assent, takes place in the Senate chamber; Members of Parliament are summoned to these ceremonies from the House of Representatives by the Crown's messenger, the Usher of the Black Rod, after he knocks on the doors of the lower house that have been slammed closed on him to symbolise the barring of the monarch from the House of Representatives.

All laws in Australia, except in the Australian Capital Territory (ACT) Legislative Assembly, are enacted only with the viceroy's granting of Royal Assent, done by the Governor-General or relevant Governor, with the Great Seal of Australia or the appropriate state seal, while territorial legislatures, unlike their state counterparts, are subject to the oversight of the Government of Australia. The Governor-General may reserve a bill "for the Queen's pleasure"; that is withhold his consent to the bill and present it to the sovereign for her personal decision. Under the constitution, the sovereign also has the power to disallow a bill within one year of the Governor-General having granted Royal Assent. The reference to *the Queen* in this section was intended as a reference to the monarch acting on the advice of his or her British Cabinet; however, with the passage of the Statute of Westminster and the Australia Acts, the power to disallow laws technically devolved to the Queen in a personal capacity.[29] This power, however, has never been used.

Courts

In the United Kingdom, the sovereign was deemed the *fount of justice*.[30][31] However, he or she does not personally rule in judicial cases,[30] meaning that judicial functions are normally performed only in the monarch's name. Criminal offences are legally deemed to be offences against the sovereign and proceedings for indictable offences are brought in the sovereign's name in the form of *The Queen [or King] against [Name]* (sometimes also referred to as *the Crown against [Name]*).[32][33] Hence, the common law holds that the sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the monarch personally are not cognizable. In international cases, as a sovereign and under established principles of international law, the Queen of Australia is not subject to suit in foreign courts without her express consent. The *prerogative of mercy* lies with the monarch, and is exercised in the state jurisdictions by the governors,[34] who may pardon offences against the Crown, either before, during, or after a trial.

In addition, the monarch also serves as a symbol of the legitimacy of courts of justice, and of their judicial authority; sessions of the High Court, for example, are opened with the words "the High Court of Australia is now in session; God Save the Queen." In a practice dating back to colonial times, state courts traditionally display the arms of the sovereign in right of the United Kingdom, except in New South Wales, where some of these have been replaced with the state arms.

States and territories

Further information: Governors of the Australian states

In accordance with the Australia Act 1986, the Queen has the power to appoint, on the advice of the relevant state Premier, a Governor in each of the Australian states, who themselves appoint executive bodies, as well as people to fill casual Senate vacancies, if the relevant state parliament is not in session, under the Great Seal of the State. The state Governors continue to serve as the direct representatives of the Queen, in no way subordinate to the Governor-General of the Commonwealth, and they carry out on her behalf all of the Queen's constitutional and ceremonial duties in respect of their respective state. The Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory resemble states in many respects, but are administered directly by the Commonwealth of Australia; an Administrator, appointed by the Governor-general upon the advice of the Commonwealth government, takes the place of a state governor in the Northern Territory. The Australian Capital Territory has no equivalent position.

Cultural role

Royal presence and duties

Further information: Royal visits to Australia and List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II

Members of the Royal Family have been present in Australia since the late 1800s, on military manoeuvres, for official tours, or as the vice-regal representative of the monarch. Queen Elizabeth II was the first reigning monarch of Australia to set foot on Australian soil on 3 February 1954. The Queen has visited the country sixteen times, usually on important milestones, anniversaries, or celebrations of Australian culture, while other royals have been asked to participate in lesser occasions. In these instances, when acting at the direction of the Australian Cabinet, they are doing so as monarch of Australia and members of the Australian Royal Family, respectively, and will carry out two types of duties:



Elizabeth II tours the Australian War Memorial, February 1954

Official duties involve the sovereign representing the state at home or abroad, or other Royal Family members participating in a government organised ceremony either in Australia or elsewhere.[35] The sovereign and/or his or her family have participated in events such as various centennials and bicentennials; Australia Day; the openings of Olympic and other games; award ceremonies; D-Day commemorations; anniversaries of the monarch's accession; and the like. Other royals have participated in Australian ceremonies or undertaken duties abroad, such as Prince Charles at the Anzac Day ceremonies at Gallipoli, or when the Queen, Prince Charles, and Princess Anne participated in Australian ceremonies for the anniversary of D-Day in France in 2004. On 22 February 2009, Princess Anne represented the Queen of Australia at the National Bushfires Memorial Service in Melbourne.[36][37] The Queen also showed her support for the people of Australia by making a personal statement about the bushfires [38] and by also making private donation to the Australian Red Cross Appeal.[39] The Duke of Edinburgh was the first to sign a book of condolences at the Australian High Commission in London.[39]

Unofficial duties are performed by Royal Family members on behalf of Australian organizations of which they may be patrons, through their attendance at charity events, visiting with members of the Australian Defence Force as Colonel-in-Chief, or marking certain key anniversaries. The invitation and expenses associated with these undertakings are usually borne by the associated organization.



The Princess Royal passes behind the Princess Anne Banner at a parade for the 75th anniversary of the Royal Australian Corps of Signals

Apart from Australia, the Queen and other members of the Royal Family regularly perform public duties in the other fifteen nations of the Commonwealth in which the Queen is sovereign. As the Crown within these countries is a legally separate entity from the Australian Crown, it is funded in these countries individually, through the ordinary legislative budgeting process.

Symbols

Main article: Australian Royal Symbols



The Queen's Personal Australian Flag.

The monarchy is presently symbolised through images of the sovereign on currency and in portraits in public buildings; on Australian decorations and honours, some postage stamps and on coats of arms and other government symbols. The crown is used as a heraldic symbol in the coats of arms of the Commonwealth and the states of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland and Western Australia. Crowns are also visible on police and military badges. The Queen's Birthday is observed as a public holiday in all states.

"God Save the Queen" is Australia's royal anthem. The Vice-Regal Salute, played only for the governor-general and each state sovernor, is the first four and last four bars of "Advance Australia Fair".

There are also hundreds of places named after Australian and British monarchs and members of the Royal Family. The states of Queensland and Victoria were named after Queen Victoria; Adelaide, the capital of South Australia is named after Queen Adelaide, the consort of William IV; numerous streets, squares, parks and buildings are also named in honour of past or present members of the Royal Family.



A monument to King George V in Parkes, Australian Capital Territory.

Religious role

Neither the Queen, the governor-general, or any state governor have any religious role in Australia. There never has been an established church in Australia, either before or since Federation in 1901. Pursuant to the Australian Constitution the Commonwealth may not enact a law establishing or prohibiting the free exercise of religion.[40] This is one of the key differences from the Queen's role in England where she is the Supreme Governor of the Church of England.

Vice-regal residences

The Governor-General's official residence is Government House, commonly known as "Yarralumla", in the city of Canberra. The Australian monarch stays there when visiting the country as do some other visiting heads of state.[41] Government House is the site of most state banquets, investitures, swearing-in of ministers, and other ceremonies. Another vice-regal residence is Admiralty House, in Sydney, and is used principally as a retreat for the Governor-General. The states of New South Wales, Victoria, Western Australia, Queensland, Tasmania, and South Australia also maintain residences, used by the respective Governors, though the monarch or other members of the

Royal Family will stay there when in the state. These residences are the property of the Australian people administered by their federal and state governments.

Australian Defence Force

The Crown has a symbolic place in the Australian Defence Force, which consists of the Royal Australian Navy, Australian Army, and Royal Australian Air Force.

Section 68 of the Australian Constitution says: "The command in chief of the naval and military forces of the Commonwealth is vested in the Governor-General as the Queen's representative." In practice, however, the Governor-General does not play any part in the ADF's command structure and the ADF is under the control of the Minister for Defence and several subordinate ministers. The Minister advises the Governor-General who acts as advised in the normal form of executive government.[42]

Australian naval vessels bear the prefix *Her Majesty's Australian Ship* (HMAS). The Royal Australian Regiment (RAR) which makes up most of the Infantry Corps and many other regiments carry the 'Royal' prefix.[43] Members of the Royal Family have presided over military ceremonies, including Trooping of the Colours, inspections of the troops, and anniversaries of key battles. Whenever the Queen is in Canberra she lays a wreath at the Australian War Memorial. In 2003, Elizabeth II acted in her capacity as Australian monarch when she dedicated the Australian War Memorial in Hyde Park, London. [1]

Some members of the Royal Family are Colonels-in-Chief of Australian regiments, including: the Royal Regiment of Australian Artillery; Royal Australian Army Medical Corps; the Royal Australian Armoured Corps and the Royal Australian Corps of Signals, amongst many others. The Queen's husband, the Duke of Edinburgh, is an Admiral of the Fleet[44] in right of the Royal Australian Navy, Marshal of the Royal Australian Air Force, and Field Marshal of the Australian Army.

On 22 October 2011 at the Royal Military College, Duntroon in Canberra, the Queen of Australia presented new Sovereign's Colours to the Australian Defence Force.

History

Main article: History of monarchy in Australia

The development of a distinctly Australian monarchy came about through a complex set of incremental events, beginning with the initial settlements of the territory in 1770, when Captain James Cook, in the name of, and under instruction from, King George III, claimed the east coast of Australia.[45] Colonies were soon after founded across the continent,[46][47] all of them ruled by the monarch of the United Kingdom, upon the advice of his or her British ministers, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, in particular. After Queen Victoria's granting of Royal Assent to the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act on 9 July 1900, which brought about Federation in 1901, whereupon the six colonies became the states of Australia, the relationship between the state governments and the Crown remained as it was pre-1901: References in the constitution to "the Queen" meant the government of the United Kingdom (in the formation of which Australians had no say)[5] and the Colonial Laws Validity Act 1865 – by which colonial laws deemed repugnant to imperial (British) law in force in the colony were rendered void and inoperative – remained in force at in both the federal and state spheres;[48] and all the governors, both of the Commonwealth and the states, remained appointees of the British monarch on the advice of the British Cabinet,[49] a situation that continued even after Australia was recognised as a Dominion of the British Empire in 1907.[50] As Queen-Empress, Victoria "symbolised the British Empire of which all Australians were subjects".[5]



A statue of King George V looks over King's Hall in Old Parliament House, Canberra.

In response to calls from some Dominions for a re-evaluation in their status under the Crown after their sacrifice and performance in the First World War,[51] a series of Imperial Conferences was held in London, from 1917 on, which resulted in the Balfour Declaration of 1926, which provided that the United Kingdom and the Dominions were to be considered as "autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown." The Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, 1927, an Act of the Westminster Parliament, was the first indication of a shift in the law, before the Imperial Conference of 1930 established that the Australian Cabinet could advise the sovereign directly on the choice of Governor-General, which ensured the independence of the office.[52] The Crown was further separated amongst its dominions by the Statute of Westminster 1931,[53] and, though it was not adopted by Australia until 1942 (retroactive to 3 September 1939),[54] the law's validity in the United Kingdom required its government to seek Australia's consent in allowing the abdication of Edward VIII as King of Australia and all the other Dominions in 1936.

The Curtin Labor Government appointed Prince Henry, Duke of Gloucester, as Governor-General during the Second World War. Curtin hoped the appointment might influence the British to despatch men and equipment to the Pacific War, and the selection of the brother of King George VI reaffirmed the important role of the Crown to the Australian nation at that time.[55] Queen Elizabeth II became the first reigning monarch to visit Australia in 1954, greeted by huge crowds across the nation. Her son Prince Charles attended school in Australia in 1967.[56]Her grandson Prince Harry undertook a portion of his gap-year living and working in Australia in 2003.[57]

The sovereign did not possess a title unique to Australia until the Australian parliament enacted the Royal Styles and Titles Act in 1953, after the accession of Elizabeth II to the throne, and giving her the title of *Queen of the United Kingdom, Australia and Her other Realms and Territories*. Still, Elizabeth remained a queen who reigned in Australia both as Queen of Australia (in the federal jurisdiction) and Queen of the United Kingdom (in each of the states), as a result of the states not wishing to have the Statute of Westminster apply to them, believing that the *status quo* better protected their sovereign interests against an expansionist federal government, which left the Colonial Laws Validity Act in effect. Thus, the British monarch could still – at least in theory, if not with some difficulty in practice – legislate for the Australian states, and the viceroys in the states were appointed by and represented the sovereign of the United Kingdom, not that of Australia;[58] as late as 1976, the British ministry advised the Queen to reject the nominee of the Queensland Cabinet for Governor.[59] It was with the passage of the Australia Act in 1986, which repealed the Colonial Laws Validity Act, that the final vestiges of the British monarchy in Australia were removed, leaving a distinct Australian monarchy for the nation.

It was around the same time that a discussion on the matter of Australia becoming a republic began to emerge, culminating, a decade later, in the 1999 Australian republic referendum, which was defeated by 54.4% of the populace. The referendum followed the recommendation of a 1998 Constitutional Convention called to discuss the issue of Australia becoming a republic. Still, nearly another ten years later, Kevin Rudd was appointed as Prime Minister, whereafter he affirmed that a republic was still a part of his party's platform, and stated his belief that the debate on constitutional change should continue.[60]



Prince Charles, Prince of Wales, with

The current Prime Minister, Julia Gillard has re-affirmed her party's

students of his Australian alma mater, Geelong Grammar School, in Corio, Victoria.

platform about a possible future republic. She stated that she would like to see Australia become a republic, with an appropriate time being when there is a change in monarch. A change of opinion was recorded on 21 October 2011 at a reception in the presence of the Queen at Parliament House in Canberra when the Prime Minister stated that the monarch is "a vital constitutional part of Australian democracy and would only ever be welcomed as a beloved and respected friend." [61] The Opposition Leader, Tony Abbott, a former head of Australians for Constitutional Monarchy stated on 21 October 2011, "Your Majesty, while 11 prime ministers and no less than 17 opposition leaders have come and gone, for 60 years you have been a presence in our national story and given the vagaries of public life, I'm confident that this will not be the final tally of the politicians that you have outlasted." [62]

A Morgan poll taken in October 2011 found that support for constitutional change is at its lowest for 20 years. Of those surveyed 34% were pro-republic as opposed to 55% pro-monarchist, preferring to maintain the current constitutional arrangements. [63]

List of Australian Monarchs

No.	Portrait	Regnal name	Reign over the Commonwealth of Australia		Full name	Consort
1		**Victoria** (1819–1901) House of Hanover	1 January 1901	22 January 1901	Alexandrina Victoria of Australia	Albert, Prince Consort
			Governors general:John Hope, 7th Earl of Hopetoun Prime ministers: Edmund Barton			
2		**Edward VII** (1841–1910) House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha	22 January 1901	6 May 1910	Albert Edward of Australia	Alexandra of Denmark
			Governors general:John Hope, 7th Earl of Hopetoun, Hallam Tennyson, 2nd Baron Tennyson, Henry Northcote, 1st Baron Northcote, William Ward, 2nd Earl of Dudley Prime ministers: Sir Edmund Barton, Alfred Deakin, Chris Watson, George Reid, Andrew Fisher			
3		**George V** (1865–1836) House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha (until 1917) House of Windsor (after 1917)	6 May 1910	20 January 1936	George Frederick Ernest Albert of Australia	Mary of Teck
			Governors general:William Ward, 2nd Earl of Dudley, Thomas Denman, 3rd Baron Denman, Sir Ronald Ferguson, Henry Forster, 1st Baron Forster, John Baird, 1st Baron Stonehaven. Sir Isaac Isaacs Prime ministers: Andrew Fisher, Joseph Cook, Billy Hughes, Stanley Bruce, James Scullin, Joseph Lyons			
4		**Edward VIII** (1894–1972) House of Windsor	20 January 1936	11 December 1936	Edward Albert Christian George Andrew Patrick David of Australia	*none*
			Governors general: Sir Isaac Alfred Isaacs, Alexander Hore-Ruthven, 1st Earl of Gowrie Prime ministers: Joseph Lyons			

5		**George VI** (1895–1952) House of Windsor	11 December 1936	6 February 1952	Albert Frederick Arthur George of Australia	Elizabeth Bowes-Lyon
			Governors general: Alexander Hore-Ruthven, 1st Earl of Gowrie, Prince Henry, Duke of Gloucester, Sir William McKell Prime ministers: Joseph Lyons, Sir Earle Page, Robert Menzies, Arthur Fadden, John Curtin, Frank Forde, Ben Chifley, Robert Menzies			
6		**Elizabeth II** (1926–) House of Windsor	6 February 1952	Present	Elizabeth Alexandra Mary of Australia	Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh
			Governors general: Sir William McKell, Sir William Slim, William Morrison, 1st Viscount Dunrossil, William Sidney, 1st Viscount De L'Isle, Richard Casey, Baron Casey, Sir Paul Hasluck, Sir John Kerr, Sir Zelman Cowen, Sir Ninian Stephen, William Hayden, Sir William Deane, Peter Hollingworth, Michael Jeffery, Quentin Bryce Prime ministers: Sir Robert Menzies, Harold Holt, John McEwen, John Gorton, William McMahon, Gough Whitlam, Malcolm Fraser, Bob Hawke, Paul Keating, John Howard, Kevin Rudd, Julia Gillard			

See also

Other realms

- Current Commonwealth realms

Australia

- Australian Constitution
- List of Australian organisations with royal patronage
- Australian Peerages

Other

- Commonwealth realm
- States headed by Elizabeth II
- Prime Ministers of Queen Elizabeth II
- List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II

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Notes

1. ^ Governor-General of the Commonwealth of Australia: Letters Patent Relating to the Office of Governor-General of the Commonwealth of Australia (http://www.gg.gov.au/governorgeneral/content.php?id=4)
2. ^ Governor-General of the Commonwealth of

The Bahamas

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The Bahamas /bəˈhɑːməz/, officially the **Commonwealth of the Bahamas**, is a nation consisting of more than 3,000 islands, cays, and islets. It is located in the Atlantic Ocean north of Cuba and Hispaniola (Dominican Republic and Haiti), northwest of the Turks and Caicos Islands, and southeast of the United States (nearest to the state of Florida). Its land area is 13,939 km^2 (5,382 sq mi), with a population of 353,658. Its capital is Nassau. Geographically, The Bahamas lie in the same island chain as Cuba, Hispaniola and the Turks and Caicos Islands; the designation of Bahamas refers normally to the Commonwealth and not the geographic chain.

Originally inhabited by the Lucayans, a branch of the Arawakan-speaking Taino people, the Bahamas were the site of Columbus' first landfall in the New World in 1492. Although the Spanish never colonized the Bahamas, they shipped the native Lucayans to slavery in Hispaniola. The islands were mostly deserted from 1513 to 1648, when English colonists from Bermuda settled on the island of Eleuthera.

The Bahamas became a Crown Colony in 1718 when the British clamped down on piracy. After the American War of Independence, thousands of pro-British loyalists and enslaved Africans moved to the Bahamas and set up a plantation economy. The slave trade was abolished in the British Empire in 1807 and many Africans liberated from slave ships by the Royal Navy were settled in the Bahamas during the 19th century. Slavery itself was abolished in 1834 and the descendants form the majority of the Bahamas's population today.

In terms of GDP per capita, The Bahamas is one of the richest countries in the Americas (following Bermuda, the United States, Cayman Islands, Canada, and the British Virgin Islands)[8]

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- 1 Etymology
- 2 History
  - 2.1 18th century
  - 2.2 20th century

Commonwealth of the Bahamas	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: "Forward, Upward, Onward, Together"	
Anthem: "March On, Bahamaland" **Royal anthem:** "God Save the Queen"	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Nassau 25°4′N 77°20′W
Official language(s)	English
Ethnic groups	85% African Bahamians 12% European Bahamians 3% Asians and Hispanic[1]
Demonym	Bahamian
Government	Unitary Parliamentary democracy and Constitutional monarchy.[2][3]
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor-General	Sir Arthur Foulkes
- Prime Minister	Hubert Ingraham
Legislature	Parliament
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	House of Assembly
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	July 10, 1973[4]
Area	

- 3 Geography and climate
  - 3.1 Climate
- 4 Government and politics
  - 4.1 Administrative divisions
  - 4.2 Military
  - 4.3 National symbols
    - 4.3.1 National flag
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- 5 Economy
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- Total	13,878 km^2 (160th) 5,358 sq mi
- Water (%)	28%
Population	
- 2010 estimate	353,658[5] (177th)
- 1990 census	254,685
- Density	23.27/km^2 (181st) 60/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$9.136 billion[6]
- Per capita	$26,225[6]
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$7.787 billion[6]
- Per capita	$22,352[6]
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.771[7] (high) (53rd)
Currency	Bahamian dollar (BSD)
Time zone	EST (UTC−5)
- Summer (DST)	EDT (UTC−4)
Drives on the	left
Internet TLD	.bs
Calling code	+1-242

Etymology

The origin of the name *Bahamas* is unclear. It may derive from the Spanish *baja mar* ("low sea") or the Lucayan word for Grand Bahama island, *ba-ha-ma* ("large upper middle land").[9]

History



Main article: History of The Bahamas

Taino people moved into the uninhabited southern Bahamas from Hispaniola and Cuba around the 11th century AD. These people came to be known as the Lucayans. There were an estimated 30,000+ Lucayans at the time of Columbus's arrival in 1492. Christopher Columbus's first landfall in the New World was on an island named San Salvador (known to the Lucayans as Guanahani), which some researchers believe to be present-day San Salvador Island, (also known as Watling's Island) in the southeastern Bahamas.

An alternative theory holds that Columbus landed to the southeast on Samana Cay, according to calculations made in 1986 by *National Geographic* writer and editor Joseph Judge based on Columbus's log. Evidence in support of this remains inconclusive. On the landfall island, Columbus made first contact

Map of The Bahamas

with the Lucayans and exchanged goods with them.

The Lucayans throughout the Bahamas were wiped out as a result of Spanish forced migration of the population to Hispaniola for use as forced labour there, and exposure to diseases to which they had no immunity.[10] The smallpox that ravaged the Taino Indians after Columbus's arrival wiped out half of the population in what is now The Bahamas.[11]

It is generally assumed that the islands were uninhabited by Europeans until the mid-17th century. However, recent research suggests that there may have been attempts to settle the islands by groups from Spain, France, and Britain, as well as by other Amerindians. In 1648, the Eleutherian Adventurers migrated from Bermuda. These English Puritans established the first permanent European settlement on an island which they named Eleuthera—the name derives from the Greek word for freedom. They later settled New Providence, naming it Sayle's Island after one of their leaders. To survive, the settlers resorted to salvaged goods from wrecks.

In 1670 King Charles II granted the islands to the Lords Proprietors of the Carolinas, who rented the islands from the king with rights of trading, tax, appointing governors, and administering the country.[12] In 1684 Spain's corsair Juan de Alcon raided the capital, Charles Town (later renamed Nassau), and in 1703 a joint Franco-Spanish expedition briefly occupied the Bahamian capital during the War of the Spanish Succession.

18th century

During proprietary rule, the Bahamas became a haven for pirates, including the infamous Blackbeard. To restore orderly government, The Bahamas were made a British crown colony in 1718 under the royal governorship of Woodes Rogers, who, after a difficult struggle, succeeded in suppressing piracy.[13] In 1720, Rogers led local militia to drive off a Spanish attack.

During the American War of Independence, the islands were a target for American naval forces under the command of Commodore Ezekial Hopkins. The capital of Nassau on the island of New Providence was occupied by US Marines for a fortnight.

In 1782, following the British defeat at Yorktown, a Spanish fleet appeared off the coast of Nassau, and the city surrendered without a fight.

After American independence, some 7,300 Loyalists and their slaves moved to the Bahamas from New York, Florida, and the Carolinas. These Loyalists established plantations on several islands and became a political force in the capital. The small population became mostly African from this point on.

The British abolished the slave trade in 1807, which led to the forced settlement on Bahamian islands of thousands of Africans liberated from slave ships by the Royal Navy. Slavery itself was finally abolished in the British Empire on August 1, 1834.

20th century

Modern political development began after the Second World War. The first political parties were formed in the 1950s and the British made the islands internally self-governing in 1964, with Sir Roland Symonette of the United Bahamian Party as the first premier.

The fourth James Bond film *Thunderball* was partly filmed in 1965 in Nassau.

In 1967, Sir Lynden Pindling of the Progressive Liberal Party became the first black premier of the colony, and

in 1968 the title was changed to prime minister. In 1973, The Bahamas became fully independent, but retained membership in the Commonwealth of Nations. Sir Milo Butler was appointed the first Bahamian governor-general (the representative of Queen Elizabeth II) shortly after independence.

Based on the twin pillars of tourism and offshore finance, the Bahamian economy has prospered since the 1950s. However, there remain significant challenges in areas such as education, health care, housing, international narcotics trafficking and illegal immigration from Haiti.

The College of The Bahamas is the national higher education/ tertiary system. Offering baccalaureate, masters and associate degrees, COB has three campuses and teaching and research centers throughout The Bahamas. The College is in the process of becoming The University of The Bahamas as early as 2012.

Geography and climate

Main article: Geography of The Bahamas



The Bahamas from space. NASA Aqua satellite image, 2009

The country lies between latitudes 20° and 28°N, and longitudes 72° and 80°W.

In 1864 the Governor of the Bahamas reported that there were 29 islands, 661 cays, and 2,387 rocks in the colony.[14]

The closest island to the United States is Bimini, which is also known as the gateway to The Bahamas. The island of Abaco is to the east of Grand Bahama. The southeasternmost island is Inagua. The largest island is Andros Island. Other inhabited islands include Eleuthera, Cat Island, Long Island, San Salvador Island, Acklins, Crooked Island, Exuma and Mayaguana. Nassau, capital city of The Bahamas, lies on the island of New Providence.

All the islands are low and flat, with ridges that usually rise no more than 15 to 20 m (49 to 66 ft). The highest point in the country is Mount Alvernia, (formerly Como Hill) on Cat Island. It has an altitude of 63 metres (207 ft).

To the southeast, the Turks and Caicos Islands, and three more extensive submarine features called Mouchoir Bank, Silver Bank, and Navidad Bank, are geographically a continuation of The Bahamas, but not part of the Commonwealth of The Bahamas.[*citation needed*]

Climate

See also: Geography of the Bahamas

The climate of The Bahamas is subtropical to tropical, and is moderated significantly by the waters of the Gulf Stream, particularly in winter.[15] Conversely, this often proves very dangerous in the summer and autumn, when hurricanes pass near or through the islands. Hurricane Andrew hit the northern islands during the 1992 Atlantic hurricane season, and Hurricane Floyd hit most of the islands during the 1999 Atlantic hurricane season.

While there has never been a freeze reported in The Bahamas, the temperature can fall as low as 2–3 °C (35.6–37.4 °F) during Arctic outbreaks that affect nearby Florida. Snow was reported to have mixed with rain in Freeport in January 1977, the same time that it snowed in the Miami area.[16] The temperature was about 4.5 °C

(40.1 °F) at the time.[17]

Climate data for Nassau, Bahamas													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Average high °C (°F)	25.4 (77.7)	25.5 (77.9)	26.6 (79.9)	27.9 (82.2)	29.7 (85.5)	31.0 (87.8)	32.0 (89.6)	32.1 (89.8)	31.6 (88.9)	29.9 (85.8)	27.8 (82.0)	26.2 (79.2)	28.8 (83.8)
Daily mean °C (°F)	21.4 (70.5)	21.4 (70.5)	22.3 (72.1)	23.8 (74.8)	25.6 (78.1)	27.2 (81.0)	28.0 (82.4)	28.1 (82.6)	27.7 (81.9)	26.2 (79.2)	24.2 (75.6)	22.3 (72.1)	24.8 (76.6)
Average low °C (°F)	17.3 (63.1)	17.3 (63.1)	17.9 (64.2)	19.6 (67.3)	21.4 (70.5)	23.3 (73.9)	24.0 (75.2)	24.0 (75.2)	23.7 (74.7)	22.5 (72.5)	20.6 (69.1)	18.3 (64.9)	20.8 (69.4)
Precipitation mm (inches)	39.4 (1.551)	49.5 (1.949)	54.4 (2.142)	69.3 (2.728)	105.9 (4.169)	218.2 (8.591)	160.8 (6.331)	235.7 (9.28)	164.1 (6.461)	161.8 (6.37)	80.5 (3.169)	49.8 (1.961)	1,389.4 (54.701)
Avg. precipitation days	8	6	7	8	10	15	17	19	17	15	10	8	140
Sunshine hours	220.1	220.4	257.3	276.0	269.7	231.0	272.8	266.6	213.0	223.2	222.0	213.9	2,886
Source: World Meteorological Organization (UN),[18] *Hong Kong Observatory*[19] *for data of sunshine hours*													

Government and politics

Main article: Politics of The Bahamas



Bahamian Parliament, located in downtown Nassau

The Bahamas is a sovereign, independent, nation. Political and legal traditions closely follow those of the United Kingdom and the Westminster system. The Bahamas is a parliamentary democracy with two main parties, the Free National Movement and the Progressive Liberal Party.

Tourism generates about half of all jobs, but the number of visitors has dropped significantly since the beginning of the global economic downturn during the last quarter of 2008. Banking and international financial services also have contracted, and The Bahamas is one of 34 secrecy jurisdictions that would be subject to the Stop Tax Haven Abuse Act introduced in the U.S. Congress.



Prime Minister Hubert Ingraham

The Bahamas is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, and a Commonwealth realm with Queen Elizabeth II as head of state (represented by a Governor-General).

Legislative power is vested in a bicameral parliament, which consists of a 41-member House of Assembly (the lower house), with members elected from single-member districts, and a 16-member Senate, with members appointed by the governor-general, including nine on the advice of the prime minister, four on the advice of the leader of the opposition, and three on the advice of the prime minister after consultation with the leader of the opposition. The House of Assembly carries out all major legislative functions. As under the Westminster system, the prime minister may dissolve parliament and call a general election at any time within a five-year term.

The Prime Minister is the head of government and is the leader of the party with the most seats in the House of Assembly. Executive power is exercised by the cabinet, selected by the prime minister and drawn from his

supporters in the House of Assembly. The current governor-general is Sir Arthur Foulkes and the current Prime Minister is Hubert Ingraham.

The Bahamas has a largely two-party system dominated by the centre-left Progressive Liberal Party and the centre-right Free National Movement. A handful of splinter parties have been unable to win election to parliament. These parties have included the Bahamas Democratic Movement, the Coalition for Democratic Reform and the Bahamian Nationalist Party.

Constitutional safeguards include freedom of speech, press, worship, movement, and association. Although The Bahamas is not geographically located in the Caribbean, it is a member of the Caribbean Community. The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature. Jurisprudence is based on English law.

Administrative divisions

Main article: Local government in the Bahamas



Districts of The Bahamas

The districts of The Bahamas provide a system of local government everywhere except New Providence, whose affairs are handled directly by the central government. In 1996, the Bahamian Parliament passed "The Local Government Act" to facilitate the establishment of Family Island Administrators, Local Government Districts, Local District Councillors, and Local Town Committees for the various island communities. The overall goal of this act is to allow the various elected leaders to govern and oversee the affairs of their respective districts without the interference of Central Government. In total, there are 32 districts, with elections being held every three years. There are also one hundred and ten Councillors and two hundred and eighty-one Town Committee members to correspond with the various districts.[20]

Each Councillor or Town Committee member is responsible for the proper use of public funds for the maintenance and development of their constituency.

The districts other than New Providence are:

1. Acklins
2. Berry Islands
3. Bimini
4. Black Point, Exuma
5. Cat Island
6. Central Abaco
7. Central Andros
8. Central Eleuthera
9. City of Freeport, Grand Bahama
10. Crooked Island
11. East Grand Bahama
12. Exuma
13. Grand Cay, Abaco
18. Mangrove Cay, Andros
19. Mayaguana
20. Moore's Island, Abaco
21. North Abaco
22. North Andros
23. North Eleuthera
24. Ragged Island
25. Rum Cay
26. San Salvador
27. South Abaco
28. South Andros
29. South Eleuthera
30. Spanish Wells, Eleuthera

14. Harbour Island, Eleuthera
15. Hope Town, Abaco
16. Inagua
17. Long Island
31. West Grand Bahama
32. Green Turtle Cay (not shown on map)

Military

Main article: Royal Bahamas Defence Force

The Bahamas does not have an army or an air force. Its military is composed of the Royal Bahamas Defence Force (RBDF), the navy of The Bahamas. Under The Defence Act, the Royal Bahamas Defence Force has been mandated to defend The Bahamas, protect its territorial integrity, patrol its waters, provide assistance and relief in times of disaster, maintain order in conjunction with the law enforcement agencies of The Bahamas, and carry out any such duties as determined by the National Security Council. The Defence Force is also a member of Caricom's Regional Security Task Force.

The Royal Bahamas Defence Force officially came into existence on March 31, 1980. Their duties include defending the Bahamas, stopping drug smuggling, illegal immigration, poaching, and providing assistance to mariners whenever and wherever they can. The Defence Force has a fleet of 26 coastal and inshore patrol craft along with 2 aircraft and over 850 personnel including 65 officers and 74 women.

National symbols

National flag


National Flag of The Bahamas

The colors embodied in the design of the Bahamian flag symbolise the image and aspirations of the people of The Bahamas; the design reflects aspects of the natural environment (sun, sand, and sea) and the economic and social development. The flag is a black equilateral triangle against the mast, superimposed on a horizontal background made up of two colours on three equal stripes of aquamarine, gold and aquamarine.

The symbolism of the flag is as follows: Black, a strong colour, represents the vigour and force of a united people, the triangle pointing towards the body of the flag represents the enterprise and determination of the Bahamian people to develop and possess the rich resources of sun and sea symbolized by gold and aquamarine respectively. In reference to the representation of the people with the colour black, some white Bahamians have joked that they are represented in the thread which "holds it all together."[21]


Bahamian Coat of Arms

Coat of arms

Main article: Coat of arms of The Bahamas

The Coat of Arms of The Bahamas contains a shield with the national symbols as its focal point. The shield is supported by a marlin and a flamingo, which are the national animals of The Bahamas. The flamingo is located on the land, and the marlin on the sea, indicating the geography of the islands.

On top of the shield is a conch shell, which represents the varied marine life of the island chain. The conch shell rests on a helmet. Below this is the actual shield, the

main symbol of which is a ship representing the *Santa María* of Christopher Columbus, shown sailing beneath the sun. Along the bottom, below the shield appears a banner upon which is scripted the national motto:[22]

"Forward, Upward, Onward Together."


The yellow elder

National flower

The yellow elder was chosen as the national flower of The Bahamas because it is native to the Bahama Islands, and it blooms throughout the year.

Selection of the yellow elder over many other flowers was made through the combined popular vote of members of all four of New Providence's garden clubs of the 1970s – the Nassau Garden Club, the Carver Garden Club, the International Garden Club, and the YWCA Garden Club.

They reasoned that other flowers grown there – such as the bougainvillea, hibiscus, and poinciana – had already been chosen as the national flowers of other countries. The yellow elder, on the other hand, was unclaimed by other countries (although it is now also the national flower of the United States Virgin Islands).[23]

Economy

Main article: Economy of The Bahamas


Cruise ships in Nassau Harbour

One of the most prosperous countries in the Caribbean region, The Bahamas relies on tourism to generate most of its economic activity. Tourism as an industry not only accounts for over 60 percent of the Bahamian GDP, but provides jobs for more than half the country's workforce.[24] After tourism, the next most important economic sector is financial services, accounting for some 15 percent of GDP.

The government has adopted incentives to encourage foreign financial business, and further banking and finance reforms are in progress. The government plans to merge the regulatory functions of key financial institutions, including the Central Bank of The Bahamas (CBB) and the Securities and Exchange Commission.[*citation needed*] The Central Bank administers restrictions and controls on capital and money market instruments. The Bahamas International Securities Exchange currently consists of 19 listed public companies. Reflecting the relative soundness of the banking system (mostly populated by Canadian banks), the impact of the global financial crisis on the financial sector has been limited.[*citation needed*]

The economy has a very competitive tax regime. The government derives its revenue from import tariffs, license fees, property and stamp taxes, but there is no income tax, corporate tax, capital gains tax, value-added tax (VAT), or wealth tax. Payroll taxes fund social insurance benefits and amount to 3.9% paid by the employee and 5.9% paid by the employer.[25] In 2010, overall tax revenue as a percentage of GDP was 17.2%.[26] Authorities are trying to increase tax compliance and collection in the wake of the global crisis. Inflation has been moderate, averaging 3.7 percent between 2006 and 2008.[*citation needed*]

By the terms of GDP per capita, the Bahamas is one of the richest countries in the Americas.[27]

Ethnic groups

Main article: Demographics of The Bahamas

Afro-Bahamians

Afro-Bahamians or Bahamians of African descent are Bahamians whose ancestry lies within the continent of Africa, most notably West Africa. The first Africans to arrive to The Bahamas came from Bermuda with the Eleutheran Adventurers as freed slaves looking for a new life. Currently, Afro-Bahamians are the largest ethnic group in The Bahamas, accounting for some 85% of the country's population.[1]

Europeans

European Bahamians, or Bahamians of European descent, numbering about 38,000,[28] are mainly the descendants of the British Puritans and American Loyalists who arrived in 1649 and 1783 respectively.[29] They form the largest minority group in The Bahamas, making up some 12% of the population.[1] Many Southern Loyalists went to Abaco, which is about 50% white.[30]

A small portion of the European Bahamian population is descended from Greek labourers who came to help develop the sponging industry in the 1900s. Although making up less than 1% of the nation's population, they have been able to preserve their distinct Greek Bahamian culture.

One of the features of the Bahamian genealogy is that most families have branches, and even immediate family members, spanning the entire spectrum between ‘ light’, 'brown' and ‘unequivocally dark.’ [31]

Demographics

- **Population**: 354,563
- **Age structure**: 0–14 years: 25.9% (male 40,085; female 38,959)

  15–64 years: 67.2% (male 102,154; female 105,482)
  65 years and over: 6.9% (male 8,772; female 12,704) (2009 est.)

- **Population growth rate**: 0.925% (2010 est.)[32]
- **Birth rate**: 17.81 births/1,000 population (2010 est.)
- **Death rate**: 9.35 deaths/1,000 population (July 2010 est.)
- **Net migration rate**: -2.13 migrant(s)/1,000 population (2010 est.)
- **Infant mortality rate**: 23.21 deaths/1,000 live births (2010 est.)
- **Life expectancy at birth**: total population: 69.87 years.

  Female: 73.49 years (2002 est.)
  Male: 66.32 years

- **Total fertility rate**: 2.0 children born/woman (2010 est.)[33]
- **Nationality**: noun: Bahamian(s)
- **Adjective**: Bahamian /bəˈheɪmiən/
- **Ethnic groups**: African 85%, European 12%, Asian and Mestizo 3% (Roughly 1.5% each).[1]
- **Religions**: Baptist 35.4%, Anglican 15.1%, Roman Catholic 13.5%, Pentecostal 8.1%, Church of God

4.8%, Methodist 4.2%, other Christian 15.2%,[1] other Protestant 12%, none or unknown 3%, other 2%[34] The 'other' category includes Jews, Muslims, Baha'is, Hindus, Rastafarians, and practitioners of Obeah.[35]

- **Languages**: English (official), Bahamian dialect [36]
- **Literacy (age 15+)**: total population: 98.2%

  male: 98.5%
  female: 98% (1995 est.)[37]

Culture

Main articles: Culture of The Bahamas and Music of The Bahamas

In the less developed outer islands, handicrafts include basketry made from palm fronds. This material, commonly called "straw", is plaited into hats and bags that are popular tourist items. Another use is for so-called "Voodoo dolls," even though such dolls are the result of the American imagination and not based on historic fact.[38]



Junkanoo celebration in Nassau

Although not practised by native Bahamians, a form of folk magic obeah derived from West African origins, is practiced in some Family Islands (out-islands) of The Bahamas due to Haitian migration. The practice of obeah is however illegal in The Bahamas and punishable by law.[39] Junkanoo is a traditional African street parade of music, dance, and art held in Nassau (and a few other settlements) every Boxing Day, New Year's Day. Junkanoo is also used to celebrate other holidays and events such as Emancipation Day.

Regattas are important social events in many family island settlements. They usually feature one or more days of sailing by old-fashioned work boats, as well as an onshore festival.

Some settlements have festivals associated with the traditional crop or food of that area, such as the "Pineapple Fest" in Gregory Town, Eleuthera or the "Crab Fest" on Andros. Other significant traditions include story telling.

See also

- Outline of the Bahamas
- Bibliography of the Bahamas
- Index of Bahamas-related articles
- List of Bahamas-related topics
- List of Bahamians
- Lucayan Archipelago
- Transport in the Bahamas

Member of

- Caribbean Community

- Commonwealth of Nations
- Organization of American States
- United Nations

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History of the Bahamas

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of the Bahamas** begins with the earliest arrival of humans in the islands in the first millennium AD. The first inhabitants of the islands now known as The Bahamas were the Lucayans, an Arawakan-speaking Taino people, who arrived between about 500 and 800 from the islands of the Caribbean. Recorded history begins in 1492, when Christopher Columbus landed on the island of Guanahani, an unknown island somewhere in the Bahamas, on his first voyage. The earliest permanent European settlement occurred in 1647 on the island. The 18th century slave trade brought many Africans to the Bahamas. Their descendants constitute 85 percent of the Bahamian population. The Bahamas gained independence from the United Kingdom on July 10, 1973.

Contents

- 1 Pre-Columbian period
- 2 Spanish-Lucayan encounter
- 3 Early English settlement
- 4 Wreckers, privateers and pirates
- 5 Woodes Rogers
- 6 Mid-century
- 7 Loyalists
- 8 Post-emancipation
- 9 Late-colonial period
- 10 Post-independence era
- 11 See also
- 12 Notes
- 13 References
- 14 External links

Pre-Columbian period

The first inhabitants of the Bahamas were the Lucayans, a branch of the Arawakan-speaking Tainos of the Greater Antilles. Sometime between 500 to 800, Tainos began crossing in dugout canoes from Hispaniola and/or Cuba to the Bahamas. Suggested routes for the earliest migrations have been from Hispaniola to the Caicos Islands, from Hispaniola or eastern Cuba to Great Inagua Island, and from central Cuba to Long Island (in the central Bahamas). William Keegan argues that the most likely route was from Hispaniola or Cuba to Great Inagua. Granberry and Vescelius argue for two migrations, from Hispaniola to the Turks and Caicos Islands and from Cuba to Great Inagua.[1]

From the initial colonization(s) the Lucayans expanded throughout the Bahamas Islands in some 800 years (c. 700 – c. 1500), growing to a population of about 40,000. Population density at the time of first European contact was highest in the south central area of the Bahamas, declining towards the north, reflecting the progressively shorter time of occupation of the northern islands. Known Lucayan settlement sites are confined to the nineteen largest islands in the archipelago, or to smaller cays located less than one km. from those islands. Population density in the southern-most Bahamas remained lower, probably due to the drier climate there (less than 800 mm of rain a year on Great Inagua Island and the Turks and Caicos Islands and only slightly higher on Acklins and

Crooked Islands and Mayaguana).[2]

Spanish-Lucayan encounter

In 1492 Christopher Columbus sailed from Spain with three ships, the Nina, the Pinta and the flag ship The Santa Maria, seeking a direct route to Asia. On October 12, 1492 Columbus reached an island in the Bahamas, an event long regarded as the 'discovery' of America. This first island to be visited by Columbus was called Guanahani by the Lucayans, and San Salvador by the Spanish. The identity of the first American landfall by Columbus remains controversial, but many authors accept Samuel E. Morison's identification of what was then called Watling (or Watling's) Island as Columbus' San Salvador. The former Watling Island is now officially named San Salvador. Columbus visited several other islands in the Bahamas before sailing on to Cuba and afterward to Hispaniola.[3]

The Bahamas held little of interest to the Spanish other than as a source of slave labor. Nearly the entire population of Lucayans (almost 40,000 people total) were deported over the next 30 years. When the Spanish decided to evacuate the remaining Lucayans to Hispaniola in 1520, they could find only eleven in all of the Bahamas. The islands remained abandoned and depopulated for 130 years afterwards. With no gold to be found, and the population removed, the Spanish effectively abandoned the Bahamas, but still retained titular claims to them until the Treaty of Versailles in 1783.[4][5]

When Europeans first landed on the islands, they reported the Bahamas were lushly forested. The forests were cleared during plantation days and have not regrown.

Early English settlement

In 1648 a group from Bermuda called 'The Company of Adventurers for the Plantation of the Islands of Eleutheria' which was led by William Sayle, sailed to the Bahamas to found a colony. These early settlers were Puritans and republicans. Bermuda was also becoming overcrowded, and the Bahamas offered both religious and political freedom and economic opportunity. The larger of the company's two ships, the *William*, wrecked on the reef at the north end of what is now called Eleuthera Island, with the loss of all provisions. Despite the arrival of additional settlers, including whites, slaves and free blacks, from Bermuda and the receipt of relief supplies from Virginia and New England, the Eleuthera colony struggled for many years because of poor soil, fighting between settlers, and conflict with the Spanish. In the mid-1650s many of the settlers returned to Bermuda. The remaining settlers founded communities on Harbour Island and Saint George's Cay (Spanish Wells) at the north end of Eleuthera. In 1670 there were about 20 families living in the Eleuthera communities.[6]

In 1666 other settlers from Bermuda arrived on New Providence, which soon became the center of population and commerce in the Bahamas, with almost 500 people living on the island by 1670. Unlike the Eleutherians, who were primarily farmers, the first settlers on New Providence made their living from the sea, salvaging (mainly Spanish) wrecks, making salt, and taking fish, turtles, conchs and ambergris. Farmers from Bermuda soon followed the seamen to New Providence, where they found good, plentiful land. Neither the Eleutherian colony nor the settlement on New Providence had any legal standing under English law. In 1670 the Proprietors of Carolina were issued a patent for the Bahamas, but the governors sent by the Proprietors had difficulty in imposing their authority on the independent-minded residents of New Providence.[7]

The early settlers continued to live much as they had in Bermuda, fishing, hunting turtles, whales, and seals, finding ambergris, making salt on the drier islands, cutting the abundant hardwoods of the islands for lumber, dyewood and medicinal bark, and wrecking, or salvaging wrecks. The Bahamas were close to the sailing routes

between Europe and the Caribbean, so shipwrecks in the islands were common, and wrecking was the most lucrative occupation available to the Bahamians.[8]

For more details on this topic, see Wrecking (shipwreck)#Wrecking in the Bahamas.

Wreckers, privateers and pirates

The Bahamians soon came into conflict with the Spanish over the salvaging of wrecks. The Bahamian wreckers drove the Spanish away from their wrecked ships, and even attacked the Spanish salvagers and seized goods the Spanish had already recovered from the wrecks. The Spanish raided the Bahamas, the Bahamians in turn commissioned privateers against Spain, even though England and Spain were at peace, and in 1684 the Spanish burned the settlements on New Providence and Eleuthera, after which they were largely abandoned. New Providence was settled a second time in 1686 from Jamaica.

In the 1690s English privateers (England was at war with France) established themselves in the Bahamas. In 1696 Henry Every (or Avery), using the assumed name Henry Bridgeman, brought his ship *Fancy*, loaded with pirate's loot, into Nassau harbor. Every bribed the governor, Nicholas Trott (uncle of the Nicholas Trott who presided at the trial of Stede Bonnet), with gold and silver, and by leaving him the *Fancy*, still loaded with 50 tons of elephant tusks and 100 barrels of gunpowder. Following peace with France in 1697 many of the privateers became the pirates. From this time the pirates increasingly made the Bahamian capitol of Nassau, founded in 1694, their base. The governors appointed by the Proprietors usually made a show of suppressing the pirates, but most were often accused of dealing with the pirates. By 1701 England was at war with France and Spain. In 1703 and in 1706 combined French-Spanish fleets attacked and sacked Nassau, after which some settlers left and the Proprietors gave up on trying to govern the Bahamas.[9]

With no functioning government in the Bahamas, Nassau became a base of operations for English privateers, in what has been called a "privateers' republic," which lasted for eleven years. The raiders attacked French and Spanish ships, while French and Spanish forces burned Nassau several times. The War of the Spanish Succession ended in 1714, but some privateers were slow to get the news, or reluctant to accept it, and slipped into piracy. One estimate puts at least 1,000 pirates in the Bahamas in 1713, outnumbering the 200 families of more permanent settlers. The "privateers' republic" in Nassau became a "pirates' republic". At least 20 pirate captains used Nassau or other places in the Bahamas as a home port during this period, including Henry Jennings, Edward Teach (Blackbeard), Benjamin Hornigold and Stede Bonnet. Many settler families moved from New Providence to Eleuthera or Abaco to escape harassment from the pirates. On the other hand, residents of Harbor Island were happy to serve as middlemen for the pirates, as merchants from New England and Virginia came there to exchange needed supplies for pirate plunder.[10] As mentioned above, the activities of pirates provoked frequent and brutal retaliatory attacks by the French and Spanish.

Woodes Rogers

The "pirates' republic" came to an end in 1718, when Woodes Rogers, the first Royal Governor of the Bahamas, reached Nassau with a small fleet of warships. Starting in 1713, Rogers had conceived the idea of leading an expedition to Madagascar to suppress the pirates there and establish it as a British colony. Rogers' friends Richard Steele and Joseph Addison eventually convinced him to tackle the pirates nest in the Bahamas, instead. Rogers and others formed a company to fund the venture. They persuaded the Proprietors of Carolina to surrender the government of the Bahamas to the king, while retaining title to the land. The 1,000 or so pirates on the islands surrendered peacefully and the Proprietors then leased their land in the Bahamas to Rogers' company for 21 years. In 1717 King George appointed Rogers governor of the Bahamas and issued a proclamation

granting a pardon to any pirate who surrendered to a British governor within one year.[11]

Word of the appointment of a new governor and of the offer of pardons reached Nassau ahead of Rogers. Some of the pirates were willing to accept a pardon and retire from piracy. Others were not ready to give up. Many of those were Jacobites, supporters of the House of Stuart, who regarded themselves as enemies of the Hanoverian King George. Still others simply saw themselves as rebels, or thought they were better off as pirates than trying to earn an honest living. When a Royal Navy ship brought official word to Nassau of the pardon offer, it seemed at first that most of the pirates in Nassau would accept. Soon, however, the recalcitrant party gained the upper hand, eventually forcing the Navy ship to leave.[12]

Some pirates, such as Henry Jennings and Christopher Winter, sailed off to find British authorities to confirm their acceptance of the amnesty. Others, such as Blackbeard, Stede Bonnet, Nicholas Brown and Edmond Condent, left the Bahamas for other territories. Charles Vane, with "Calico Jack" Rackham and Edward England in his crew, came to prominence at this time. Vane worked to organize resistance to the anticipated arrival of Royal authority, even appealing to the James Francis Edward Stuart, the Stuart pretender, for aid in holding the Bahamas and capturing Bermuda for the Stuarts. As aid from the Stuarts failed to materialize and Rogers' arrival approached, Vane and his crew prepared to leave Nassau.[13]

Woodes Rogers arrived in Nassau in late July 1718, with his own 460 ton warship, three other ships belonging to his company, and escorted by three ships of the Royal Navy. Vane's ship was trapped in Nassau harbor. His crew set that ship on fire, sending it towards Rogers' ships, and escaped in the ensuing confusion in a smaller ship they had seized from another pirate. Rogers' arrival in Nassau was welcomed by the remaining population, about 200 settlers and 500 to 700 pirates who want to receive pardons, most prominently Benjamin Hornigold.[14]

Rogers had control of Nassau, but Charles Vane was loose and threatening to drive Rogers out, and Rogers received word that the King of Spain wanted to drive the English completely out of the Bahamas. Rogers worked to improve the defenses of Nassau, but an unidentified disease killed almost 100 of the men who had come to Nassau with Rogers, and then the Navy ships left. Rogers sent four of his ships to Havana to assure the Spanish governor that Rogers was suppressing piracy in the Bahamas and to trade for supplies. The crews of ex-pirates and men who had come with Rogers all turned pirate themselves. Ten of those men were caught at Green Turtle Cay by Rogers' new pirate-hunter, the ex-pirate Benjamin Hornigold. Eight of the pirates were found guilty and hanged in front of the fort.[15]

Charles Vane attacked several small settlements in the Bahamas, but after he refused to attack a stronger French frigate, he was deposed for cowardice and replaced as captain by "Calico Jack" Rackham. Vane never returned to the Bahamas, but was eventually caught, tried and executed in Jamaica. After nearly being captured by Jamaican privateers, and hearing that the king had extended the deadline being pardoned for piracy, Rackham and his crew returned to Nassau and received pardons from Woodes Rogers. In Nassau Rackham became involved with Anne Bonny and tried to arrange an annulment of her marriage to another ex-pirate, James Bonny. Rogers blocked the annulment, and Rackham and Bonny left Nassau to be pirates again, taking a small crew and Bonny's friend Mary Read with them. Within months, Rackham, Bonny and Read were captured and taken to Jamaica, where Rackham was executed and Bonny and Read escaped execution due to pregnancy. Bonny died in prison, while Read's fate is unknown.[16]

Britain and Spain went to war again in 1719, and many of the ex-pirates became privateers. A Spanish invasion fleet set out for the Bahamas, but was diverted to Pensacola, Florida when it was seized by the French. Rogers continued to improve the defenses of Nassau, spending his money and going heavily into debt to do so. A second Spanish invasion fleet in 1720 was deterred by the defenses (and the accidental presence of a Royal Navy ship in Nassau). His efforts has also physically exhausted Rogers. He returned to Britain in 1722 to plead for repayment of the money he had borrowed to build up Nassau, only to find he had been replaced as governor. He then ended

up in debtors' prison, although his creditors later absolved his debts, allowing him to leave prison. After the publication in 1724 of *A General History of the Robberies and Murders of the Most Notorious Pirates*, which gave a favorable account of Rogers' efforts to suppress piracy in the Bahamas, his fortunes began to improve. The king awarded him a pension, retroactive to 1721, and in 1728 appointed Governor of the Bahamas for a second term. Rogers dissolved the colony's assembly when it would not approve taxes to repair Nassau's defenses. Woodes Rogers died in Nassau in 1732.[17]

Mid-century

William Shirley, former governor of Massachusetts, was appointed governor of the Bahamas in 1758 and served until 1770.[18]

Loyalists

During the American War of Independence the Bahamas fell to Spanish forces under General Galvez in 1782. A British-American loyalist expedition later recaptured the islands. After the American Revolution, the British issued land grants to American Loyalists, and the sparse population of the Bahamas tripled within a few years. Cotton growing soon became established, but it eventually dwindled from insect damage and soil exhaustion. Most of the current inhabitants are descended from the slaves brought to work on the Loyalist plantations, or from liberated Africans set free by the British navy after the abolition of the slave trade in the British Empire in 1807. Plantation life ended with the British emancipation of slaves in 1834.

Post-emancipation

Main article: Bahamas in the American Civil War

During the American Civil War, the Bahamas prospered as a base for Confederate blockade-running, bringing in cotton for the mills of England and running out arms and munitions. During Prohibition after World War I, the islands were a base for American rum-runners,smuggling liquor into the US. None of these provided any lasting prosperity to the islands, nor did attempts to grow various crops. After emancipation Caribbean societies inherited a rigid racial stratification that was reinforced by the unequal distribution of wealth and power. The three-tier race structure, which existed well into the 1940s and in some societies beyond, upheld the belief of European racial superiority, although most West Indians are of African descent. Race and racial attitudes remain important in mixed Caribbean societies.

Late-colonial period

During World War II, the Allies centred their flight training and antisubmarine operations for the Caribbean in the Bahamas. The wartime airfield became Nassau's international airport in 1957 and helped spur the growth of mass tourism, which accelerated after Havana was closed to American tourists in 1961. Freeport, on the island of Grand Bahama, was established as a free trade zone in the 1950s and became the country's second city. Bank secrecy combined with the lack of corporate and income taxes led to a rapid growth in the offshore financial sector during the postwar years.

Post-independence era

Bahamians achieved self-government in 1964 and full independence within the Commonwealth of Nations on

July 10, 1973. The country's first prime minister was Lynden O. Pindling, leader of the Progressive Liberal Party. Pindling ruled for nearly 20 years, during which the Bahamas benefited from tourism and foreign investment. By the early 1980s, the islands had also become a major center for the drug trade, with 90% of all the cocaine entering the United States reportedly passing through the Bahamas. Diplomatic relations were established with Cuba in 1974. A decade later, as increased Cuban immigration to the islands strained the Bahamas' resources, Cuba refused to sign a letter of repatriation.

In September 2004, Hurricane Frances swept through the Bahamas, leaving widespread damage in its wake. Just three weeks later, Hurricane Jeanne flattened the islands. Jeanne uprooted trees, blew out windows, and sent seawater flooding through neighborhoods on the islands of Abaco and Grand Bahama. Receding floodwaters left boats tossed on roads and homes battered.

See also

- British colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of the British West Indies
- History of North America
- History of the Caribbean
- List of Prime Ministers of the Bahamas
- Politics of the Bahamas
- Spanish colonization of the Americas

Notes

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   Keegan:48-62
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   Craton:28-37
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9. ^ Albury:51-5
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   Woodard:12-14, 23-24
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    Craton:93-6
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Monarchy of the Bahamas

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of the Bahamas** is a system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign and head of state of the Commonwealth of The Bahamas. The current monarch is Queen Elizabeth II[1], who has reigned since the country became independent on 10 July 1973. The Bahamas share the Sovereign with a number of Commonwealth realms.[2] The Queen does not personally reside in the islands, and most of her constitutional roles are therefore delegated to her representative in the country, the Governor-General of the Bahamas. Royal succession is governed by the English Act of Settlement of 1701, which is part of constitutional law.

Queen of the Bahamas

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of the Bahamas



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	July 10, 1973

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  - 6.2 Other

International and domestic role

The Bahamas are one of sixteen independent nations, known as Commonwealth realms, which separately recognise the Queen as their individual monarch and head of state.[3] Despite sharing the same person as their respective monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms — including the Bahamas — is sovereign and independent of the others.

Development of shared monarchy

The *Balfour Declaration* of 1926 provided the dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of, in theory, a shared Crown that operates independently in each realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the dominions were secondary. The Monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both

legal and common language) for reasons historical, legal, and of convenience. The *Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, 1927* was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the *Statute of Westminster, 1931*.

Under the *Statute of Westminster*, the Bahamas have a common monarchy with Britain and the other Commonwealth realms, and though laws governing the line of succession to the Bahamian throne lie within the control of the Bahamian Parliament, the Bahamas cannot change the rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship by means of a constitutional amendment. This situation applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the UK.

On all matters of the Bahamian State, the Monarch is advised solely by Bahamian ministers.

Title

In the Bahamas, the Queen's official title is: *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of the Commonwealth of The Bahamas and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*.

This style communicates the Bahamas's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the Monarch's role specifically as Queen of the Bahamas, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms. Typically, the Sovereign is styled "Queen of the Bahamas," and is addressed as such when in the Bahamas, or performing duties on behalf of the Bahamas abroad.

Constitutional role

The Bahamian constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Bahamian in origin, which gives the Bahamas a similar parliamentary system of government as the other Commonwealth realms.

All powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the Monarch, who is represented by the Governor General of the Bahamas — appointed by the Monarch upon the advice of the Prime Minister of the Bahamas. The Monarch is informed of the Prime Minister's decision before the Governor General gives Royal Assent.

Duties

Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by the Governor-General. The Governor-General represents the Queen on ceremonial occasions such as the opening of Parliament, the presentation of honours and military parades. Under the Constitution, he or she is given authority to act in some matters, for example in appointing and disciplining officers of the civil service, in proroguing Parliament. As in the other Commonwealth realms, however, the Monarch's role, and thereby the vice-regent's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments operate, and the powers that are constitutionally hers are exercised almost wholly upon the advice of the Cabinet, made up of Ministers of the Crown. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". In exceptional circumstances, however, the Monarch or vice-regal can act against such advice based upon his or her reserve powers.

There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by the Queen. These include: signing the appointment papers of Governors General, the confirmation of awards of honours, and approving any change in her title.

It is also possible that if the Governor General decided to go against the Prime Minister's or the government's advice, the Prime Minister could appeal directly to the Monarch, or even recommend that the Monarch dismiss

the Governor General.

Succession



Charles, Prince of Wales, the current heir to the throne of the Bahamas

Succession to the throne is by male-preference primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, as well as the English Bill of Rights. These documents, though originally passed by the Parliament of England, are now part of the Bahamian constitutional law.

This legislation lays out the rules that the Monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As the Bahamas's laws governing succession are currently identical to those of the United Kingdom (by the *Statute of Westminster*) see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, who has no official title outside of the UK, but is accorded his UK title, Prince of Wales, as a courtesy title.

Legal role

All laws in the Bahamas are enacted with the sovereign's, or the vice-regal's signature. The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it and proclamation are required for all acts of Parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor General. The Vice-Regals may reserve a bill for the Monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the Monarch to make a personal decision on the bill. The Monarch has the power to disallow a bill (within a time limit specified by the constitution).

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects. The Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the Monarch personally are not cognizable. The Sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In the Bahamas the legal personality of the State is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of the Bahamas." For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right of the Bahamas. The monarch as an individual takes no more role in such an affair than in any other business of government.

Royal Presence

The Queen and members of the Royal Family have toured The Bahamas on several occasions. As part of larger Caribbean tours, the islands were visited by The Queen and her husband in February 1966 and February 1975, and again during her Silver Jubilee tour of October 1977.

There was a further visit to Nassau for the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting in October 1985. Earlier that year, Independence Day celebrations on the islands were attended by The Prince of Wales. The Queen returned again to The Bahamas in March 1994.

[4]

Barbados

Coordinates: 13°10′N 59°33′W

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Barbados (/bɑr'beɪdɒs/ or /bɑr'beɪdoʊs/) is an island country in the Lesser Antilles. It is 34 kilometres (21 mi) in length and as much as 23 kilometres (14 mi) in width, amounting to 431 square kilometres (166 sq mi). It is situated in the western area of the North Atlantic and 100 kilometres (62 mi) east of the Windward Islands and the Caribbean Sea;[6] therein, it is about 168 kilometres (104 mi) east of the islands of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and 400 kilometres (250 mi) north-east of Trinidad and Tobago. Barbados is outside of the principal Atlantic hurricane belt.

Barbados was initially visited by the Spanish around the late 1400s to early 1500s and first appears on a Spanish map from 1511.[7] The Spanish explorers may have plundered the island of whatever native peoples resided therein to become slaves.[7] Thereafter, the Portuguese in 1536 then visited, but they too left it unclaimed, with their only remnants being an introduction of wild hogs for a good supply of meat whenever the island was visited. The first English ship, the *Olive Blossom*, arrived in Barbados in 1624. They took possession of it in the name of 'James I, King of England'. Two years later in 1627 the first permanent settlers arrived from England and it became an English and later British colony.[8]

Barbados has an estimated population of 284,000 people,[9] with around 80,000 living in or around Bridgetown, the largest city and the country's capital.[10] In 1966, Barbados became an independent state and Commonwealth realm, retaining Queen Elizabeth II as Head of State.[11] Barbados is one of the Caribbean's leading tourist destinations and is one of the most developed islands in the region, with an HDI number of 0.788. In 2011 Barbados ranked 2nd in The Americas (16th globally) on Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index[12]

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- 2 History
- 3 Government and politics
  - 3.1 Law
  - 3.2 Judiciary
  - 3.3 Foreign relations

Barbados	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: "Pride and Industry"	
Anthem: "National Anthem of Barbados" **Royal anthem:** "God Save the Queen"	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Bridgetown 13°06′N 59°37′W
Official language(s)	English
Recognised regional languages	Bajan
Ethnic groups (2000)	80% Afro-Bajan 16% Asian and Multiracial 4% European
Demonym	Barbadian, Bajan (colloquial)
Government	Parliamentary democracy and Constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Acting Governor-General	Elliot Belgrave[1]
- Prime Minister	Freundel Stuart
Legislature	Parliament
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	House of Assembly
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	30 November 1966

- 3.4 Military
- 4 Geography and climate
  - 4.1 Geology
  - 4.2 Climate
  - 4.3 Environmental issues
- 5 Administrative divisions
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Area	
- Total	431 km^2 (200th) 166 sq mi
- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- 2009 estimate	284,589[2] (180th)
- 2001 census	250,012
- Density	660/km^2 (15th) 1,704/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$6.421 billion[3] (148th)
- Per capita	$23,156[3] (40th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$4.224 billion[3]
- Per capita	$15,234[3]
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.793[4] (Very High) (47nd)
Currency	Barbadian dollar ($) (BBD)
Time zone	Eastern Caribbean (UTC-4)
- Summer (DST)	*not observed* (UTC-4)
Drives on the	left[5]
ISO 3166 code	BB
Internet TLD	.bb
Calling code	+1 (spec. +1-246)

Etymology

According to accounts by descendants of the indigenous Arawakan-speaking tribes in other regional areas, the original name for Barbados was **Ichirouganaim**, with possible translations including "Red Land with White Teeth",[13] "Redstone island with teeth outside (reefs)",[14] or simply "Teeth".[15][16][17]

The reason for the later name Barbados is controversial. According to some sources The Portuguese, en route to Brazil,[18][19] were the first Europeans to come upon the island, while others say it was the Spanish which gave the Spanish name "Los Barbudos". The word *Barbados* means "bearded ones", but it is a matter of conjecture whether "bearded" refers to the long, hanging roots of the bearded fig-tree (*Ficus citrifolia*), indigenous to the island; to allegedly bearded Caribs once inhabiting the island; or, more fancifully, to the foam spraying over the outlying reefs giving the impression of a beard. In 1519, a map produced by the Genoese mapmaker Visconte Maggiolo showed and named Barbados in its correct position. Furthermore, an island in the Leewards which is very close in name to Barbados is Barbuda and was once named Las Barbudas by the Spanish.

Other names or nicknames associated with Barbados include "Bim" and "Bimshire". The origin is uncertain but several theories exist. The National Cultural Foundation of Barbados says that "Bim" was a word commonly used by slaves and that it derives from the phrase "bi mu" or either ("bem", "Ndi bem", "Nwanyi ibem" or "Nwoke ibem")[20] from an Igbo phrase meaning "my people". In colloquial or literary contexts, "Bim" can also take a more deific tone, referring to the "goddess" Barbados.[*citation needed*]

The word *Bim* and *Bimshire* are recorded in the Oxford English Dictionary and *Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionaries*. Another possible source for "Bim" is reported to be in the Agricultural Reporter of 25 April 1868, The Rev. N Greenidge (father of one of the island's most famous scholars, Abel Hendy Jones Greenidge) suggested the listing of Bimshire as a county of England. Expressly named were "Wiltshire, Hampshire, Berkshire and Bimshire".[20] Lastly in the *Daily Argosy* (of Demerara, i.e. Guyana) of 1652 it referred to Bim as a possible corruption of the word "Byam", who was a Royalist leader against the Parliamentarians. That source suggested the followers of Byam became known as Bims and became a word for all Barbadians.[20]

History

Main articles: History of Barbados and Timeline of Barbadian history

Amerindian settlement of Barbados dates to about the 4th to 7th century AD, by a group known as the Saladoid-Barrancoid.[21] In the 13th century, the Caribs arrived from South America.[22]

The Spanish and Portuguese briefly claimed Barbados from the late-16th to the 17th centuries, and may have seized the Arawaks on Barbados and used them as slave labour. Other Arawaks are believed to have fled to neighbouring islands. Apart from possibly displacing the Caribs, the Spanish and Portuguese left little impact and left the island uninhabited. Some Arawaks migrated from Guyana in the 1800s and continue to live in Barbados.[22][23][24]

From the arrival of the first English settlers in 1627–1628 until independence in 1966, Barbados was under uninterrupted British governance (and was the only Caribbean island that did not change hands during the colonial period). In the very early years, the majority of the population was white and male, with African slaves providing little of the workforce. Cultivation of tobacco, cotton, ginger and indigo was handled primarily by European indentured labour until the start of the sugar cane industry in the 1640s. As Barbados' economy grew, Barbados developed a large measure of local autonomy through its founding as a proprietary colony. Its House of Assembly began meeting in 1639. Among the initial important figures was Anglo-Dutchman Sir William Courten.

Government and politics

Main articles: Government of Barbados and Politics of Barbados


Parliament Building.

Barbados has been an independent country since 30 November 1966. It functions as a constitutional monarchy and parliamentary democracy, modelled on the British Westminster system, with Elizabeth II, Queen of Barbados, as head of state represented locally by the Governor-General, Elliot Belgrave and the Prime Minister as the head of the government. The number of representatives within the House of Assembly has gradually increased from twenty four at independence, to its present composition of thirty seats.

During the 1990s, at the suggestion of Trinidad and Tobago's Patrick Manning, Barbados attempted a political union with Trinidad and Tobago and Guyana. The project stalled after the then Prime Minister of Barbados Lloyd Erskine Sandiford became ill and his party (the Democratic Labour Party) lost the next general election.[25][26] Barbados continues to share close ties with Trinidad and Tobago and Guyana, claiming the highest number of Guyanese immigrants after the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom.

Barbados functions as a two-party system, the two dominant parties being the ruling Democratic Labour Party and the opposition, Barbados Labour Party. Until 2003, each party had served two terms in office alternately.[27] The election of 2003 gave the BLP a third term victory, at which time the Barbados Labour Party (BLP) achieved being in government for 14 years, (1994 until the 2008 elections). Under that administration, the former Prime Minister, The Right Honourable Owen S. Arthur acted as the Regional Leader of the CSM (Caribbean Single Market).

The Honourable David Thompson, who was elected Prime Minister of Barbados in 2008, died of pancreatic cancer on 23 October 2010. He was succeeded by Deputy Prime Minister Freundel Stuart, who was sworn in the same day.[28][29]

Barbados has had several third parties over a period of time since independence: The People's Pressure Movement formed in the early 1970s and contested the 1976 elections; The National Democratic Party, which contested the 1994 elections; and the People's Democratic Congress, which contested the 2008 elections. Apart from these there were several independents who contested the elections, but independents are yet to win a seat in Parliament.

Law

The Constitution of Barbados is the supreme law of the nation.[30] The Attorney General heads the independent judiciary. Historically, Barbadian law was based entirely on English common law with a few local adaptations. At the time of independence, the British Parliament ceased having the ability to change local legislation at its own discretion. British law and various legal statutes within British law at this time, and other prior measures adopted by the Barbadian parliament became the basis of the modern-day law system.

More recently, however, local Barbadian legislation may be shaped or influenced by such organisations as the United Nations, the Organization of American States, or other international fora to which Barbados has obligatory commitments by treaty. Additionally, through international cooperation, other institutions may supply the Barbados Parliament with key sample legislation to be adapted to meet local circumstances before crafting it as local law.

Laws are passed by the Barbadian Parliament, whereby upon their passage, are given official vice-regal assent by the Governor-General to become law.

In Barbados, camouflage clothing is reserved for military use and forbidden for civilians to wear, including children.[5]

As of October 2010, it is illegal for persons to smoke in public areas.

Judiciary

Main article: Judiciary of Barbados

The local court system of Barbados is made-up of:

- Magistrates' Courts: Covering Criminal, Civil, Domestic, Domestic Violence, and Juvenile matters. But can also take up matters dealing with Corornor's Inquests, Liquor Licences, and civil marriages. Further, the Magistrates' Courts deal with Contract and Tort law where claims do not exceed $10,000.00.[31]
- The Supreme Court: is made up of High Court and Court of Appeals.[31]
    - High Court: Consisting of Civil, Criminal, and Family law divisions.

    - Court of Appeal: Handles appeals from the High Court and Magistrates' Court. It hears appeals in both the civil, and criminal law jurisdictions. It may consist of a single Justice of Appeal sitting in Chambers; or may sit as a Full Court of three Justices of Appeals.
- The Caribbean Court of Justice (CCJ), (based in Port Of Spain, Trinidad and Tobago), is the court of last resort (final jurisdiction) over Barbadian law. It replaced the London-based Judicial Committee of the Privy Council (JCPC). The CCJ may resolve other disputed matters dealing with the Caribbean (CARICOM) Single Market and Economy (CSME).

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Barbados

Barbados is a full and participating member of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), Caribbean Single Market and Economy (CSME), and the Association of Caribbean States (ACS).[32] Organization of American States (OAS), Commonwealth of Nations, and the Caribbean Court of Justice (CCJ), which currently pertains only to Barbados, Belize and Guyana. In 2001 the Caribbean Community heads of government voted on a measure declaring that the region should work towards replacing the UK's Judicial Committee of the Privy Council with the Caribbean Court of Justice.

Barbados is an original Member (1995) of the World Trade Organisation (WTO), and participates actively in its work. It grants at least MFN treatment to all its trading partners. As of December 2007, Barbados is linked by an Economic Partnership Agreement with the European Commission. The pact involves the Caribbean Forum (CARIFORUM) subgroup of the Group of African, Caribbean, and Pacific states (ACP). CARIFORUM presently the only part of the wider ACP-bloc that has concluded the full regional trade-pact with the European Union.

Trade policy has also sought to protect a small number of domestic activities, mostly food production, from foreign competition, while recognising that most domestic needs are best met by imports.

Military

The Barbados Defence Force has roughly 600 members; within it, 12-to-18-year-old youngsters make up the Barbados Cadet Corps.

Geography and climate

Main article: Geography and climate of Barbados

Barbados is the easternmost island in the Lesser Antilles. It is flat in comparison to its island neighbours to the west, the Windward Islands. The island rises gently to the central highland region, with the highpoint of the nation being Mount Hillaby, in the Scotland District, 340 metres (1,120 ft) above sea level. The island is situated in the Atlantic Ocean, east of the other West Indies Islands.

In the parish of Saint Michael lies Barbados' capital and main city, Bridgetown. Other major towns scattered across the island include Holetown, in the parish of Saint James; Oistins, in the parish of Christ Church; and Speightstown, in the parish of Saint Peter.

Geology

Barbados lies on the boundary of the South American and the Caribbean Plates.[33] The shift of the South



Beach near Bridgetown, Barbados.



Map of Barbados

American plate beneath the Caribbean plate scrapes sediment from the South American plate and deposits it above the subduction zone forming an accretionary prism. The rate of this depositing of material allows Barbados to rise at a rate of about 25 millimetres (0.98 in) per 1,000 years.[34] This subduction means geologically the island is composed of coral roughly (90 m/300 ft thick), where reefs formed above the sediment. The land slopes in a series of "terraces" in the west and goes into an incline in the east. A large proportion of the island is circled by coral reefs. The erosion of limestone rock in the North East of the island, in the Scotland District has resulted in the formation of various caves and gullys, some of which have become popular tourist attractions such as Harrison's Cave and Welchman Hall Gully. On the Atlantic East coast of the island coastal landforms including stacks have been created due to the limestone composition of the area.

Climate

The country is generally split into a period of two seasons one of which includes noticeably higher rainfall. Known as the "wet season", this period runs from March–November, In contrast, the "dry season" runs December–May. The annual precipitation ranges between 40 inches (1,000 mm) and 90 inches (2,300 mm). From December–May the average temperatures range from 21 to 31 °C (70 to 88 °F), while between June–November, they range from 23 to 31 °C (73 to 88 °F).[35]

On the Köppen climate classification scale, much of Barbados is regarded as a Tropical monsoon climate (Am). However, gentle breezes of 12–16 kilometres per hour (8–10 mph) abound throughout the year and give Barbados a warm climate which is moderately tropical.

Infrequent natural hazards include: earthquakes, landslips, and hurricanes. Barbados is often spared the worst effects of the region's tropical storms and hurricanes during the rainy season. The far eastern location in the Atlantic Ocean puts the country just outside the principal hurricane strike zone. On average, a major hurricane strikes about once every 26 years. The last significant hit from a hurricane to cause severe damage to Barbados was Hurricane Janet in 1955, and more recently in 2010 the island was struck by Hurricane Tomas, but this only caused minor damage across the country.[36]

Environmental issues

The island is susceptible to environmental pressures. As one of the world's most densely populated isles, the government worked during the 1990s[37] to aggressively integrate the growing south coast of the island into the Bridgetown Sewage Treatment Plant to reduce contamination of offshore coral reefs.[38][39] As of the 2000s, a second treatment plant has been proposed along the islands' west coast. With such a dense populus, Barbados has placed large efforts on protecting its underground aquifers. As a coral-limestone island, Barbados is highly permeable to seepage of surface water into the earth. As such, a major emphasis by the government has been placed on protecting the catchment areas (in specific surface areas known as buffer zones) that lead directly into

the huge network of underground aquifers and streams.[40] On occasion illegal squatters have breached these areas, and the government has removed squatters in order to preserve the cleanliness of the underground springs for islands drinking water.[41] The government has placed a huge emphasis on keeping Barbados clean with the aim of protecting the environment and preserving offshore coral reefs which surround the island. Many initiatives to mitigate human pressures on the coastal regions of Barbados and seas is the Coastal Zone Management Unit (CZMU) (http://www.coastal.gov.bb/) .[42] Barbados has nearly 90 km of coral reefs just offshore and two protected marine parks have been established off the west coast.[43] Over fishing is another threat which faces Barbados.[44]

Barbados is host to four species of nesting turtles (green turtles, loggerheads, and leatherbacks) and has the second largest hawksbill turtle breeding population in the Caribbean.[45] The driving of vehicles on beaches can crush nests buried in the sand and such activity should be avoided in nesting areas.[46]

Though on the opposite side of the Atlantic, and some 3000 miles west of Africa, Barbados is one of many places in the American continent which experiences heightened levels of mineral dust from the Sahara Desert.[47] Some particularly intense dust episodes have been blamed partly for the impacts on the health of coral reefs[48] surrounding Barbados or asthmatic episodes,[49] but evidence has not wholly supported the former such claim.[50]

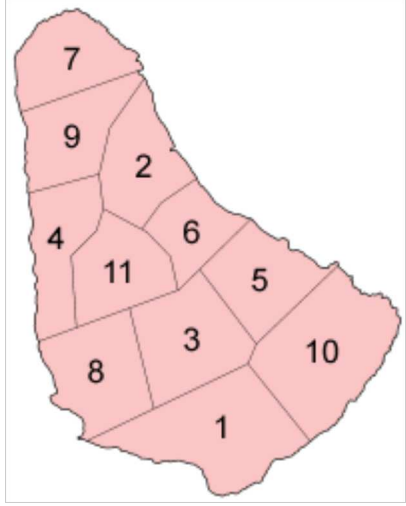
Administrative divisions

Main article: Parishes of Barbados

Barbados is divided into 11 parishes:

1. Christ Church
2. Saint Andrew
3. Saint George
4. Saint James
5. Saint John
6. Saint Joseph
7. Saint Lucy
8. Saint Michael
9. Saint Peter
10. Saint Philip
11. Saint Thomas

St. George and St. Thomas located in the middle of the country are the only two parishes without coastlines.



Map of the parishes of Barbados

Economy

Main article: Economy of Barbados

Barbados is the 51st richest country in the world in terms of GDP (Gross domestic product) per capita,[3] has a well-developed mixed economy, and a moderately high standard of living. According to the World Bank, Barbados is classified as being in its 66 top High income economies of the world.[51]

Historically, the economy of Barbados had been dependent on sugarcane cultivation and related activities, but in the late 1970s and early 1980s it has diversified into the manufacturing and tourism sectors. Offshore finance and information services have become important foreign exchange earners, and there is a healthy light manufacturing sector. Since the 1990s the Barbados Government has been seen as business-friendly and economically sound.[*citation needed*] The island has seen a construction boom, with the development and redevelopment of hotels, office complexes, and homes.[*citation needed*]

Recent government administrations have continued efforts to reduce unemployment, encourage foreign direct investment, and privatise remaining state-owned enterprises. Unemployment has been reduced to 10.7 in 2003.[2]

The economy contracted in 2001 and 2002 due to slowdowns in tourism, consumer spending and the impact of the 11 September 2001 attacks, but rebounded in 2003 and has shown growth since 2004.[2] Traditional trading partners include Canada, the Caribbean Community (especially Trinidad and Tobago), the United Kingdom and the United States.

Business links and investment flows have become substantial: as of 2003 the island saw from Canada CA$ 25 billion in investment holdings, placing it as one of Canada's top five destinations for Canadian foreign direct investment (FDI). Businessman Eugene Melnyk of Toronto, Canada, is said to be Barbados' richest permanent resident.[*citation needed*]

It has been reported that the year 2006 would have been one of the busiest years for building construction ever in Barbados, as the building-boom on the island entered the final stages for several multi-million dollar commercial projects.[52]

The European Union is presently assisting Barbados with a €10 million programme of modernisation of the country's International Business and Financial Services Sector.[53]

Barbados maintains the third largest stock exchange in the Caribbean region. At present, officials at the stock exchange are investigating the possibility of augmenting the local exchange with an International Securities Market (ISM) venture.[54]

Tourism

Barbados has numerous internationally known hotels. Time-shares are available, and many of the smaller local hotels and private villas which dot the island have space available if booked in advance. The southern and western coasts of Barbados are popular, with the calm light-blue Caribbean Sea and their white and pinkish sandy beaches. Along the island's east coast, which faces the Atlantic Ocean, there are tumbling waves that are perfect for light surfing. Some areas remain risky to swimmers due to under-tow currents.

Shopping districts are popular in Barbados, with ample duty-free shopping. There is also a festive night-life in mainly tourist areas such as the Saint Lawrence Gap. Other attractions include wildlife reserves (Graeme Hall Nature Sanctuary), jewellery stores, scuba diving, helicopter rides, golf, festivals (the largest being the annual Crop Over festival July/Aug), sightseeing, cave exploration (Harrison's Cave), exotic drinks and fine clothes shopping.

Attractions, landmarks and points of interest

Tourism accounts for almost one half of the economy. Name / Parish Location:

– **Christ Church**

- Graeme Hall Nature Sanctuary
- Saint Lawrence Gap
- Grantley Adams International Airport
- Chancery Lane Swamp
- Christ Church Foundation School (1809)
- Ocean Park, Barbados

– **St. Andrew**

- Chalky Mount potteries
- Cherry Tree Hill
- Morgan Lewis Windmill
- Barclays Park

– **St. George**

- Francia Great House
- Gun Hill Signal Station
- Orchid World

– **St. James**

- St. James Parish Church
- Folkestone Marine Park
- Lancaster Great House Gallery and Gardens (http://www.lancastergreathousegallery.com)
- Queen's College

– **St. John**

- Codrington College
- Conset Bay
- St. John Parish Church & church yard
- Massiah Street

– **St. Joseph**

- Andromeda Gardens
- Flower Forest
- Hackleton's Cliff
- Bathsheba

– **St. Lucy**

- Animal Flower Cave
- Little Bay
- Shamarra's House

– **St. Michael**

- Barbados Historical Museum
- Bridgetown Synagogue and Cemetery
- Bussa Emancipation Statue
- Ilaro Court
- Garrison Savannah
- Kensington Oval
- Mount Gay Rum
- Barbados National Museum
- George Washington House
- The Salvation Army Divisional Headquarters

– **St. Peter**

- Barbados Wildlife Reserve
- Farley Hill National Park
- St Nicholas Abbey

– **St. Philip**

- Crane Beach
- Sunbury Plantation
- Bayley's Plantation

– **St. Thomas**

- Clifton Hill Moravian Church
- Harrison's Cave
- Sharon Moravian Church
- Welchman Hall Gully

List of: Cities, towns and villages in Barbados.

- Bridgetown
- Holetown
- Oistins
- Six Cross Roads
- Speightstown

- Saint Lawrence Gap
- Warrens
- Black Rock, Barbados
- Bank Hall

Demographics

Main articles: Demographics of Barbados and Barbadian people



A bus stop in Barbados

Barbados has a population of about 281,968 and a population growth rate of 0.33% (Mid-2005 estimates). It currently ranks as: the 4th most densely populated country in the Americas (18th globally), and the 10th most populated island country in the region, (101st globally). Close to 90% of all Barbadians (also known colloquially as *Bajan*) are of African descent ("Afro-Bajans") and mixed-descent. The remainder of the population includes groups of Europeans ("Anglo-Bajans" / "Euro-Bajans") mainly from the United Kingdom, Ireland, Chinese, Bajan Muslims from India. Other groups in Barbados include people from the United Kingdom, United States and Canada. Barbadians who return after years of residence in the U.S. and children born in America to Bajan parents are called "Bajan Yankees", this term is considered derogatory by some.[55] Generally, Bajans recognise and accept all 'children-of-the-island' as Bajans, and refer to each other as such.


High Street

The biggest communities outside the Afro-Caribbean community are:

1. The Indo-Guyanese, an important part of the economy due to the increase of immigrants from partner country Guyana. There are reports of a growing Indo-Bajan diaspora originating from Guyana and India. They introduced roti and other Indian dishes to Barbados' culture. Mostly from southern India and Hindu states, they are growing in size but smaller than the equivalent communities in Trinidad & Guyana.
2. Euro-Bajans (4% of the population)[2] have settled in Barbados since the 16th century, originating from England, Ireland and Scotland. In 1643, there were 37,200 whites in Barbados (86% of the population).[56] More commonly they are known as "White Bajans". Euro-Bajans introduced folk music, such as Irish music and Highland music, and certain place names, such as "Scotland", a mountainous region. Among White Barbadians there exists an underclass known as Redlegs; the descendants of indentured servants, and prisoners imported to the island.[57] Many additionally moved on to become the earliest settlers of modern-day North and South Carolina in the United States.
3. Chinese are a minute portion of Barbados' Asian demographics, far smaller than the equivalent communities of Jamaica and Trinidad. Most if not all first arrived in the 1940s during the Second World War, originating mainly from the then British territory of Hong Kong. Many Chinese-Bajans have the surnames Chin, Chynn or Lee, although other surnames prevail in certain areas of the island. [*citation needed*]
4. Lebanese and Syrians form the Arab community on the island and the Muslim minority among them make up a small percentage of the Muslim population. The majority of the Lebanese and Syrians arrived in Barbados due to trade opportunities. Although in the numbers are dwindling due to emigration and immigration to other countries.

5. Jewish people arrived in Barbados just after the first settlers in 1627. Bridgetown is the home of the oldest Jewish Synagogue in the Americas, dating from 1654, though the current structure was erected in 1833 replacing one ruined by the hurricane of 1831. Tombstones in the neighbouring cemetery date from the 1630s. Now under the care of the Barbados National Trust the site was deserted in 1929, but was subsequently saved and restored by the Jewish community in 1983.
6. Indians from Gujarat in India make up majority of the Muslim population. Muslim-Indian Barbadians are often perceived to be the most successful group in business, along with the Chinese Bajans.[*citation needed*]

The average life expectancy is 72 years for males and 77 years for females.[2] Barbados and Japan have the highest per capita occurrences of centenarians in the world.[58]

Languages

English is the root official language of Barbados, and is used for communications, administration, and public services all over the island. In its capacity as the official language of the country, the standard of English tends to conform to the vocabulary, pronunciations, spellings, and conventions akin to, but not exactly the same as, those of British English. A regional variant of English, referred to locally as Bajan, is spoken by most Barbadians in everyday life, especially in informal settings. In its full-fledged form, Bajan sounds markedly different from the Standard English heard on the island.

The degree of intelligibility between Bajan and general English changes depending on the speakers' origins and the "rawness" of one's accent. In rare instances, a Bajan speaker may be completely unintelligible to an outside English speaker if sufficient slang terminology is present in a sentence. Bajan is somewhat differentiated from, but highly influenced by other Caribbean English dialects; it is a fusion of British English and elements borrowed from the languages of West Africa. Hindi and Bhojpuri are also spoken on the island by a small Indo-Bajan minority. Spanish is considered the most popular second language on the island, followed by French.
[*citation needed*]

Religion

Main article: Religion in Barbados

Most Barbadians of African and European descent are Christians (95%), chiefly Anglicans (40%). Other Christian denominations with significant followings in Barbados are the Roman Catholic Church,Pentecostals (Evangelicals) Jehovah's Witnesses, Seventh-Day Adventist and Spiritual Baptists. The Church of England was the official state religion until its legal disenfranchisement by the Parliament of Barbados following independence.[59] Religious minorities include Hindus, Muslims, the Baha'i Faith,[60] Jews and Wiccans.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Barbados

See also: Music of Barbados and Rihanna

The influence of the English on Barbados is more noticeable than on other islands in the West Indies. A good example of this is the island's national sport: cricket. Barbados has brought forth several great cricketers, including Sir Garfield Sobers and Frank Worrell.

Citizens are officially called Barbadians. The term "Bajan" (pronounced "beijan) may have come from a localised pronunciation of the word Barbadian which at times can sound more like "Bar-bajan".

The largest carnival-like cultural event which takes place on the island is the *Crop Over* festival. As in many other Caribbean and Latin American countries, *Crop Over* is an important event for many people on the island, as well as the thousands of tourists that flock to the island to participate in the annual events. The festival includes musical competitions and other traditional activities. The male and female Barbadian that harvested the most sugarcane are also crowned as the King and Queen of the crop.[61] It gets under way from the beginning of July, and ends with the costumed parade on Kadooment Day, held on the first Monday of August.

In the music business, Rihanna is currently one of Barbados' most well known Grammy winning artists. As of 2009 she was appointed as an official Honorary Ambassador of youth and culture for Barbados by the late Prime Minister, David Thompson.



Growing up in Barbados, Rihanna became one of the biggest international pop icons.

Health

Similar to other nations within the Commonwealth of Nations all Barbadian citizens are covered by national healthcare. Barbados has over twenty policlinics throughout the country in addition to the Queen Elizabeth Hospital (General Hospital) located in Bridgetown. In 2011 the Government of Barbados signed a Memorandum of Understanding to lease its 22-acre Saint Joseph Hospital to Denver, Colorado based America World Clinics. Under the deal the group will use Barbados as one of its main destinations for medical tourism at that facility. The government also announced it would begin constructing a new $800 million dollar state-of-the-art hospital to replace the QEH.

Education and literacy

Main article: Education in Barbados

Barbados' literacy rate is ranked close to 100%, with both UNESCO and the Minister of Education stating that Barbados was in the top 5 countries worldwide for literacy rate.[62] thus placing the country alongside many of the industrialised nations of the world. The mainstream public education system of Barbados is fashioned after the British model. The government of Barbados spends 6.7% of the GDP on education (2008).[2] All young people in the country must attend school until age 16. Barbados has over 70 primary schools, and over 20 secondary schools throughout the island. There are also a number of private schools catering to various teaching models including Montessori and International Baccalaureate. Degree level education in the country is provided by the Barbados Community College, the Samuel Jackman Prescod Polytechnic, and a local Cave Hill campus of the University of the West Indies

Sports

Main article: Sport in Barbados

As in other Caribbean countries of British colonial heritage, cricket is very popular on the island. Barbadians play on the West Indies cricket team. In addition to several warm-up matches and six "Super Eight" matches, and the country hosted the final of the 2007 Cricket World Cup. They have had many great cricketers such as Sir Garfield Sobers, Sir Frank Worrell, Sir Clyde Walcott, Sir Everton Weekes, Gordon Greenidge, Joel Garner and Malcolm Marshall.



The Kensington Oval, in Bridgetown hosted the 2007 Cricket World Cup final.Cricket is one of the most followed games in the nation and the Kensignton Oval is often referred to as the 'Mecca in Cricket' due to its significance and contributions to the sport.

Obadele Thompson is a world class sprinter from Barbados; he won a bronze medal at Olympic Games over 100m in 2000. Ryan Brathwaite, a hurdler, reached the 2008 Olympic semi-finals in Beijing. Brathwaite also earned Barbados its first ever medal at the world championships in Berlin, Germany on 20 August 2009, when he won the men's 110 meter hurdles title. The 21-year-old timed a national record of 13.14 seconds to win the Gold Medal.

Polo is very popular amongst the rich 'elite' on the island and the 'High-Goal' Apes Hill team is based in the St James's Club.[63] It is also played at the private Holders Festival ground.

In golf, the Barbados Open is an annual stop on the European Seniors Tour. In December 2006 the WGC-World Cup took place at the country's Sandy Lane resort on the Country Club course, an 18-hole course designed by Tom Fazio. The Barbados Golf Club is the other main course on the island. Sanctioned by the PGA European Tour to host a PGA Seniors Tournament in 2003 and it has also hosted the Barbados Open on several occasions.

Basketball is a popular sport played at school or college and is increasing in popularity, as is volleyball, though volleyball is mainly played indoors.

Motorsports also play a role, with Rally Barbados occurring each summer and currently being listed on the FIA NACAM calendar.

The presence of the trade winds along with favourable swells make the southern tip of the Island an ideal location for wave sailing (an extreme form of the sport of windsurfing).

Netball is also popular with women in Barbados.

Barbadian team The Flyin' Fish, are the 2009 Segway Polo World Champions.[64]

Transport

Main article: Transport in Barbados

In addition to being one of the world's most densely populated countries, Barbados also has one of the most dense road networks in the world. Although Barbados is only about 34 kilometres (21 mi) at its widest point, a car journey from Six Cross Roads in St. Philip (south-east) to North Point in St. Lucy (north-central) can take one and a half hours or longer, thanks to the country's narrow, winding and rough roads.

Barbados has half as many registered cars as citizens in the country. The first letter of a vehicle's licence plate designates its usage or owner's registered parish of residence. "Z" and "ZR" are for taxis; "H" for rental cars; "B"

for buses and minibuses; "CD" for diplomatic cars; and "3D" or "7D" for defence force vehicles, while "ML" or "MP" with green plates usually designate military, police or government vehicles. As regards residence, "X" is for Christ Church; "A" for St. Andrew; "G" for St. George; "S" for St. James; "J" for St. John; "O" for St. Joseph; "L" for St. Lucy; "M" for St. Michael; "E" for St. Peter; "P" for St. Philip; and "T" for St. Thomas.



Typical ZR-van with markings indicating that it serves the number 11 route.

Public transport on the island is relatively convenient, with 'route taxis', called "ZRs" (pronounced "Zed-Rs"), travelling to most points on the island. These small buses can at times be crowded, as passengers are generally never turned down, regardless of the number. However, they will usually take the more scenic routes to destinations. They generally depart from the capital Bridgetown or from Speightstown in the northern part of the island.



Old Barbados Transport Board bus in Bridgetown.

Including the ZRs there are three bus systems running seven days a week (though less frequently on Sundays). There's ZRs, the yellow minibuses and the blue Transport Board buses. A ride on any of them costs BBD$2.00. The smaller buses from the two privately owned systems ("ZRs" and "minibuses") can give change; the larger blue buses from the government-operated Barbados Transport Board system cannot, but do give receipts. Children in school uniform ride for free on the government buses and for $1.50 on the minibuses and ZRs. Most routes require a connection in Bridgetown. Some drivers within the competitive privately owned systems are reluctant to advise persons to use competing services, even if those would be more suitable.

Some hotels also provide visitors with shuttles to points of interest on the island from outside the hotel lobby. There are several locally owned and operated vehicle rental agencies in Barbados but there are no multi-national companies.



A Mini Moke at Speightstown beach

The island's lone airport is the Grantley Adams International Airport. It receives daily flights by several major airlines from points around the globe, as well as several smaller regional commercial airlines and charters. The airport serves as the main air-transportation hub for the eastern Caribbean. In the first decade of 21st century it underwent a US$100 million upgrade and expansion.

There is also a helicopter shuttle service, which offers air taxi services to a number of sites around the island, mainly on the West Coast tourist belt. Air and maritime traffic is regulated by the Barbados Port Authority.

See also

- Outline of Barbados
- Index of Barbados-related articles
- Commonwealth of Nations
- International rankings of Barbados
- Lesser Antilles
- List of Barbadians

History of Barbados

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Barbados was inhabited by Arawaks and Caribs at the time of European colonization in the 16th century. The island was a British colony from 1625 until 1966. Since 1966, it has been a constitutional monarchy and parliamentary democracy, modelled on the British Westminster system, with Elizabeth II, Queen of Barbados, as head of state.

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Early history

Some evidence exists that Barbados may not have been settled in the second millennium BC, but this is limited to fragments of conch lip adzes found in association with shells radiocarbon dated to c.1630 BC.[1] Fully documented Amerindian settlement dates to between about 350 to 650 AD, by a group known as the Saladoid-Barrancoid, who arrived from mainland South America. A second wave of migrants appeared around the year 800 (the Spanish referred to these people as "Arawaks") and a third in the mid-13th century (called "Caribs" by the Spanish). This last group was more politically organised and came to rule over the others. Frequent slave-raiding missions by the Spanish Empire in the early 16th century led to a massive decline in the Amerindian population of Barbados so that by 1541 a Spanish writer could claim they were uninhabited. The Amerindians were either captured for use as slaves by the Spanish or fled to other, more easily defensible mountainous islands nearby.[2]

From about 1600 the English, French and Dutch began to found colonies in the North American mainland and the smaller islands of the West Indies. Although Spanish and Portuguese sailors likely had visited Barbados, the Commonwealth of England was the first Europeans to establish a lasting settlement in Barbados from 1627. England is commonly attributed as making their initial claim of Barbados in 1625, though reportedly an earlier claim may have been made in 1620. Nonetheless, by 1625 Barbados was claimed in the name of King James I of England. Despite earlier settlements by England in The Americas, (1607:Jamestown, 1609:Bermuda, and

1620:Plymouth Colony, and closer to Barbadoes the Leeward Islands were claimed by the English at about the same time as Barbados: 1623: St Kitts, 1628: Nevis, 1632: Montserrat, 1632: Antigua.), Barbados quickly grew to became the third major English settlement in the Americas due to its prime eastern location.



James Hay (Lord Carlisle), made Lord Proprietor of Barbadoes by King Charles I on 2 July 1627.

1627–1639

Early English settlement

The first English ship arrived on 14 May 1625 and was captained by John Powell. The first settlement began some time later on 17 February 1627, near what is now Holetown (formerly Jamestown).[3] The group was led by John Powell's younger brother, Henry, who arrived with 80 settlers and 10 slaves—these first ten slaves were among the sometimes kidnapped and other times runaway English or Irish youth. This settlement established as a proprietary colony and was funded by Sir William Courten, a London merchant who owned the title to Barbados and several other islands. Thus, the first colonists were actually tenants and the profits of their labour returned to Courten and his company.

Courten would later lose this title to James Hay, 1st Earl of Carlisle in what was called the "Great Barbados Robbery." Carlisle then chose as governor Henry Hawley. It was he who established the House of Assembly in 1639, in an effort to appease the planters who might otherwise oppose his controversial appointment.

In the period 1640–60 the West Indies attracted over two thirds of English emigrants to the New World. By 1650 there were 44,000 Anglo settlers in the West Indies, as compared to 12,000 on the Chesapeake and 23,000 in New England. Most Anglo emigrants arrived as indentured servants. After five years of labour, they were given 'freedom dues' of about £10, usually in goods. (Before the mid-1630s, they also received 5 to 10 acres of land but after that time the island filled up and there was no free land.) Around the time of Cromwell a number of rebels and criminals were also transported. The death rate was very high (Parish registers from the 1650s show, for the white population, four times as many deaths as marriages.)

Before this the main stay of the infant colony's economy was the growth export of tobacco, but tobacco prices eventually fell in the 1630s as Chesapeake production expanded.

1640–1680's, 18th century

England's civil war

Around the same time fighting during the War of the Three Kingdoms and the Interregnum spilled over into Barbados and Barbadian territorial waters. The island was not involved in the war until after the execution of Charles I, when the island's government fell under the control of Royalists (ironically the Governor, Philip Bell, remained loyal to Parliament while the Barbadian House of Assembly, under the influence of Humphrey Walrond, supported Charles II). To try to bring the recalcitrant colony to heel, the Commonwealth Parliament passed an act on 3 October 1650 which prohibited trade between England and the island, and because the island also traded with the Netherlands, further navigation acts were passed prohibiting any but English vessels trading with Dutch colonies. These acts were a precursor to the First Anglo-Dutch War. The Commonwealth of England sent an invasion force under the command of Sir George Ayscue which arrived in October 1651. After some skirmishing, the Royalists supporters in the Barbados House of Assembly led by Lord Willoughby surrendered. The conditions of surrender were incorporated into the Charter of Barbados (Treaty of Oistins), which was signed in the Mermaid's Inn, Oistins, on 17 January 1652.[4]

Sugar cultivation

The introduction of sugarcane from Dutch Brazil completely transformed society and the economy. Barbados eventually had one of the world's biggest sugar industries after starting sugar cane cultivation in 1640.[5] One group which was instrumental for ensuring the early success of the sugar cane industry were the Sephardic Jews, who originally been expelled from the Iberian peninsula to end up in Dutch Brazil.[5] As the effects of the new crop increased, so did the shift in the ethnic composition of Barbados and surrounding islands. The workable sugar plantation required a large investment and a great deal of heavy labour. At first, Dutch traders supplied the equipment, financing, and African slaves, in addition to transporting most of the sugar to Europe. In 1644 the population of Barbados was estimated at 30,000, of this amount about 800 were of African decent, with the remainder mainly of white Anglo descent. These white Anglo smallholders were eventually bought out and the island was filled up with large African slave-worked sugar plantations. By 1660 there was near parity with 27,000 blacks and 26,000 whites. By 1666 at least 12,000 white smallholders had been bought out, died, left or the island. Many of the remaining whites were increasingly poor. By 1680 there were seventeen slaves for every indentured servant. By 1700, there were 15,000 free whites and 50,000 enslaved blacks.

Due to the increased implementation of slave codes, which created differential treatment between Africans and the white workers and ruling planter class, the island became increasingly unattractive to poor whites. Black or slave codes were implemented in 1661, 1676, 1682, and 1688. In response to these codes, several slave rebellions were attempted or planned during this time, but none succeeded. Nevertheless, poor whites who had or acquired the means to emigrate often did so. Planters expanded their importation of African slaves to cultivate sugar cane.

By 1660, Barbados generated more trade than all the other English colonies combined. This remained until it was eventually surpassed by geographically larger islands like Jamaica in 1713. Even though, in 1730–31 the estimated value of the colony of Barbados was as much as £5,500,000.[6] Bridgetown, the capital, was one of the three largest cities in British America (the other two were Boston, Massachusetts and Port Royal, Jamaica.) By 1700 the English West Indies produced 25,000 tons of sugar, compared to 20,000 for Brazil, 10,000 for the French islands and 4,000 for the Dutch islands.[7] This quickly replaced tobacco plantations on the islands which were previously the main export.

As the sugar industry developed into its main commercial enterprise, Barbados was divided into large plantation estates that replaced the smallholdings of the early English settlers. In 1680 over half the arable land was held by 175 large planters who held at least 60 slaves. The great planters had connections with the English aristocracy and great influence on Parliament. (In 1668 the West Indian sugar crop sold for £180,000 after customs of £18,000. Chesapeake tobacco earned £50,000 after customs of £75,000). So much land was devoted to sugar that most food had to be imported from New England. The poorer whites that were squeezed off the island went to the British Leeward Islands or, especially, Jamaica. In 1670 the Province of South Carolina was founded with surplus persons leaving Barbados. Other nations benefiting from large numbers of Barbadians include: British Guiana, as well as Panama.

1800s (decade)–1920s

The British abolished the slave trade in 1807 but not the institution itself. In 1816, slaves rose up in the largest major slave rebellion in the island's history. Twenty thousand slaves from over 70 plantations rebelled. They drove whites off the plantations, but widespread killings did not take place. This was later termed "Bussa's Rebellion" after the slave ranger, Bussa, who with his assistants hated slavery, found the treatment of slaves on Barbados to be "intolerable", and believed the political climate in the UK made the time ripe to peacefully negotiate with planters for freedom (Davis, p. 211; Northrup, p. 191). Bussa's Rebellion failed. One hundred and

twenty slaves died in combat or were immediately executed; another 144 were brought to trial and executed; remaining rebels were shipped off the island (Davis, pp. 212–213).

Slavery was finally abolished in the British Empire 18 years later in 1834. In Barbados and the rest of the British West Indian colonies, full emancipation from slavery was preceded by an apprenticeship period that lasted four years.



Statue of Lord Nelson in National Heroes Square which predates the more famous Nelson's Column by some 27 years.

In 1884, the Barbados Agricultural Society sent a letter to Sir Francis Hincks requesting his private and public views on whether the Dominion of Canada would favourably entertain having the then colony of Barbados admitted as a member of the Canadian Confederation. Asked of Canada were the terms of the Canadian side to initiate discussions, and whether or not the island of Barbados could depend on the full influence of Canada in getting the change agreed to by the United Kingdom. Then in 1952 the *Barbados Advocate* newspaper polled several prominent Barbadian politicians, lawyers, businessmen, the Speaker of the Barbados House of Assembly and later as first President of the Senate, Sir Theodore Branker, Q.C. and found them to be in favour of immediate federation of Barbados along with the rest of the British Caribbean with complete Dominion Status within five years from the date of inauguration of the West Indies Federation with Canada.

1930s–present

However, plantation owners and merchants of British descent still dominated local politics, owing to the high-income qualification required for voting. More than 70% of the population, many of them disenfranchised women, were excluded from the democratic process. It was not until the 1930s that the descendants of emancipated slaves began a movement for political rights. One of the leaders of this movement, Sir Grantley Adams, founded the Barbados Labour Party in 1938, then known as the Barbados Progressive League.

Adams and his party demanded more rights for the poor and for the people, and staunchly supported the monarchy. Progress toward a more democratic government in Barbados was made in 1942, when the exclusive income qualification was lowered and women were given the right to vote. By 1949 governmental control was wrested from the planters and, in 1958, Adams became Premier of Barbados.

Modern State

From 1958 to 1962, Barbados was one of the ten members of the West Indies Federation, an organisation doomed by nationalistic attitudes and by the fact that its members, as British colonies, held limited legislative power. Adams served as its first and only "Premier", but his leadership failed in attempts to form similar unions, and his continued defence of the monarchy was used by his opponents as evidence that he was no longer in touch with the needs of his country. Errol Walton Barrow, a fervent reformer, became the new people's advocate. Barrow had left the BLP and formed the Democratic Labour Party as a liberal alternative to Adams' conservative government. Barrow instituted many progressive social programmes, such as free education for all Barbadians and the school meals system. By 1961, Barrow had replaced Adams as Premier and the DLP controlled the government.

With the Federation dissolved, Barbados reverted to its former status, that of a self-governing colony. The island negotiated its own independence at a constitutional conference with Britain in June 1966. After years of peaceful and democratic progress, Barbados finally became an independent state on 30 November 1966, with Errol Barrow its first Prime Minister, although Queen Elizabeth II remained the monarch. Upon independence Barbados maintained historical linkages with Britain by establishing membership to the Commonwealth of Nations grouping. A year later Barbados' international linkages were expanded by obtaining membership to the United Nations and the Organization of American States.

Sugar cane and slavery

Main article: Slavery in the British and French Caribbean

Sugar cane cultivation began in the 1640s, after its introduction in 1637 by Pieter Blower. Initially, rum was produced but by 1642, sugar was the focus of the industry. As it developed into the main commercial enterprise, Barbados was divided into large plantation estates which replaced the small holdings of the early British settlers as the wealthy planters pushed out the poorer. Some of the displaced farmers relocated to British colonies in North America, most notably South Carolina.[8] To work the plantations, black Africans - primarily from West Africa - were imported as slaves in such numbers that there were three for every one planter. The slave trade ceased in 1807 and slaves were emancipated in 1834. Persecuted Catholics from Ireland also worked the plantations. Life expectancy of slaves was short, and replacements were purchased annually.

Sugar cane dominated Barbados' economic growth, and the island's cash crop was at the top of the sugar industry until 1720.

Increasingly after 1750 the plantations were owned by absentee landlords living in Britain and operated by hired managers.[9]

Roberts (2006) shows that slaves did not spend the majority of time in restricted roles cultivating, harvesting, and processing sugarcane, the island's most important cash crop. Rather, slaves involved in various activities and in multiple roles: raising livestock, fertilizing soil, growing provisional crops, maintaining plantation infrastructure, caregiving, and other tasks. One notable soil management technique was intercropping, planting subsistence crops between the rows of cash crops - which demanded of the slaves skilled and experienced observations of growing conditions for efficient land use.[10]

Political history

Carrington (1982) examines politics during the American Revolution, revealing that Barbadian political leaders shared many of the grievances and goals of the American revolutionaries, but that they were unwilling to go to war over them. Nevertheless, the repeated conflicts between the island assembly and the royal governors brought important constitutional reforms which confirmed the legislature's control over most local matters and its power over the executive.[11]

From 1800 until 1885, Barbados then served as the main seat of Government for the former British colonies of the Windward Islands. During the period of around 85 years the resident Governor of Barbados also served as the Colonial head of the Windward Islands. After the Government of Barbados officially exited from the Windward Island union in 1885, the seat was moved from Bridgetown to St. George's on the neighbouring island of Grenada, where it remained until the territory of the Windward Islands was dissolved.

Soon after Barbados' withdrawal from the Windward Islands, Barbados became aware that Tobago was going to

be amalgamated with another territory as part of a single state.[12] In response, Barbados made an official bid to the British Government to have neighbouring Island Tobago joined with Barbados as a political union.[13] The British government however decided that Trinidad would be a better fit and Tobago instead was made a Ward of Trinidad.[14][15]

African slaves worked on plantations owned by merchants of British descent. It was these merchants who continued to dominate politically even after emancipation, due to a high income restriction on voting. Only an exclusive 30%, therefore, had any voice in the democratic process. It was not until the 1930s that a movement for political rights was begun by the descendants of emancipated slaves, who started trade unions. One of the leaders of this movement, Sir Grantley Adams, founded the Barbados Progressive League (now the Barbados Labour Party) in 1938. The Great Depression caused mass unemployment and strikes, and the quality of life on the island lowered drastically. Adams continued to advocate more for the people, especially the poor.

Finally, in 1942, the income qualification was lowered. This was followed by the introduction of universal adult suffrage in 1951, with Adams elected the Premier of Barbados in 1958. For his actions, Adams would later become a National Hero.

From 1958 to 1962, Barbados was one of the ten members of the West Indies Federation, an organisation doomed to failure by a number of factors, including what were often petty nationalistic prejudices and limited legislative power. Indeed, Adams' position as "Prime Minister" is a gross misnomer, as all of the Federation members were still colonies of Britain. Adams, once a political visionary and now a man blind to the needs of his country, not only held fast to his notion of defending the monarchy but also made additional attempts to form similarly flawed Federation-like entities after that union's demise. When the Federation was terminated, Barbados had reverted to its former status as a self-governing colony, but efforts were made by Adams to form another federation composed of Barbados and the Leeward and Windward Islands.

Errol Walton Barrow was to replace Grantley Adams as the people's advocate and it was he who would eventually lead the island into Independence. Barrow, a fervent reformer and once a member of the Barbados Labour Party, had left the party to form his own Democratic Labour Party, as the liberal alternative to the conservative BLP government under Adams. He remains a National Hero for his work in social reformation, including the institution of free education for all Barbadians. In 1961, Barrow supplanted Adams as Premier as the DLP took control of the government.

Due to several years of growing autonomy, Barbados, with Barrow at the helm, was able to successfully negotiate its independence at a constitutional conference with the United Kingdom in June 1966. After years of peaceful and democratic progress, Barbados finally became an independent state and formally joined the Commonwealth of Nations on 30 November 1966, Errol Barrow serving as its first Prime Minister.

Confederations, and political union proposals

A number of proposals have been mooted in the past to have Barbados integrated with either neighboring countries or once even the Canadian Confederation. To date all have failed, and one proposal even led to deadly riots in 1876 when Governor John Pope Hennessy tried to pressure Barbados' politicians to integrate more firmly into the Windward Islands. Governor Hennessy was quickly transferred from Barbados by the British Crown following the situation. In 1884 attempts were then made by the influential Barbados Agricultural Society to have Barbados form a political association with the Canadian Confederation. From 1958-1962 Barbados became one of the 10 states of the West Indies Federation. Lastly in the 1990s, a plan was devised by the leaders of Guyana, Barbados, and Trinidad and Tobago to form a political association between those three governments. Again this deal was never completed, following the loss of Sir Lloyd Erskine Sandiford in the Barbadian general elections.

See also

- British colonization of the Americas
- French colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of North America
- History of the British West Indies
- List of Prime Ministers of Barbados
- List of Governors of Barbados
- Longitude
- Piracy in the Caribbean
- Politics of Barbados
- Spanish colonization of the Americas
- Timeline of Barbadian history
- West Indies Federation

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Further reading

Monarchy of Barbados

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The **monarchy of Barbados** is a constitutional system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign and head of state of Barbados, forming the core of the country's Westminster style parliamentary democracy.[1][2] The terms *Crown in Right of Barbados*, *Her Majesty in Right of Barbados*, or *The Queen in Right of Barbados* may also be used to refer to the entire executive of the government of Barbados. Though the Barbadian Crown has its roots in the British Crown, it has evolved over the centuries to become a distinctly Barbadian institution, represented by unique symbols.

The present monarch is Elizabeth II – officially titled Queen of Barbados – who has reigned since 6 February 1952. She, her consort, and other members of the Royal Family undertake various public and private functions across Barbados and on behalf of the country abroad. However, the Queen is the only member of the Royal Family with any constitutional role, holding ultimate executive authority, though her Royal Prerogative remains bound by laws enacted by her in parliament and by conventions and precedents, leaving the day-to-day exercise of executive power to her Cabinet. While several powers are the sovereign's alone,[3] most of the royal constitutional and ceremonial duties in Barbados are carried out by the Queen's representative, the Governor-General; as such, the Governor-General can sometimes be referred to as the head of state.[4]

Queen of Barbados

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Barbados



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	30 November 1966

The Barbadian government had planned a referendum on the future of the monarchy in August 2008, however these plans were delayed indefinitely due to electoral concerns and change of government following the 2008 general election.

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International and domestic aspects

Further information: Commonwealth realm: The Crown in the Commonwealth realms

Barbados, is one the Commonwealth realms, sharing the same person as their respective monarch. Each realm is sovereign and independent of the others,[5] meaning the Barbadian monarchy acts as a separate Kingdom with both a separate and yet shared character, and the monarchy has also thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called *British* since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, political, and of convenience. On all matters of the Barbadian state, the monarch is advised solely by Barbadian Ministers of the Crown,[6] and, effective with the Barbados Independence Order of 1966 and Statute of Westminster (1931),[7] no British or other realm government can advise the monarch on any matters pertinent to Barbados.

Title and style

Further information: List of titles and honours of Queen Elizabeth II

The shared and domestic aspects of the Crown are also highlighted in the sovereign's Barbadian title, currently *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Barbados and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*. The sovereign's role specifically as Queen of Barbados, as well as her status as monarch of other nations, is communicated by mentioning Barbados separately from, but along with, the Queen's other lands. Typically, the sovereign is styled *Queen of Barbados*, and is addressed as such when in Barbados or performing duties on behalf of Barbados abroad.

Finance

The sovereign only draws from Barbadian coffers for support in the performance of her duties when in Barbados or acting as Queen of Barbados abroad; Barbadians do not pay any money to the Queen, either towards personal income or to support royal residences outside of Barbados. This applies equally to other members of the Royal Family. Normally, tax dollars pay only for the costs associated with the Governor-General in the exercise of the powers of the Crown, including travel, security, residences, offices, ceremonies, and the like.

Succession

Succession is by male-preference primogeniture governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, 1701, and the Bill of Rights, 1689. This legislation limits the succession to the natural (i.e. non-adopted), legitimate descendants of Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and stipulates that the monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor

have married one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. Though these constitutional laws, as they apply to Barbados, still lie within the control of the British parliament, via adopting the Statute of Westminster both the United Kingdom and Barbados agreed not to change the rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship;[8] a situation that applies symmetrically in all the other realms, and which has been likened to a treaty amongst these countries.[9] Thus, Barbados' line of succession remains identical to that of the United Kingdom.



Charles, Prince of Wales, is the heir apparent to the Barbadian throne.

Upon a *demise of the Crown* (the death or abdication of a sovereign) it is customary for the accession of the new monarch to be publicly proclaimed by the Governor-General. Regardless of any proclamations, the late sovereign's heir immediately and automatically succeeds, without any need for confirmation or further ceremony; hence arises the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!" Following an appropriate period of mourning, the monarch is also crowned in the United Kingdom, though this ritual is not necessary for a sovereign to reign; for example, Edward VIII was never crowned, yet was undoubtedly king during his short time on the throne. All incumbent viceroys, judges, civil servants, legislators, military officers, etc., are not affected by the death of the monarch. After an individual ascends the throne, he or she typically continues to reign until death. Monarchs are not allowed to unilaterally abdicate; the only monarch to abdicate, Edward VIII, did so before Barbados was independent, and, even then, only with the authorization of special Acts of Parliament in the Dominions.

Personification of the state

Further information: The Crown

Since the independence of Barbados, the sovereign's role as monarch of Barbados has been recognised and promoted as separate to his or her position as monarch of the United Kingdom.[6] From the beginning of Queen Elizabeth II's reign onwards, royal symbols in Barbados were altered or new ones created to make them distinctly Barbadian, such as the creation of the Royal Arms of Barbados in 1966 (presented on 14 February that year by the Queen to then President of the Senate Sir Grey Massiah),[10][11] and Queen's Royal Standard for Barbados, created in 1975.[12] Today the sovereign is regarded as the personification, or legal personality, of the Barbadian state. Therefore, the state is referred to as *Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Barbados*; for example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as *Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Barbados*, or simply *Regina*. As such, the monarch is the owner of all state lands (called *Crown land*), buildings and equipment (called *Crown held property*), state owned companies (called *Crown Corporations*), and the copyright for all government publications (called *Crown copyright*), as well as guardianship of foster children (called *Crown wards*), in his or her position as sovereign, and not as an individual. Government staff are also employed by the monarch, as are the Governor-General, judges, members of the Barbados Defence Force, police officers, and parliamentarians, who all technically work for the monarch. Hence, many employees of the Crown are required by law to recite an oath of allegiance to the monarch before taking their posts, in reciprocation to the sovereign's Coronation Oath, wherein he or she promises "to govern the Peoples of ... [Barbados] ... according to their respective laws and customs".[13] The oath required by the Director of Public Prosecutions, for example, is: *I, [name], do swear that I will well and truly serve Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II, Her Heirs and Successors, in the office of Director of Public Prosecutions. So help me God*, while that for judges is: *I, [name], do swear that I will well and truly serve Our Sovereign Lady Queen Elizabeth II, Her Heirs and Successors, in the office of Chief Justice/Judge of the Supreme Court and I will do right to all manner of*

people after the laws and usages of Barbados without fear or favour, affection or ill will. so help me God.[14]

Constitutional role



A simplified diagram of the Barbados government

Barbados' constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Barbadian in origin, which gives Barbados a similar parliamentary system of government to the other Commonwealth realms, wherein the role of the Queen and the Governor-General is both legal and practical. The Crown is regarded as a corporation, in which several parts share the authority of the whole, with the Queen as the person at the centre of the constitutional construct,[15] meaning all powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the monarch (Section 63 of the Constitution), who is represented by the Governor-General – appointed by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister of Barbados.[16] Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by this vice-regal representative.

All institutions of government are said to act under the sovereign's authority; the vast powers that belong to the Crown are collectively known as the Royal Prerogative. Parliamentary approval is not required for the exercise of the Royal Prerogative; moreover, the consent of the Crown must be obtained before either of the houses of parliament may even debate a bill affecting the sovereign's prerogatives or interests. While the Royal Prerogative is extensive, it is not unlimited; for example, the monarch does not have the prerogative to impose and collect new taxes – such an action requires the authorization of an Act of Parliament. The government of Barbados is also thus formally referred to as *Her Majesty's Government*. Further, the constitution instructs that any change to the position of the monarch, or the monarch's representative in Barbados, requires the consent of two-thirds of the all the members of each house of parliament.[2][17]

Executive (Queen-in-Council)

In Barbados' constitutional system, one of the main duties of the Crown is to appoint a prime minister,[2] who thereafter heads the Cabinet and advises the monarch and Governor-General on how to execute their executive powers over all aspects of government operations and foreign affairs;[2] this requirement is, unlike in other Commonwealth realms where it is a matter of convention, constitutionally enshrined in Barbados.[18] Though the monarch's power is still a part of the executive process – the operation of the Cabinet is technically known as the *Queen-in-Council* (or *Governor-in-Council*) – the advice tendered is typically binding. Since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British Cabinet, the monarch *reigns* but does not *rule*. This means that the monarch's role, and thereby the viceroys' role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments and agencies operate, while the Cabinet directs the use of the Royal Prerogative, which includes the privilege to declare war, maintain the Queen's peace, and direct the actions of the Barbados Defence Force, as well as to summon and prorogue parliament, and call elections. However, it is important to note that the Royal Prerogative belongs to the Crown, and not to any of the ministers, though it may sometimes appear that way,[15] and the royal figures may unilaterally use these powers in exceptional constitutional crisis situations. There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by, the Queen. These include signing the appointment papers of Governors-General, the confirmation of awards of Barbadian honours, and the approval of any change in her Barbadian title.

In accordance with convention, the monarch or Governor-General, to maintain the stability of government, must

appoint as prime minister the individual most likely to maintain the support of the House of Assembly: usually the leader of the political party with a majority in that house, but also when no party or coalition holds a majority (referred to as a minority government situation), or other scenarios in which the Governor-General's judgement about the most suitable candidate for prime minister has to be brought into play. The Governor-General also appointes to Cabinet the other ministers of the Crown, who are, in turn, accountable to the democratically elected House of Assembly, and through it, to the people. The Queen is informed by her viceroy of the acceptance of the resignation of a prime minister and the swearing-in of a new prime minister and other members of the ministry, and she remains fully briefed through regular communications from her Barbadian ministers, and holds audience with them where possible.[6]

Members of various executive agencies, and other officials are appointed by the Crown. The commissioning of privy councillors, senators, the Speaker of the Senate, Supreme Court justices also falls under the Royal Prerogative, though these duties are specifically assigned to the Governor-General by the constitution.[19] Public inquiries are also commissioned by the Crown through a Royal Warrant, and are called Royal Commissions.

Foreign affairs

The Royal Prerogative also extends to foreign affairs: the sovereign or Governor-General negotiates and ratifies treaties, alliances, and international agreements. As with other uses of the Royal Prerogative, no parliamentary approval is required; however, a treaty cannot alter the domestic laws of Barbados; an Act of Parliament is necessary in such cases. The Governor-General, on behalf of the Queen, also accredits Barbadian High Commissioners and ambassadors, and receives diplomats from foreign states. In addition, the issuance of passports falls under the Royal Prerogative, and, as such, all Barbadian passports are issued in the monarch's name.

Parliament (Queen-in-Parliament)


The Parliament of Barbados, in Bridgetown.

The sovereign, along with the Senate and the House of Assembly, is one of the three components of parliament,[20] called the *Queen-in-Parliament*. The authority of the Crown therein is embodied in the mace, which bears a crown at its apex; unlike other realms, however, the Barbados parliament only has a mace for the lower house.[21] Per the constitution, the monarch does not, however, participate in the legislative process; the viceroy does, though only in the granting of Royal Assent.[22] Further, the constitution outlines that the Governor-General alone is responsible for summoning, proroguing, and dissolving parliament,[23] after which the writs for a general election are usually dropped by the Governor-General at Government House. The new parliamentary session is marked by the State Opening of Parliament, during which either the monarch or the Governor-General reads the Speech from the Throne. As the monarch and viceroy cannot enter the House of Assembly, this, as well as the bestowing of Royal Assent, takes place in the Senate chamber; Members of Parliament are summoned to these ceremonies from the Commons by the Crown's messenger, the Usher of the Black Rod, after he knocks on the doors of the lower house that have been slammed closed on him, to symbolise the barring of the monarch from the assembly.

All laws in Barbados are enacted only with the viceroy's, or sovereign's, granting of Royal Assent; usually done by the Governor-General, with the Public Seal. Thus, all bills begin with the phrase "Her Majesty, by virtue and in exercise of the powers vested in Her by section 5 of the Barbados Independence Act 1966 and of all other powers enabling Her in that behalf, is pleased, by and with the advice of Her Privy Council, to order, and it is

hereby ordered, as follows..."[24]

Courts (Queen-on-the-Bench)

The sovereign is deemed the *fount of justice*, and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects, known in this role as the *Queen on the Bench*. However, he or she does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. Hence, the common law holds that the sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the monarch personally are not cognizable. In international cases, as a sovereign and under established principles of international law, the Queen of Barbados is not subject to suit in foreign courts without her express consent. The sovereign, and by extension the Governor-General, also exercises the *prerogative of mercy*,[25] and may pardon offences against the Crown, either before, during, or after a trial. In addition, the monarch also serves as a symbol of the legitimacy of courts of justice, and of their judicial authority. An image of the Queen or the Arms of Her Majesty in Right of Barbados is always displayed in Barbadian courtrooms.

Cultural role

Symbols

The main symbol of the monarchy is the sovereign herself. Thus, her image appears in portraits in public buildings, and on stamps.[26][27] A crown is also used to illustrate the monarchy as the locus of authority, appearing on police force and Barbados Defence Force regimental and maritime badges and rank insignia, as well as Barbadian honours, the system of such created through Letters Patent issued by Queen Elizabeth II in July 1980.[11] The Queen's Personal Barbadian Flag is the symbol of the monarch. Second in precedence is the personal flag of the Governor-General.



The Queen's Personal Barbadian Flag.

History

The current Barbadian monarchy can trace its ancestral lineage back to the Anglo-Saxon period, and ultimately back to the kings of the Angles and the early Scottish kings. The Crown in Barbados has grown over the centuries since the Barbados was claimed under King James VI of Scotland and I of England in 1625, though not colonised until 1627, when, in the name of King Charles I, Governor Charles Wolferstone established the first settlement on the island.[28] By the 18th century, Barbados became one of the main seats of British authority in the British West Indies, and then, after attempting in 1958 a federation with other West Indian colonies, similar to that of fellow Commonwealth realms Canada and Australia, continued as a self-governing colony under the Colonial Office, until independence came with the signing of the Barbados Independence Order by Queen Elizabeth II.

In the same year, Elizabeth's cousin, Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, opened the second session of the first parliament of the newly established country,[28] before the Queen herself, along with her husband, Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, toured Barbados, opening Barclays Park,[29] in Saint Andrew, amongst other events. Elizabeth returned for her Silver Jubilee in 1977, after addressing the new session of parliament, she departed on the Concorde, which was the Queen's first supersonic flight.[28] She also was in Barbados in 1989, to mark the

350th anniversary of the establishment of the Barbados parliament, where she sat to receive addresses from both houses.[6][28]

Republicanism

Main article: Republicanism in Barbados

The former Prime Minister Owen Arthur called for a referendum on becoming a republic to be held in 2005.[30] It was subsequently pushed back to "at least 2006" in order to speed up Barbados' integration into the CARICOM Single Market and Economy; it was assumed the referendum would be held in 2007,[31] but it was announced on 26 November 2007 that the referendum would be held in 2008 together with the general election.[32] On 2 December 2007, reports emerged that this vote was put off due to concerns raised by the Electoral and Boundaries Commission.[33] Following the election, David Thompson replaced Arthur as prime minister.

Notes

- Burleigh, Craig (2008) "Queen Elizabeth II Silver Jubilee in Barbados ends with her first flight on Concorde on a record setting flight back to London Heathrow." (http://www.burleighphoto.com/pages/stk-qe77/qe2.htm) http://www.burleighphoto.com/pages/stk-qe77/qe2.htm. Retrieved 16 January 2010
- "Queen and Barbados: Royal visits" (http://www.royal.gov.uk/MonarchAndCommonwealth/TheQueenandBarbados/Royalvisits.aspx) 01 2010 http://www.royal.gov.uk/MonarchAndCommonwealth/TheQueenandBarbados/Royalvisits.aspx. Retrieved 16 January 2010

Videos

- Diamond Jubilee Celebration for Queen Elizabeth II (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=M1eudteaZdo) on YouTube, Visits to Barbados by the Royal Family over the decades, By the Barbados Government Information Service (Esther Jones)

See also

- Prime Ministers of Queen Elizabeth II
- List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II
- Monarchies in the Americas
- List of monarchies
- List of current state leaders by date of assumption of office

References

1. ^ Caribbean Court of Justice: Barbados (http://www.caribbeancourtofjustice.org/flags%20of%20caricom/flag%20meanings/barbados.html)
2. ^ [a] [b] [c] [d] Commonwealth Secretariat: Barbados: Constitution (http://www.thecommonwealth.org/YearbookInternal/138236/constitution/)
3. ^ Constitution of Barbados: EXECUTIVE POWER (Chapter 6), Section 63. Section 63 of the Constitution says that "the executive authority of Barbados shall be vested in Her Majesty the Queen"
4. ^ The Barbados Parliament: Heads of State (http://www.barbadosparliament.com/heads_of_state.php)
5. ^ The English Court of Appeal ruled in 1982, while "there is only one person who is the Sovereign within

Belize

Coordinates: 17°4′N 88°42′W

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Belize /bəˈliːz/ (formerly *British Honduras*) is a country located on the north eastern coast of Central America. Belize has a diverse society, comprising many cultures and languages. Belize is the only country in Central America where English is the official language. Kriol and Spanish are more commonly spoken. Belize is bordered to the north by Mexico, south and west by Guatemala, and to the east by the Caribbean Sea. Belize's mainland is about 290 kilometres (180 mi) long and 110 kilometres (68 mi) wide.

With 22,960 square kilometres (8,860 sq mi) of land and a population of only 333,200 inhabitants (2010 est.),[4] Belize possesses the lowest population density in Central America.[5] The country's population growth rate of 2.21% (2008 est.),[1] however, is the highest in the region and one of the highest in the western hemisphere. Belize's abundance of terrestrial and marine species, and its diversity of ecosystems give it a key place within the globally significant Mesoamerican Biological Corridor.[6]

Belize is culturally unique among its Central American neighbours; it is the only nation in the region with a British colonial heritage. As a part of the Western Caribbean Zone, however, it also shares a common heritage with the Caribbean portions of other Central American countries. In general, Belize is considered to be a Central American nation with strong ties to both the Caribbean and Latin America. Belize is a member of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), the Community of Latin American and Caribbean States (CELAC), and Sistema de la Integración Centroamericana (SICA).

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Belize	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: "Sub Umbra Floreo" (Latin) "I Flourish in the Shade"	
Anthem: Land of the Free **Royal anthem:** God Save the Queen	
	
Capital	Belmopan 17°15′N 88°46′W
Largest city	Belize City
Official language(s)	English
Recognised regional languages	Kriol, Spanish, Garifuna, Maya, Plautdietsch
Ethnic groups	34% Mestizo 25% Kriol 15% Spanish 11% Maya 6% Garifuna 9% Others
Demonym	Belizean (/bəˈliːziən/ or /bəˈliːʒən/))
Government	Parliamentary democracy and Constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor-General	Sir Colville Young
- Prime Minister	Dean Barrow
Independence	

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- from the United Kingdom	21 September 1981
Area	
- Total	22,966 km^2 (150th) 8,867 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.7
Population	
- 2010 estimate	333,200[1] (174th)
- Density	15/km^2 (198th^2) 38/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate
- Total	$2.651 billion[2]
- Per capita	$7,895[2]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$1.396 billion[2]
- Per capita	$4,158[2]
HDI (2010)	▲0.694[3] (high) (78th)
Currency	Belize dollar (BZD)
Time zone	CST (UTC−6)
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	BZ
Internet TLD	.bz
Calling code	501

1 [1]These ranks are based on the 2007 figures.

Etymology

The origin of the name Belize is unclear, but one idea is that the name is from the native Maya word *belix*, meaning "muddy water", applied to the Belize River. Others have suggested that it is derived from a Spanish pronunciation of the name of the Scottish buccaneer Peter Wallace, which was applied to an early settlement along the Belize River and to the river itself.[7] Belize has a sizeable proportion of Africans from the ancient Kingdom of Kongo, who could have brought the name with them, as there is a Belize in Angola as well.

History

Main article: History of Belize

Early history

Main article: Pre-Columbian Belize


"El Castillo" at Xunantunich

The Maya civilization spread itself over the area which is today Belize beginning in around 1500 BC and flourished there until about A.D. 800. The recorded history of the centre and south is dominated by Caracol, where the inscriptions on their monuments were, as elsewhere, in the Lowland Maya aristocratic tongue Classic Ch'olti'an.[8] North of the Maya Mountains, the inscriptional language at Lamanai was Yucatecan as of A.D. 625.[9]

In the late classic period of Maya civilisation (before A.D. 1000), as many as 400,000 people may have lived in the area that is now Belize. Some lowland Maya still occupied the area when Europeans arrived in the 16th century. By then the primary inhabitants were the Mopan branch of the Yucatec Maya.

Spanish colonists tried to settle the inland areas of Belize, but Maya rebellions and attacks forced them to abandon these efforts.

English and Scottish buccaneers known as the Baymen first settled on the coast of Belize in 1638, seeking a sheltered region from which they could attack Spanish ships *(see English settlement in Belize)*. The settlers turned to cutting logwood during the 18th century. The wood yielded a fixing agent for clothing dyes that was vital to the European woollen industry. The Spanish granted the British settlers the right to occupy the area and cut logwood in exchange for an end to piracy.[10]

Battle of St. George's Caye

Main article: Battle of St. George's Caye

The Battle of St. George's Caye was a short military engagement that lasted from 3–10 September 1798, undertaken off the coast of what is now Belize. The name, however, is typically reserved for the final battle that occurred on 10 September. The British first appointed a superintendent over the Belize area in 1786. Prior to that time, the British government did not initially recognize the settlement in Belize as a colony for fear of provoking a Spanish attack. The delay in government oversight allowed the settlers to establish their own laws and forms of government. During this time a few wealthy settlers gained control of the local legislature, known as the Public Meeting, as well as of most of the settlement's land and timber.

The battle took place between an invading force from what would become Mexico, attempting to wrest Belize for Spain, and a small force of resident woodcutters called Baymen, who fought for their livelihood assisted by black slaves.

The Spanish repeatedly tried to gain control over Belize by force, but were unsuccessful. Spain's last effort occurred on 10 September 1798, when the British repelled the Spanish fleet in a short engagement with no known casualties on either side known as the Battle of St. George's Caye. The anniversary of the battle is now a national holiday in Belize.

As part of the British Empire

In the early 19th century, the British sought greater control over the settlers, threatening to suspend the Public



Flag of British Honduras

Meeting unless it observed the government's instructions to eliminate slavery in whole. Slavery was abolished in the British Empire in 1838, but this did little to change working conditions for labourers in the Belize settlement. Slaves of the colony were valued for their potentially superior abilities in the work of mahogany extraction. As a result, former slave owners in British Honduras earned £53.69 on average per slave, the highest amount paid in any British territory.[11]

Soon after, a series of institutions were put in place to ensure the continued presence of a viable labour force. Some of these greatly restricted the ability of individuals to obtain land, in a debt-peonage system to organise the newly "free." The position of being "extra special" mahogany and logwood cutters undergirded the early ascriptions of the capacities (and consequently the limitations) of people of African descent in the colony. Because a small elite controlled the settlement's land and commerce, former slaves had no choice but to continue to work in timber cutting.[11]

In 1836, after the emancipation of Central America from Spanish rule, the British claimed the right to administer the region. In 1862, Great Britain formally declared it a British Crown Colony, subordinate to Jamaica, and named it British Honduras.[12] As a colony, Belize began to attract British investors. Among the British firms that dominated the colony in the late 19th century was the Belize Estate and Produce Company, which eventually acquired half of all the privately held land in the colony. Belize Estate's influence accounts in part for the colony's reliance on the mahogany trade throughout the rest of the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century.



Panoramic view of Belize City, c. 1914

The Great Depression of the 1930s caused a near-collapse of the colonial economy as British demand for timber plummeted. The effects of widespread unemployment were worsened by a devastating hurricane that struck the colony in 1931. Perceptions of the government's relief effort as inadequate were aggravated by its refusal to legalize labour unions or introduce a minimum wage. Demonstrations and riots in 1934 marked the beginning of an independence movement. In response, the government repealed criminal penalties for workers who violated the terms of their labour contracts regarding unions and granted workers the right to join unions.

Economic conditions improved during World War II (1939–1945) when many Belizean men entered the armed forces or otherwise contributed labour to the war effort. Following the war, the colony's economy again stagnated due to the pressures caused by its damaging effect. Britain's decision to devalue the British Honduras dollar in 1949 worsened economic conditions and led to the creation of the People's Committee, which demanded independence. The People's Committee's successor, the People's United Party (PUP), sought constitutional reforms that would expand voting rights to all adults.

Independence

Constitutional reforms were initiated in 1954 and resulted in a new constitution ten years later. Britain granted

British Honduras self-government in 1964, and the head of the PUP—independence leader George Price—became the colony's prime minister. British Honduras was officially renamed Belize in 1973. Progress toward independence, however, was hampered by a Guatemalan claim to sovereignty over the territory of Belize. When Belize finally attained full independence on 21 September 1981, Guatemala refused to recognise the new nation. About 1,500 British troops remained to protect Belize from the Guatemalan threat.

With Price at the helm, the PUP won all elections until 1984. In that election, the first national election after independence, the PUP was defeated by the United Democratic Party (UDP), and UDP leader Manuel Esquivel replaced Price as prime minister. Price returned to power after elections in 1989. Guatemala's president formally recognised Belize's independence in 1992. The following year the United Kingdom announced that it would end its military involvement in Belize. British soldiers were withdrawn in 1994, but the United Kingdom left behind a military training unit to assist with the newly formed Belize Defence Force.

The UDP regained power in the 1993 national election, and Esquivel became prime minister for a second time. Soon afterwards Esquivel announced the suspension of a pact reached with Guatemala during Price's tenure, claiming Price had made too many concessions in order to gain Guatemalan recognition. The pact may have curtailed the 130-year-old border dispute between the two countries. Border tensions continued into the early 2000s, although the two countries cooperated in other areas.

The PUP won a landslide victory in the 1998 national elections, and PUP leader Said Musa was sworn in as prime minister. In the 2003 elections the PUP maintained its majority, and Musa continued as prime minister. He pledged to improve conditions in the underdeveloped and largely inaccessible southern part of Belize.

In 2005, Belize was the site of unrest caused by discontent with the People's United Party government, including tax increases in the national budget. On 8 February 2008, Dean Barrow was sworn in as prime minister after his UDP won a landslide victory in general elections.

Throughout Belize's history, Guatemala has claimed ownership of all or part of the territory. This claim is occasionally reflected in maps showing Belize as Guatemala's twenty-third department. As of February 2012, the border dispute with Guatemala remains unresolved and quite contentious.[13][14][15] Guatemala's claim to Belizean territory rests, in part, on the terms Clause VII of the Anglo-Guatemalan Treaty of 1859 which (supposedly) obligated the British to build a road between Belize City and Guatemala. At various times the issue has required mediation by the United Kingdom, Caribbean Community heads of Government, the Organization of American States, Mexico, and the United States. Notably, both Guatemala and Belize are participating in confidence-building measures approved by the OAS, including the Guatemala-Belize Language Exchange Project.[16]

Since independence, a British garrison has been retained in Belize at the request of the Belizean government including, at times, Harrier jets.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Belize

Belize is located on the Caribbean coast of northern Central America. It shares a border on the north with the Mexican state of Quintana Roo, on the west with the Guatemalan department of Petén, and on the south with the Guatemalan department of Izabal. To the east in the Caribbean Sea, the second-longest barrier reef in the world flanks much of the 386 kilometres (240 mi) of predominantly marshy coastline. The area of the country totals 22,960 square kilometres (8,865 sq mi), an area slightly larger than El Salvador or Massachusetts. The abundance of lagoons along the coasts and in the northern interior reduces the actual land area to 21,400 square

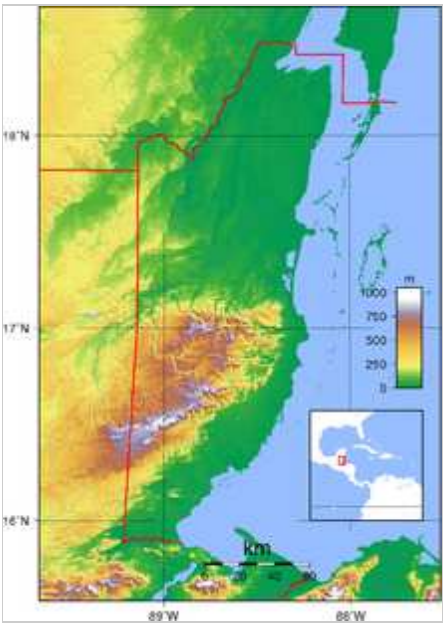
kilometres (8,263 sq mi).



Map of Belize

Belize is shaped like a rectangle that extends about 280 kilometres (174 mi) north-south and about 100 kilometres (62 mi) east-west, with a total land boundary length of 516 kilometres (321 mi). The undulating courses of two rivers, the Hondo and the Sarstoon River, define much of the course of the country's northern and southern boundaries. The western border follows no natural features and runs north-south through lowland forest and highland plateau. The north of Belize consists mostly of flat, swampy coastal plains, in places heavily forested. The flora is highly diverse considering the small geographical area. The south contains the low mountain range of the Maya Mountains. The highest point in Belize is Doyle's Delight at 1,124 m (3,688 ft).[17]

The Caribbean coast is lined with a coral reef and some 450 islets and islands known locally as cayes (pronounced "keys"). They total about 690 square kilometres (266 sq mi), and form the approximately 320-kilometre (199 mi) long Belize Barrier Reef, the longest in the Western Hemisphere and the second longest in the world after the Great Barrier Reef. Three of merely four coral atolls in the Western Hemisphere are located off the coast of Belize.



Belize Topography

Belize's rugged geography has also made the country's coastline and jungle attractive to drug smugglers, who use the country as a gateway into Mexico.[18] In 2011, the United States added Belize to the list of nations considered major drug producers or transit countries for narcotics.[19]

Climate

Main article: Climate of Belize

Belize has a tropical climate with pronounced wet and dry seasons, although there are significant variations in weather patterns by region. Temperatures vary according to elevation, proximity to the coast, and the moderating effects of the northeast trade winds off the Caribbean. Average temperatures in the coastal regions range from 24 °C (75.2 °F) in January to 27 °C (80.6 °F) in July. Temperatures are slightly higher inland, except for the southern highland plateaus, such as the Mountain Pine Ridge, where it is noticeably cooler year round. Overall, the seasons are marked more by differences in humidity and rainfall than in temperature.

Average rainfall varies considerably, ranging from 1,350 mm (53.1 in) in the north and west to over 4,500 mm (177.2 in) in the extreme south. Seasonal differences in rainfall are greatest in the northern and central regions of the country where, between January and April or May, fewer than 100 mm (3.9 in) of rain fall per month. The dry season is shorter in the south, normally only lasting from February to April. A shorter, less rainy period, known locally as the "little dry," usually occurs in late July or August, after the initial onset of the rainy season.

Hurricanes have played key—and devastating—roles in Belizean history. In 1931 an unnamed hurricane destroyed over two-thirds of the buildings in Belize City and killed more than 1,000 people. In 1955 Hurricane

Janet levelled the northern town of Corozal. Only six years later, Hurricane Hattie struck the central coastal area of the country, with winds in excess of 300 km/h (186 mph) and 4 m (13.1 ft) storm tides. The devastation of Belize City for the second time in thirty years prompted the relocation of the capital some 80 kilometres (50 mi) inland to the planned city of Belmopan. Hurricane Greta caused more than US$25 million in damages along the southern coast in 1978. On 9 October 2001, Hurricane Iris made landfall at Monkey River Town as a 145 mph (233 km/h) Category Four storm. The storm demolished most of the homes in the village, and destroyed the banana crop. In 2007 Hurricane Dean made landfall as a Category 5 storm only 25 miles north of the Belize/Mexico border. Dean caused extensive damage in northern Belize.



Big Rock Falls in the Cayo District

The most recent hurricane to affect Belize directly was the Category 2 Hurricane Richard, making landfall approximately 20 miles south-southeast of Belize City at around 0045 UTC on 25 October 2010.[20] The storm moved inland towards Belmopan, causing estimated damage of BZ$33.8 million ($17.4 million 2010 USD), primarily from damage to crops and housing.[21]

Vegetation

While over 60% of Belize's land surface is covered by forest,[22] recent studies indicate that some 20% of the country's land is covered by cultivated land (agriculture) and human settlements.[23] Savannah, scrubland and wetland constitute the remainder of Belize's land cover. Important mangrove ecosystems are also represented across Belize's landscape.[24][25] As a part of the globally significant Mesoamerican Biological Corridor which stretches from southern Mexico to Panama, Belize's biodiversity – both marine and terrestrial – is rich, with abundant flora and fauna. Belize is also a leader where it comes to protecting its biodiversity and natural resources. Recent (July 2010) information[26] from the Association of Protected Areas Management Organizations of Belize (APAMO) (http://www.apamo.net) indicates that some 36% of Belize's land territory falls under some form of official protected status, giving Belize one of the most extensive systems of terrestrial protected areas in the Americas. Nearby Costa Rica, by contrast, only has 25.8% of its land territory protected.[27] Some 13% of Belize's territorial waters – home to the Belize Barrier Reef System – are also protected. The Belize Barrier Reef System both constitutes a UNESCO-recognised World Heritage Site and the second largest barrier reef in the world, second only to Australia's Great Barrier Reef.

Forests and deforestation

A remote sensing study conducted by the Water Center for the Humid Tropics of Latin America and the Caribbean (CATHALAC) (http://www.cathalac.org) and NASA (http://www.nasa.gov) , in collaboration with the Forest Department and the Land Information Centre (LIC) of the Government of Belize's Ministry of Natural Resources and the Environment (MNRE), and published in August 2010 revealed that Belize's forest cover in early 2010 was approximately 62.7%, down from 75.9% in late 1980.[22] A similar study[28] by Belize Tropical Forest Studies (http://biological-diversity.info/deforestation.htm) and Conservation International revealed similar trends in terms of Belize's forest cover. Both studies indicate that each year, 0.6% of Belize's forest cover is lost, translating to the clearing of an average of 24,835 acres (10,050 ha) each year. The USAID (http://www.usaid.gov) -supported SERVIR (http://www.servir.net) study by CATHALAC, NASA, and the MNRE also showed that Belize's protected areas have been extremely effective in protecting the country's forests. While only some 6.4% of forests inside of legally declared protected areas were cleared between 1980 and 2010, over a quarter of forests outside of protected areas had been lost between 1980 and 2010. As a

country with a relatively high forest cover and a low deforestation rate, Belize has significant potential for participation in initiatives such as REDD. Significantly, the SERVIR (http://www.servir.net) study (http://www.servir.net/servir_bz_forest_cover_1980-2010.pdf) on Belize's deforestation was also recognised by the intergovernmental Group on Earth Observations (GEO) (http://www.earthobservations.org) , of which Belize is a member nation.[29]

Geology, mineral potential, and energy

Although a number of economically important minerals exist in Belize, none have been found in quantities large enough to warrant their mining. These minerals include dolomite, barite (source of barium), bauxite (source of aluminium), cassiterite (source of tin), and gold. In 1990 limestone, used in road-building, was the only mineral resource being exploited for either domestic or export use.

The similarity of Belizean geology to that of oil-producing areas of Mexico and Guatemala prompted oil companies, principally from the United States, to explore for petroleum at both offshore and on-land sites in the early 1980s. Initial results were promising, but the pace of exploration slowed later in the decade, and production operations had been halted. As a result, Belize remains almost totally dependent on imported petroleum for its energy needs. In 2006, the cultivation of newly discovered crude oil in the town of Spanish Lookout has presented new prospects and problems for this developing nation.[30] The country also possess considerable potential for hydroelectric and other renewable energy resources, such as solar and biomass. In the mid-1980s, one Belizean businessman even proposed the construction of a wood-burning power station for the production of electricity, but the idea foundered in the wake of ecological concerns and economic constraints.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Belize

Belize has a small, essentially private enterprise economy that is based primarily on agriculture, agro-based industry, and merchandising, with tourism and construction recently assuming greater importance. In 2006, the exploitation of a newly discovered crude oil field near the town of Spanish Lookout has presented new prospects and problems for this developing nation.[30] It has yet to be seen if significant economic expansion will be made by this. To date, oil production equal 3,000 bbl/d (480 m^3/d) (2007 est.) and oil exports equal 1,960 bbl/d (312 m^3/d) (2006 est.). The country is a producer of industrial minerals.[31] Sugar, the chief crop, accounts for nearly half of exports, while the banana industry is the country's largest employer.[30]

The new government faces important challenges to economic stability. Rapid action to improve tax collection has been promised, but a lack of progress in reining in spending could bring the exchange rate under pressure. The tourist and construction sectors strengthened in early 1999, leading to a preliminary estimate of revived growth at 4%. Infrastructure continues to be a major challenge for the economic development of Belize.[32] Belize has the most expensive electricity in the region. Trade is important and the major trading partners are the United States, Mexico, the European Union, and Central America.[32]

Banking

Belize has five commercial banks, of which the largest and oldest is Belize Bank. The other four banks are Heritage Bank, Atlantic Bank, FirstCaribbean International Bank, and Scotiabank (Belize).

Industrial Infrastructure

The largest integrated electric utility and the principal distributor in Belize is BEL, an integrated electric utility and distributor. BEL is approximately 70% owned by Fortis Inc., a Canadian investor-owned distribution utility. Fortis took over the management of BEL in 1999, at the invitation of the Government of Belize in an attempt to mitigate prior financial problems within the locally managed utility. In addition to its regulated investment in BEL, Fortis owns Belize Electric Company Limited ("BECOL"), a non-regulated hydroelectric generation business that operates three hydroelectric generating facilities on the Macal River in Belize.

In 2008 the Public Utilities Commission of Belize issued an order that has had a significant negative impact on the financial condition and operations of BEL. The order effectively disallowed the recovery of costs via customer rates and set rates at a level that does not allow BEL to earn a reasonable return. This has led to a deterioration of facilities and service. BEL appealed the rate order, but the court dismissed BEL's application, finding that various accepted concepts of good management shall not be applicable in Belize. BEL appealed this judgment to the Court of Appeal; however, a hearing is not expected until 2012. In May 2011, the Supreme Court of Belize granted BEL's application to prevent the PUC from taking any enforcement action against BEL pending the appeal. BEL has been in default of financial covenants under its long-term lending agreements since 2008.[33]

The government of Belize on Tuesday the 14TH of June 2011, nationalized the majority ownership interest of Fortis Inc. in Belize Electricity Ltd. The Belize utility encountered serious financial problems after the country’s Public Utilities Commission in 2008 disallowed “the recovery of previously incurred fuel and purchased power costs in customer rates and set customer rates at a level that does not allow BEL to earn a fair and reasonable return,” Fortis said in a statement released earlier this month. Fortis held approximately a 70 percent stake in Belize Electricity Ltd., which represents less than 2 percent of Fortis assets. The Belize Chamber of Commerce & Industry issued. a statement saying the government acted in haste and expressed concern over the nationalization and the message it sends to investors. In August 2009, the Government of Belize nationalized Belize Telemedia Limited, and the government owed entity now competes directly with Speednet. As a result of the nationalization process, the interconnection agreements are again subject to negotiations.

Both BTL and Speednet boast a full range of products and services including basic telephone services, national and international calls, prepaid services, cellular services via GSM 1900 megahertz (Mhz) and 3G Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA) 2000 respectively, international cellular roaming, fixed wireless, dial-up and internet, high-speed DSL, internet service, and national and international data networks.

[34] [35]

Tourism

Main article: Tourism in Belize

A combination of natural factors—climate, the Belize Barrier Reef, over 1,000 offshore Cayes (islands), excellent fishing, safe waters for boating, scuba diving, and snorkeling, numerous rivers for rafting, and kayaking, various jungle and wildlife reserves of fauna and flora, for hiking, bird watching, and helicopter touring, as well as many Maya ruins—support the thriving tourism and ecotourism industry. Of the hundreds of cave systems, it also has the largest cave system in Central America. Development costs are high, but the Government of Belize has designated tourism as its second development priority after agriculture. In 2007, tourist arrivals totalled 251,655 (with more than 210,000 from the U.S.) and tourist receipts amounted to $183.3 million.



The Maya pyramid "Caana" at Caracol, Cayo District, still the highest man-made structure in Belize



San Pedro Beach in Ambergris Caye



The Great Blue Hole, located near Ambergris Caye, Belize



Panoramic view of the Mountain Pine Ridge Forest Reserve's numerous mountains



"1,000 ft. Falls" in the Cayo District of Belize, the highest in Central America



Half Moon Caye, Belize



High Temple, Lamanai, Belize



Cucumber Beach at the Old Belize Adventure Cultural and Historical Center at Mile 4, Belize City, Belize



The "Crystal Maiden" Mayan sacrifice taken from within the cave Actun Tunichil Muknal



Caves Branch Cave System. Belize possesses the most extensive Cave system in all of Central America



The St. John's Cathedral, Belize City, the oldest Anglican Church in Central America or the Caribbean



A Glover's Reef Caye. Belize possesses well over 1,000 off shore cayes.

Education

Main article: Education in Belize


School children in San Ignacio.

There are a number of kindergartens and secondary and tertiary schools in Belize. They provide quality education for students which is mostly funded by the government. Belize possess about 5 tertiary level institutions offering associates, bachelors, and undergraduate degrees. The biggest university is the University of Belize. The university has 6 campuses throughout the country and it offers accounting, management, education, science, agriculture and other degrees.

Politics

Main article: Politics of Belize

Belize is a parliamentary democracy, a Commonwealth realm, and therefore a member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

The structure of government is based on the British parliamentary system, and the legal system is modelled on the Common Law of England. The head of state is Elizabeth II, Queen of Belize. Since the Queen resides in the United Kingdom, she is represented in Belize by the Governor-General. However, the cabinet, led by the Prime Minister of Belize, who is head of government, acting as advisors to the Governor-General, in practice exercise executive authority. Cabinet ministers are members of the majority political party in parliament and usually hold elected seats within it concurrent with their cabinet positions.

The bicameral National Assembly of Belize is composed of a House of Representatives and a Senate. The 31 members of the House are popularly elected to a maximum five-year term and introduce legislation affecting the development of Belize. The Governor-General appoints the 12 members of the Senate, with a Senate president selected by the members. The Senate is responsible for debating and approving bills passed by the House.

Belize is a full participating member of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), the Central American Integration System (SICA), The United Nations, and the Organization of American States. It is still in the process of acceding to Caricom and SICA treaties, including trade and single market treaties.

Districts and constituencies

Belize is divided into 6 districts, shown below with their areas (in sq.km) and populations at the 2010 Census:



Districts of Belize

1. Belize District 4,204 - 89,247
2. Cayo District 5,338 - 73,202
3. Corozal District 1,860 - 40,324
4. Orange Walk District 4,737 - 45,419
5. Stann Creek District 2,176 - 32,166
6. Toledo District 4,649 - 30,538

Total areas and populations 22,964 - 312,971

source: Central Statistical Office, Belize.

These districts are further divided into 31 constituencies.

The principal municipalities at the 2010 Census were Belize City (53,532), Belmopan (13,654), Orange Walk

Town (13,400), San Pedro (11,510), San Ignacio (9,925), Corozal Town (9,871), Dangriga (9,096), Santa Elena (7,052), Benque Viejo (5,824) and Punta Gorda (5,205).

Armed Forces

Main article: Military of Belize

The Belize Defence Force (BDF) is the **Military of Belize**, and is responsible for protecting the sovereignty of Belize. The BDF, along with the Belize National Coast Guard, and the Immigration Department, is a department of the Ministry of Defence and Immigration, which is headed by Carlos Perdomo; the BDF itself is commanded by Brigadier General Dario Tapia. In 1997, the regular army numbered over 900, the reserve army 381, the air wing 45 and the maritime wing 36, amounting to an overall strength of approximately 1400.[36] In 2005, the maritime wing became part of the Belizean Coast Guard.[37] In the same year, the government spent $1.2 million on the military, constituting 1.87% of the country's gross domestic product (GDP).[38]

After Belize achieved independence in 1981 the United Kingdom maintained a deterrent force in the country to protect it from invasion by Guatemala *(see Guatemalan claim to Belizean territory)*. The main British force left in 1994, three years after Guatemala recognised Belizean independence, but the United Kingdom maintains a training presence via the British Army Training and Support Unit Belize (BATSUB) and 25 Flight Army Air Corps.[36]

Demographics

Main articles: Demographics of Belize and Belizean people

Colonisation, slavery, and immigration have played major roles in affecting the ethnic composition of the population and as a result, Belize is a country with numerous cultures, languages, and ethnic groups.[39][40][41] The country's population is currently estimated to be a little over 333,000.[1] Mestizos comprise about 34% of the population, Kriols 25%, Spanish 15%, Maya 11%, and Garinagu 6%.[42]

Ethnic group	Population	% of total*
Mestizos	121,275	34%
Kriols	98,695	25%
Spanish	59,153	15%
Maya	37,819	11%
Garifuna	29,909	6%
Others	31,335	9%
* Percentage of total Belizean population		

Population and housing

According to the 2010 Housing and Population Census, the total population of Belize is 312,971. The total number of households in Belize was 79,598 and the average household size was 3.9. The homeless population amounted to 118 in total, of whom 113 were males and 5 were females. The institutional population were discovered to number 1,957; 1,665 being male and 292 being female. The total population in urban Belize was 139,069; 68,020 males and 71,049 females. There were 39,104 total urban households in 2010, with an average household size of 3.6. The total population in rural Belize was 171,827; 88,261 males and 83,566 females. There 40,494 total rural households in 2010, with an average household size of 4.2.

Maya and early settlers

The Maya are thought to have been in Belize and the Yucatán region since the second millennium BC; however,

much of Belize's original Maya population was wiped out by disease and conflicts between tribes and with Europeans. Three Maya groups now inhabit the country: The Yucatec (who came from Yucatán, Mexico to escape the Caste War of the 1840s), the Mopan (indigenous to Belize but were forced out by the British; they returned from Guatemala to evade slavery in the 19th century), and Kekchi (also fled from slavery in Guatemala in the 19th century).[43] The later groups are chiefly found in the Toledo District.



Two Kekchi Maya children. The Maya predominate in the Toledo District of Belize.

White, initially Spanish conquistadors explored and declared the land a Spanish colony but chose not to settle due to the lack of resources such as gold and the strong defence of the Yucatán by the Maya. Later English and Scottish settlers and pirates known as the "Baymen" entered the area in the 16th and 17th century respectively and established a logwood trade colony in what would become the Belize District.[11]

Kriols

Main article: Belizean Kriol people

Kriols make up roughly 25% of the Belizean population and about 75% percent of the Diaspora.[44] They are descendants of the Baymen slave owners, and slaves brought to Belize for the purpose of the logging industry.[45] These slaves were mostly Black (many also of Miskito ancestry) from Nicaragua and born Africans who had spent very brief periods in Jamaica.[46] Bay Islanders and more Jamaicans came in the late-19th century, further adding these all ready varied peoples, creating this ethnic group.



Boys of various ethnicities on a boat in Mango Creek

For all intents and purposes, Kriol is an ethnic and linguistic denomination, but some natives, even those blonde and blue-eyed, may call themselves Kriol, defining it as more a cultural attribute and not limited to physical appearance.[46] Kriol was historically only spoken by them, but this ethnicity has become synonymous with the **Belizean** national identity, and as a result it is now spoken by about 75% of Belizeans.[42][44] Kriols are found all over Belize, but predominantly in urban areas such as Belize City, coastal towns and villages, and in the Belize River Valley.

Garinagu

Main article: Garifuna people

The Garinagu (singular *Garifuna*) are a mix of African, Arawak, and Carib ancestry.[11] More precisely, the average Garifuna is 76% Sub Saharan African, 20% Arawak/Carib and 4% European.[47]

Throughout history they have been incorrectly labelled as *Black Caribs*. When the British took over Saint Vincent after the Treaty of Paris in 1763, they were opposed by French settlers and their Carib allies. The Caribs eventually surrendered to the British in 1796. The British separated the more African-looking Caribs from the more indigenous looking ones. 5,000 Garinagu were exiled, but only about 2,500 of them survived the voyage to Roatán, an island off the coast of Honduras.

Because Roatán was too small and infertile to support their population, the Garinagu petitioned the Spanish

authorities of Honduras to be allowed to settle on the mainland coast. The Spanish employed them as soldiers, and they spread along the Caribbean coast of Central America. The Garinagu settled in Seine Bight, Punta Gorda and Punta Negra, Belize by way of Honduras as early as 1802. However, in Belize 19 November 1832 is the date officially recognised as "Garifuna Settlement Day" in Dangriga.[42]

Mestizos and Spanish

Around the 1840s, Mestizo, Spanish, and Yucatec settlers from Mexico began to settle in the north due to the Caste War of Yucatán.[48][49] Currently, the Mestizos are the largest ethnic group in Belize, making up 34% of the population in 2000, and Spanish make up 15%. They predominate in the Corozal, Orange Walk, and much of the Cayo district, as well as San Pedro town in Ambergris Caye.[42]

The Mestizo culture was originated from a mixture of Spanish and Maya. The Mestizo towns of Belize have much more in common with neighbouring Yucatán and most of Guatemala and Central America than central, southern or coastal Belize. Towns centre on a main square, and social life focuses on the Catholic Church built on one side of it. Most Mestizos and Spanish speak Spanish, English and Kriol fluently.[48]

Other groups

The remaining 9% is a mix of Mennonite farmers, Indians, Chinese, whites from the United States and Canada, and many other foreign groups brought to assist the country's development. During the 1860s, a large influx of East Indians who spent brief periods in Jamaica and American Civil War veterans from Louisiana and other Southern states established Confederate settlements in British Honduras and introduced commercial sugar cane production to the colony, establishing 11 settlements in the interior. The 20th century saw the arrival of more Asian settlers from mainland China, South Korea, India, Syria, and Lebanon. Central American immigrants and expatriate Americans and Africans also began to settle in the country.[42]



Mennonite children selling peanuts near Lamanai in Belize. Roughly 10,000 German-speaking Mennonites live in Belize, farming the land and living according to their religious beliefs.

Emigration, immigration, and demographic shifts

Kriols and other ethnic groups are emigrating mostly to the United States, but also to the United Kingdom and other developed nations for better opportunities. Based on the latest U.S. Census, the number of Belizeans in the United States is approximately 160,000 (including 70,000 legal residents and naturalised citizens), consisting mainly of Kriols and Garinagu.[50]

Due to conflicts in neighbouring Central American nations, Mestizo refugees from El Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras have fled to Belize in significant numbers during the 1980s, and have been significantly adding to this group.[51] These two events have been changing the demographics of the nation for the last 30 years.[51]

According to estimates by the CIA in 2009, Belize's total fertility rate currently stands at approximately 3.6 children per woman. Its birth rate is 27.33 births/1,000 population, and the death rate is 5.8 deaths/1,000 population.[1]

Language

Main article: Languages of Belize

English is the official language of Belize, a former British colony. English is the primary language of public education. Spanish is spoken as a native tongue by 50 % of the population and is taught in school. Most Belizeans speak some Spanish, but almost all speak Kriol and English. Bilingualism is very common and encouraged.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Belize

Religious freedom is guaranteed in Belize. Nearly 80% of the inhabitants are Christian, with 49.6% of Belizeans being Roman Catholics and 29% Protestants.[52] Foreign Catholics frequently visit the country for special processions. The Greek Orthodox Church has a presence in Santa Elena.[53] Jehovah's Witnesses have experienced a significant increase in membership in recent years. According to the Witnesses, around 3% of the population attended at least one religious meeting in 2007.[54] The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints claims 3,300 members in the country[55]

Non-Christian minorities include: Hinduism, followed by most Indian immigrants, and Islam, common among Middle Eastern immigrants and has gained a following among some Kriols.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Belize

See also: Music of Belize



"The Bliss Center" in Belize City

Cuisine

Main article: Cuisine of Belize

Belizean cuisine is inspired by British, Mexican and Western Caribbean cooking. The basic ingredients are rice and beans, which are often eaten with chicken, pork, veal, fish or vegetables. Coconut milk and fried plantains are added to the dishes to create a truly tropical taste. Exotic ingredients include armadillo meat, venison and fried paca (called Gibnut in Kriol). Conch soup is a traditional dish which has a characteristic taste and thick consistency due to added okra, potatoes, yams, cassava flour and a touch of toasted habanero. Immigration has brought Garifuna dishes based on fish and plantains, and among the best known are Hudut, Darasa, Ereba, and Bundiga. Belizean food is almost always accompanied by white rice in coconut milk.



Garifuna performance at the Bliss Center in Belize City

Sports

Main article: Sport in Belize

The major sports in Belize are football, basketball, volleyball and cycling, with smaller followings of boat racing, track & field, softball and cricket. Fishing is also popular in areas of Belize. The Cross Country Cycling Classic,

also known as the "cross country" race or the Holy Saturday Cross Country Cycling Classic, is considered to be one of the most important Belize sports events. This one-day sports event is meant for amateur cyclists but has also gained a worldwide popularity.

This cycling event in Belize has seven rider categories based on rider rating, age, and gender. Action-packed and thrilling, this most interesting sporting event allows for the participation of tourists and visitors alike from all over the world. The cycling routes offer views across the resplendent greenery of the forest areas and the meandering rivers. This makes the event even more popular among the tourists.

The history of Cross Country Cycling Classic in Belize dates back to the period when Monrad Metzgen picked up the idea from a small village on the Northern highway. The people from this village used to cover long distances on their bicycles to attend the weekly game of cricket. He improvised on this observation and added thrill by sowing the idea of a sporting event in the difficult terrain of western highways, which were then poorly built.

On Easter day, citizens of Dangriga participate in a yearly fishing tournament. First, second, and third prize are awarded based on a scoring combination of size, species, and number. The tournament is broadcast over local radio stations, and prize money is awarded to the winners.

Belize's National Basketball Team is the only National Team that has achieved major victories internationally. During the 1998 Caricom Men's Basketball Championship, held at the Civic Center in Belize City. Belize went on to win the championship and proceeded to participate in the 1999 Centrobasquet Tournament in Havana. The National Team finished seventh of eight teams after winning only 1 game despite playing close all the way. In a return engagement at the 2000 CARICOM championship in Barbados, Belize placed fourth. Shortly thereafter, Belize moved to the Central American region and won the Central American Games championship in 2001. The team has failed to duplicate this success, most recently finishing with a 2 and 4 record in the 2006 COCABA championship. The team finished second in the 2009 COCABA tournament in Cancun, Mexico where it went 3–0 in group play. Belize won its opening match in the Centrobasquet Tournament, 2010, defeating Trinidad and Tobago, but lost badly to Mexico in a rematch of the COCABA final. A tough win over Cuba set Belize in position to advance, but they fell to Puerto Rico in their final match and failed to qualify.

Folklore

In their folklore, we find the legends of Lang Bobi Suzi, La Llorona, Cadejo, La Sucia, Luguchu Ellis, Tata Duende, Chatona, X'tabai, and Anansi.

Holidays

The following holidays are observed in Belize.[56]

Date	English Name	Remarks
1 January	New Year's Day	
9 March	Baron Bliss Day	Henry Edward Ernest Victor Bliss, commonly known as Baron Bliss (16 February 1869 – 9 March 1926), was a British-born traveller who willed some two million U.S. dollars to a trust fund for the benefit of the citizens of what was then the colony of British Honduras, now Belize.
variable	Easter	Good Friday and Easter Sunday (both Christian days marking the death and resurrection of Jesus Christ respectively) are both public holidays. When holidays fall on a Sunday, the Monday is given as a public

		holiday. Therefore "Easter Monday", the Monday following Easter Sunday, is a public holiday. In Dangriga, Easter marks the community's annual fishing tournament, which is broadcast via local radio and offers prize money to the first, second, and third place.
1 May	Labour Day	Address by the Minister of Labour or a representative, followed by parades and rallies held throughout the country. Kite contests, cycle races, harbour regatta, and horse races are also held.
24 May	Commonwealth Day	Celebrated nationwide as the Queen's birthday. National Sports Council holds horse races in Belize City at the National Stadium and in Orange Walk Town at the People's Stadium. Cycle races are held between Cayo and Belmopan. The three-day Toledo Cacao Festival is held in the Toledo District over the Commonwealth Day Holiday Weekend.
First Monday in July	CARICOM Day	Celebrated Throughout the Caricom region. Not celebrated in Belize as a holiday.
10 September	St. George's Caye Day	The Battle of St. George's Caye was a short military engagement that lasted from 3 to 10 September 1798, fought off the coast of what is now Belize. However, the name is typically reserved for the final battle that occurred on 10 September.
21 September	Independence Day	The day Belize declared independence from the United Kingdom in 1981.
12 October	Pan American Day	Celebrated mainly in Orange Walk, Cayo and Corozal where the Mestizo culture is predominant. Fiestas and beauty contests are held to celebrate Mestizo culture. Horse and cycle races countrywide. Tourism Week: Activities include silent and Dutch auction, grand vacation raffle drawing and fair.
19 November	Garifuna Settlement Day	Festivals, parades, and re-enactments, marking the first arrival of the Garifuna in 1832 in Dangriga. The annual Battle of the Drums competition is held in Punta Gorda Town on the Saturday preceding Garifuna Settlement Day.
25 December	Christmas	The Christian celebration of the birth of Jesus Christ.
26 December	Boxing Day	A Commonwealth gift-giving traditional holiday.

National Symbols

Black Orchid

Further information: Prosthechea cochleata


A black orchid

The National Flower of Belize is the Black Orchid (*Prosthechea cochleata*), also known as *Encyclia cochleata*).[57]

Mahogany Tree

The National Tree of Belize is the Mahogany Tree (*Swietenia macrophylla*), one of the magnificent giants of the Belize rain forest. Rising straight and tall to over a hundred feet from great buttresses at the roots, it emerges above the canopy of the surrounding trees with a

crown of large, shining green leaves. In the early months of the year, when the leaves fall and new red-brown growth appears, the tree can be spotted from a great distance. The tree puts out a great flush of small whitish flowers – the blossom for dark fruits, which are pear-shaped capsules about six inches long. When the fruits mature they split into five valves, freeing large winged seeds which are carried away by the wind. They fall on the shaded protection of the forest floor and germinate to begin a new life cycle. The mahogany tree matures in 60 to 80 years.

British settlers exploited the Belizean forest for mahogany, beginning around the middle of the 17th century. It was originally exported to the United Kingdom in the form of squared logs, but shipments now consist mainly of sawn lumber. The motto "Sub Umbra Florero" means: Under the shade (of the mahogany tree) I flourish.[58]

Keel Billed Toucan

The Keel Billed Toucan (*Ramphastos sulfuratus*) is the National Bird of Belize. It is noted for its great, canoe-shaped bill and its brightly coloured green, blue, red and orange feathers. Toucans are found in open areas of the country with large trees. It is mostly black with bright yellow cheeks and chest, red under the tail and a distinctive white patch at the base of the tail.They make a monotonous frog-like croak. Toucans like fruits, and eat by cutting with the serrated edge of their bills. Toucans nest in holes in trees, using natural holes or holes made by woodpeckers, often enlarging the cavity by removing soft, rotten wood. They lay two to four eggs which are incubated by both parents. The nesting stage lasts from six to seven weeks.



The Keel Billed Toucan

Tapir

Belize's National Animal is the Baird's Tapir, the largest land mammal of the American tropics. It is also known as the mountain cow, although it is actually related to the horse and the rhinoceros. It is protected under Belizean law.

National heroes

The three people who have received Belize's highest honours, Order of National Hero and Order of Belize, are:

- Phillip Goldson
- Monrad Metzgen
- George Cadle Price

See also

- Outline of Belize
- Index of Belize-related articles
- The Forgotten District – A Documentary on Maya ecotourism in southern Belize
- List of Belizeans
- List of international rankings

References

History of Belize

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of Belize** dates back thousands of years. The Maya civilization spread into the area of Belize between 1500 BC and AD 200 and flourished until about AD 1200. Several major archeological sites—notably Cahal Pech, Caracol, Lamanai, Lubaantun, Altun Ha, and Xunantunich—reflect the advanced civilization and much denser population of that period. The first recorded European settlement was established by shipwrecked English seamen in 1638. Over the next 150 years, more English settlements were established. This period also was marked by piracy, indiscriminate logging, and sporadic attacks by pre-America natives and neighboring Spanish settlements.[1]

Great Britain first sent an official representative to the area in the late 18th century, but Belize was not formally termed the "Colony of British Honduras" until 1840. It became a crown colony in 1862. Subsequently, several constitutional changes were enacted to expand representative government. Full internal self-government under a ministerial system was granted in January 1964. The official name of the territory was changed from British Honduras to Belize in June 1973, and full independence was granted on September 21, 1981.[1]

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Ancient Maya civilization

Main article: Pre-Columbian Belize

The Maya civilization emerged at least three millennia ago in the lowland area of the Yucatán Peninsula and the highlands to the south, in what is now southeastern Mexico, Guatemala, western Honduras, and Belize. Many aspects of this culture persist in the area despite nearly 500 years of European domination. Prior to about 2500 B.C., some hunting and foraging bands settled in small farming villages; they later domesticated crops such as corn, beans, squash, and chili peppers. A profusion of languages and subcultures developed within the Mayan

core culture. Between about 2500 B.C. and A.D. 250, the basic institutions of Mayan civilization emerged. The peak of this civilization occurred during the classic period, which began about A.D. 250.[2] The recorded history of the center and south is dominated by Caracol, where the inscriptions on their monuments was, as elsewhere, in the Lowland Maya aristocratic tongue Classic Ch'olti'an.[3] North of the Maya Mountains, the inscriptional language at Lamanai was Yucatecan as of 625 CE.[4] The last date recorded in Ch'olti'an within Belizean borders is 859 CE in Caracol, stele 10. Yucatec civilisation, in Lamanai, lasted longer.



Extent of the Maya civilization

Farmers engaged in various types of agriculture, including labor-intensive irrigated and ridged-field systems and shifting slash-and-burn agriculture. Their products fed the civilization's craft specialists, merchants, warriors, and priest-astronomers, who coordinated agricultural and other seasonal activities with a cycle of rituals in ceremonial centers. These priests, who observed the movements of the sun, moon, planets, and stars, developed a complex mathematical and calendrical system to coordinate various cycles of time and to record specific events on carved stelae. The Maya were skilled at making pottery, carving jade, knapping flint, and making elaborate costumes of feathers. The architecture of Mayan civilization included temples and palatial residences organized in groups around plazas. These structures were built of cut stone, covered with stucco, and elaborately decorated and painted. Stylized carvings and paintings, along with sculptured stelae and geometric patterns on buildings, constitute a highly developed style of art.[2]

Belize boasts important sites of the earliest Mayan settlements, majestic ruins of the classic period, and examples of late postclassic ceremonial construction. About five kilometers west of Orange Walk, is Cuello, a site from perhaps as early as 2,500 B.C. Jars, bowls, and other dishes found there are among the oldest pottery unearthed in present-day Mexico and Central America. Cerros, a site on Chetumal Bay, was a flourishing trade and ceremonial center between about 300 B.C. and A.D. 100. One of the finest carved jade objects of Mayan civilization, the head of what is usually taken to be the sun god Kinich Ahau, was found in a tomb at the classic period site of Altún Ha, thirty kilometers northwest of present-day Belize City. Other Mayan centers located in Belize include Xunantunich and Baking Pot in Cayo District, Lubaantún and Nimli Punit in Toledo District, and Lamanai on Hill Bank Lagoon in Orange Walk District.[2]



Maya temple at Altun Ha

In the late classic period, probably at least 400,000 people inhabited the Belize area. People settled almost every part of the country worth cultivating, as well as the cay and coastal swamp regions. But in the 10th century, Mayan society suffered a severe breakdown. Construction of public buildings ceased, the administrative centers lost power, and the population declined as social and economic systems lost their coherence. Some people continued to occupy, or perhaps reoccupied, sites such as Altún Ha, Xunantunich, and Lamanai. Still, these sites ceased being splendid ceremonial and civic centers. The decline of Mayan civilization is still not fully explained. Rather than identifying the collapse as the result of a single factor, many archaeologists now believe that the decline of the Maya was a result of many complex factors and that the decline occurred at different times in different regions.[2]

Conquest and early colonial period

Main article: History of Belize (1502-1862)

Pre-Columbian Mayan societies and the conquest

Many Maya were still in Belize when the Europeans came in the 16th and 17th centuries. Archaeological and ethnohistorical research confirms that several groups of Mayan peoples lived in the area now known as Belize in the 16th century. The political geography of that period does not coincide with present-day boundaries, so several Mayan provinces lay across the frontiers of modern Belize, Mexico, and Guatemala.[2]



Christopher Columbus traveled to the Gulf of Honduras during his fourth voyage in 1502.

Spain soon sent expeditions to Guatemala and Honduras, and the conquest of Yucatán began in 1527. Though the Maya offered stiff resistance to Spanish "pacification", diseases contracted from the Spanish devastated the indigenous population and weakened its ability to resist conquest. In the 17th century, Spanish missionaries established churches in Mayan settlements with the intention of converting and controlling these people.[2]

Piracy along the coast increased during this period. In 1642, and again in 1648, pirates sacked Salamanca de Bacalar, the seat of Spanish government in southern Yucatán. The abandonment of Bacalar ended Spanish control over the Mayan provinces of Chetumal and Dzuluinicob.[2]

Between 1638 and 1695, the Maya living in the area of Tipu enjoyed autonomy from Spanish rule. But in 1696, Spanish soldiers used Tipu as a base from which they pacified the area and supported missionary activities. In 1697 the Spanish conquered the Itzá, and in 1707, the Spanish forcibly resettled the inhabitants of Tipu to the area near Lago Petén Itzá. The political center of the Mayan province of Dzuluinicob ceased to exist at the time that British colonists were becoming increasingly interested in settling the area.[2]

Colonial rivalry between Spain and Britain

In the 16th and 17th centuries, Spain tried to maintain a monopoly on trade and colonization in its New World colonies, but northern European powers were increasingly attracted to the region by the potential for trade and settlement. These powers resorted to smuggling, piracy, and war in their efforts to challenge and then destroy Spain's monopoly. In the 17th century, the Dutch, English, and French encroached on Spain's New World possessions.[2]

Early in the 17th century, in southeastern Mexico and on the Yucatán Peninsula, English buccaneers began cutting logwood (*Haematoxylum campechianum*), which was used in the production of a textile dye. According to legend, one of these buccaneers, Peter Wallace, called "Ballis" by the Spanish, settled near and gave his name to the Belize River as early as 1638. English buccaneers began using the coastline as a base from which to attack Spanish ships. Buccaneers stopped plundering Spanish logwood ships and started cutting their own wood in the 1650s and 1660s. Logwood extraction then became the main reason for the English settlement for more than a century. A 1667 treaty, in which the European powers agreed to suppress piracy, encouraged the shift from buccaneering to cutting logwood and led to more permanent settlement.[2]

Conflict continued between Britain and Spain over the right of the British to cut logwood and to settle in the region. In 1717 Spain expelled British logwood cutters from the Bay of Campeche west of the Yucatán.[2] During the 18th century, the Spanish attacked the British settlers repeatedly. The Spanish never settled in the region, however, and the British always returned to expand their trade and settlement. The 1763 Treaty of Paris conceded to Britain the right to cut logwood but asserted Spanish sovereignty over the territory. When war broke out again in 1779, the British settlement was abandoned until the Treaty of Versailles in 1783 allowed the British

to again cut logwood in the area. By that time, however, the logwood trade had declined and Honduras Mahogany (*Swietenia macrophylla*) had become the chief export.[2]

Beginnings of self-government and the plantocracy

The British were reluctant to set up any formal government for the settlement for fear of provoking the Spanish. On their own initiative, settlers had begun electing magistrates to establish common law as early as 1738. In 1765 these regulations were codified and expanded into Burnaby's Code. When the settlers began returning to the area in 1784, Colonel Edward Marcus Despard was named superintendent to oversee the Settlement of Belize in the Bay of Honduras. The 1786 Convention of London allowed the British settlers to cut and export timber but not to build fortifications, establish any form of government, or develop plantation agriculture. Spain retained sovereignty over the area.[2]

The last Spanish attack on the British settlement, the Battle of St. George's Caye, occurred two years after the outbreak of war in 1796. The British drove off the Spanish, thwarting Spain's last attempt to control the territory or dislodge other settlers.[2]

Despite treaties banning local government and plantation agriculture, both activities flourished. In the late 18th century, an oligarchy of relatively wealthy settlers controlled the political economy of the British settlement. These settlers claimed about four-fifths of the available land; owned about half of all slaves; controlled imports, exports, and the wholesale and retail trades; and determined taxation. A group of magistrates, whom they elected from among themselves, had executive as well as judicial functions. The landowners resisted any challenge to their growing political power.[2]

Slavery in the settlement, 1794-1838

The earliest reference to African slaves in the British settlement appeared in a 1724 Spanish missionary's account, which stated that the British recently had been importing them from Jamaica, Bermuda, and other Central American British Colonies. A century later, the total slave population numbered about 2,300. Most slaves were born in Africa, and many slaves at first maintained African ethnic identifications and cultural practices. Gradually, however, slaves assimilated and a new, synthetic Kriol culture was formed.[1]

Slavery in the settlement was associated with the extraction of timber, because treaties forbade the production of plantation crops. Settlers needed only one or two slaves to cut logwood, but as the trade shifted to mahogany in the last quarter of the 18th century, the settlers needed more money, land, and slaves for larger-scale operations. Other slaves worked as domestic helpers, sailors, blacksmiths, nurses, and bakers. The slaves' experience, though different from that on plantations in other colonies in the region, was nevertheless oppressive. They were frequently the objects of "extreme inhumanity," as a report published in 1820 stated. In the 18th century, many slaves escaped to Yucatán, and in the early 19th century a steady flow of runaways went to Guatemala and down the coast to Honduras.[1]

One way the settler minority maintained its control was by dividing the slaves from the growing population of free Kriol people who were given limited privileges. Though some Kriols were legally free, their economic activities and voting rights were restricted. Privileges, however, led many free blacks to stress their loyalty and acculturation to British ways.[1]

The act to abolish slavery throughout the British colonies, passed in 1833, was intended to avoid drastic social changes by effecting emancipation over a five-year transition period, by implementing a system of "apprenticeship" calculated to extend masters' control over the former slaves, and by compensating former slave

owners for their loss of property. After 1838, the masters of the settlement continued to control the country for over a century by denying access to land and by limiting freedmen's economic freedom.[1]

Emigration of the Garifuna

At the same time that the settlement was grappling with the ramifications of the end of slavery, a new ethnic group—the Garifuna—appeared. In the early 19th century, the Garifuna, descendants of Carib peoples of the Lesser Antilles and of Africans who had escaped from slavery, arrived in the settlement. The Garifuna had resisted British and French colonialism in the Lesser Antilles until they were defeated by the British in 1796. After putting down a violent Garifuna rebellion on Saint Vincent, the British moved between 1,700 and 5,000 of the Garifuna across the Caribbean to the Bay Islands (present-day Islas de la Bahía) off the north coast of Honduras. From there they migrated to the Caribbean coasts of Nicaragua, Honduras, Guatemala, and the southern part of present-day Belize. By 1802 about 150 Garifuna had settled in the Stann Creek (present-day Dangriga) area and were engaged in fishing and farming.[2]

Other Garifuna later came to the British settlement of Belize after finding themselves on the wrong side in a civil war in Honduras in 1832. Many Garifuna men soon found wage work alongside slaves as mahogany cutters. In 1841 Dangriga, the Garifuna's largest settlement, was a flourishing village. The American traveler John Stephens described the Garifuna village of Punta Gorda as having 500 inhabitants and producing a wide variety of fruits and vegetables.[2]

The British treated Garifuna as squatters. In 1857 the British told the Garifuna that they must obtain leases from the crown or risk losing their lands, dwellings, and other buildings. The 1872 Crown Lands Ordinance established reservations for the Garifuna as well as the Maya. The British prevented both groups from owning land and treated them as a source of valuable labor.[2]

Constitutional developments, 1850-62

In the 1850s, the power struggle between the superintendent and the planters coincided with events in international diplomacy to produce major constitutional changes. In the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850, Britain and the United States agreed to promote the construction of a canal across Central America and to refrain from colonizing any part of Central America. The British government interpreted the colonization clause as applying only to any future occupation. But the United States government claimed that Britain was obliged to evacuate the area, particularly after 1853, when President Franklin Pierce's expansionist administration stressed the Monroe Doctrine. Britain yielded on the Bay Islands and the Mosquito Coast in eastern Nicaragua. But in 1854, Britain produced a formal constitution establishing a legislative for its possession of the settlement in present-day Belize.[2]

The Legislative Assembly of 1854 was to have eighteen elected members, each of whom was to have at least £400 sterling worth of property. The assembly was also to have three official members appointed by the superintendent. The fact that voters had to have property yielding an income of £7 a year or a salary of a £100 a year reinforced the restrictive nature of this legislature. The superintendent could defer or dissolve the assembly at any time, originate legislation, and give or withhold consent to bills. This situation suggested that the legislature was more a chamber of debate than a place where decisions were made. The Colonial Office in London became, therefore, the real political-administrative power in the settlement. This shift in power was reinforced when in 1862, the Settlement of Belize in the Bay of Honduras was declared a British colony called British Honduras, and the crown's representative was elevated to a lieutenant governor, subordinate to the governor of Jamaica.[2]

Under the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850 between the U.S. and Britain, neither country was to undertake any control, colonization or occupation of any part of Central America, but it was unclear if it applied to Belize. In 1853, a new American government attempted to have Britain leave Belize. In 1856, the Dallas-Clarendon Treaty between the two governments recognized Belize territory as British. The Sarstoon River was recognized as the southern border with Guatemala. The Anglo-Guatemalan Treaty of 1859 was signed, setting the present-day western boundary and temporarily settling the question of Guatemala's claim on the territory. Only the northern border with Mexico was undefined.

British Honduras (1862-1981)

Main article: British Honduras

Mayan emigration and conflict

As the British consolidated their settlement and pushed deeper into the interior in search of mahogany in the late 18th century, they encountered resistance from the Maya. In the second half of the 19th century, however, a combination of events outside and inside the colony redefined the position of the Maya.[2] During the Caste War in Yucatán, a devastating struggle that halved the population of the area between 1847 and 1855, thousands of refugees fled to the British settlement. Though the Maya were not allowed to own land, most of the refugees were small farmers who were growing considerable quantities of crops by the mid-19th century. One group of Maya, led by Marcos Canul, attacked a mahogany camp on the Bravo River in 1866. A detachment of British troops sent to San Pedro was defeated by the Maya later that year. Early in 1867, British troops marched into areas in which the Maya had settled and destroyed villages in an attempt to drive them out. The Maya returned, however, and in April 1870, Canul and his men occupied Corozal.[2] An unsuccessful 1872 attack by the Maya on Orange Walk was the last serious attack on the British colony.[2]

In the 1880s and 1890s, Mopán and Kekchí Maya fled from forced labor in Guatemala and settled in several villages in southern British Honduras. Under the policy of indirect rule, a system of elected alcaldes (mayors) linked these Maya to the colonial administration. However, the remoteness of their settlements resulted in the Mopán and Kekchí Maya becoming less assimilated into the colony than the Maya of the north, where a Mestizo culture emerged. By the end of the 19th century, the ethnic pattern that remained largely intact throughout the 20th century was in place: Protestants largely of African descent, who spoke either English or Creole and lived in Belize Town; the Roman Catholic Maya and Mestizos who spoke Spanish and lived chiefly in the north and west; and the Roman Catholic Garifuna who spoke English, Spanish, or Garifuna and settled on the southern coast.[2]

Formal establishment of the colony, 1862-71


Flag of British Honduras

Largely as a result of the costly military expeditions against the Maya, the expenses of administering the new colony of British Honduras increased, at a time when the economy was severely depressed. Great landowners and merchants dominated the Legislative Assembly, which controlled the colony's revenues and expenditures. Some of the landowners were also involved in commerce but their interest differed from the other merchants of Belize Town. The former group resisted the taxation of land and favored an increase in import duties; the latter preferred the opposite. Moreover, the merchants in the town felt relatively secure from Mayan attacks and were unwilling to contribute toward the protection of mahogany camps, whereas the landowners felt that they should not be required to pay taxes on lands given inadequate

protection. These conflicting interests produced a stalemate in the Legislative Assembly, which failed to authorize the raising of sufficient revenue. Unable to agree among themselves, the members of the Legislative Assembly surrendered their political privileges and asked for establishment of direct British rule in return for the greater security of crown colony status. The new constitution was inaugurated in April 1871 and the new legislature became the Legislative Council.[2]

Under the new constitution of 1871, the lieutenant governor and the Legislative Council, consisting of five ex officio or "official" and four appointed or "unofficial" members, governed British Honduras. This constitutional change confirmed and completed a change in the locus and form of power in the colony's political economy that had been evolving during the preceding half century. The change moved power from the old settler oligarchy to the boardrooms of British companies and to the Colonial Office in London.[2]

The colonial order, 1871-1931

The forestry industry's control of land and its influence in colonial decision-making slowed the development of agriculture and the diversification of the economy. Though British Honduras had vast areas of sparsely populated, unused land, landownership was controlled by a small European monopoly, thwarting the evolution of a Creole landowning class from the former slaves.[2]

Landownership became even more consolidated during the economic depression of the mid-19th century. Major results of this depression included the decline of the old settler class, the increasing consolidation of capital, and the intensification of British landownership. The British Honduras Company (later the Belize Estate and Produce Company) emerged as the predominant landowner, with about half of all the privately held land in the colony. The new company was the chief force in British Honduras's political economy for over a century.[2][2]

This concentration and centralization of capital meant that the direction of the colony's economy was henceforth determined largely in London. It also signaled the eclipse of the old settler elite. By about 1890, most commerce in British Honduras was in the hands of a clique of Scottish and German merchants, most of them newcomers. The European minority exercised great influence in the colony's politics, partly because it was guaranteed representation on the wholly appointed Legislative Council. In 1892, the governor appointed several Creole members, but whites remained the majority.[2]

Despite the prevailing stagnation of the colony's economy and society during most of the century prior to the 1930s, seeds of change were being sown. The mahogany trade remained depressed, and efforts to develop plantation agriculture failed. A brief revival in the forestry industry took place early in the 20th century as new demands for forest products came from the United States. Exports of chicle, a gum taken from the sapodilla tree and used to make chewing gum, propped up the economy from the 1880s. A short-lived boom in the mahogany trade occurred around 1900 in response to growing demand for the wood in the United States, but the ruthless exploitation of the forests without any conservation or reforestation depleted resources.[2]

Creoles, who were well-connected with businesses in the United States, challenged the traditional political-economic connection with Britain as trade with the United States intensified. In 1927, Creole merchants and professionals replaced the representatives of British landowners (except for the manager of the Belize Estate and Produce Company) on the Legislative Council. The participation of this Creole elite in the political process was evidence of emerging social changes that were largely concealed by economic stagnation.[2]

An agreement between Mexico and Britain in 1893 set the boundary along the Rio Hondo, though the treaty was not finalized until 1897.



Panoramic view of Belize City, c. 1914

Genesis of modern politics, 1931-54

The Great Depression shattered the colony's economy, and unemployment increased rapidly. On top of this economic disaster, the worst hurricane in the country's recent history demolished Belize Town on September 10, 1931, killing more than 1,000 people. The British relief response was tardy and inadequate. The British government seized the opportunity to impose tighter control on the colony and endowed the governor with the power to enact laws in emergency situations. The Belize Estate and Produce Company survived the depression years because of its special connections in British Honduras and London.[2]

Meanwhile, workers in mahogany camps were treated almost like slaves. The law governing labor contracts, the Masters and Servants Act of 1883, made it a criminal offense for a laborer to breach a contract. In 1931 the governor, Sir John Burdon, rejected proposals to legalize trade unions and to introduce a minimum wage and sickness insurance. The poor responded in 1934 with a series of demonstrations, strikes, petitions, and riots that marked the beginning of modern politics and the independence movement. Riots, strikes, and rebellions had occurred before, but the events of the 1930s were modern labor disturbances in the sense that they gave rise to organizations with articulate industrial and political goals. Antonio Soberanis Gómez and his colleagues of the Labourers and Unemployed Association (LUA) attacked the governor and his officials, the rich merchants, and the Belize Estate and Produce Company, couching their demands in broad moral and political terms that began to define and develop a new nationalistic and democratic political culture.

The labor agitation's most immediate success was the creation of relief work by a governor who saw it as a way to avoid civil disturbances. The movement's greatest achievements, however, were the labor reforms passed between 1941 and 1943. Trade unions were legalized in 1941, and a 1943 law removed breach-of-labor-contract from the criminal code. The General Workers' Union (GWU), registered in 1943, quickly expanded into a nationwide organization and provided crucial support for the nationalist movement that took off with the formation of the People's United Party (PUP) in 1950. The 1930s were therefore the crucible of modern Belizean politics. It was a decade during which the old phenomena of exploitative labor conditions and authoritarian colonial and industrial relations began to give way to new labor and political processes and institutions. The same period saw an expansion in voter eligibility. In 1945 only 822 voters were registered in a population of over 63,000, but by 1954 British Honduras achieved suffrage for all literate adults.[2]

In December 1949, the governor devalued the British Honduras dollar in defiance of the Legislative Council, an act that precipitated Belize's independence movement. The governor's action angered the nationalists because it reflected the limits of the legislature and revealed the extent of the colonial administration's power. The devaluation enraged labor because it protected the interests of the big transnationals while subjecting the working class to higher prices for goods. Devaluation thus united labor, nationalists, and the Creole middle classes in opposition to the colonial administration. On the night that the governor declared the devaluation, the

People's Committee was formed and the nascent independence movement suddenly matured.[2]

Between 1950 and 1954, the PUP, formed upon the dissolution of the People's Committee on September 29, 1950, consolidated its organization, established its popular base, and articulated its primary demands. By January 1950, the GWU and the People's Committee were holding joint public meetings and discussing issues such as devaluation, labor legislation, the proposed West Indies Federation, and constitutional reform. As political leaders took control of the union in the 1950s to use its strength, however, the union movement declined.[2]

The PUP concentrated on agitating for constitutional reforms, including universal adult suffrage without a literacy test, an all- elected Legislative Council, an Executive Council chosen by the leader of the majority party in the legislature, the introduction of a ministerial system, and the abolition of the governor's reserve powers. In short, PUP pushed for representative and responsible government. The colonial administration, alarmed by the growing support for the PUP, retaliated by attacking two of the party's chief public platforms, the Belize City Council and the PUP. In 1952 he comfortably topped the polls in Belize City Council elections. Within just two years, despite persecution and division, the PUP had become a powerful political force, and George Price had clearly become the party's leader.[2]

The colonial administration and the National Party, which consisted of loyalist members of the Legislative Council, portrayed the PUP as pro-Guatemalan and even communist. The leaders of the PUP, however, perceived British Honduras as belonging to neither Britain nor Guatemala. The governor and the National Party failed in their attempts to discredit the PUP on the issue of its contacts with Guatemala, which was then ruled by the democratic, reformist government of President Jacobo Arbenz. When voters went to the polls on April 28, 1954, in the first election under universal literate adult suffrage, the main issue was clearly colonialism—a vote for the PUP was a vote in favor of self-government. Almost 70 percent of the electorate voted. The PUP gained 66.3 percent of the vote and won eight of the nine elected seats in the new Legislative Assembly. Further constitutional reform was unequivocally on the agenda.[2]

Decolonization and the border dispute with Guatemala



Belize (red) and Guatemala (blue)

British Honduras faced two obstacles to independence: British reluctance until the early 1960s to allow citizens to govern themselves, and Guatemala's complete intransigence over its long-standing claim to the entire territory (Guatemala had repeatedly threatened to use force to take over British Honduras). By 1961, Britain was willing to let the colony become independent. Negotiations between Britain and Guatemala began again in 1961, but the elected representatives of British Honduras had no voice in these talks. George Price refused an invitation to make British Honduras an "associated state" of Guatemala, reiterating his goal of leading the colony to independence. In 1963 Guatemala broke off talks and ended diplomatic relations with Britain. Talks between Guatemala and British Honduras started and stopped abruptly during the late 1960s and early 1970s. From 1964 Britain controlled only British Honduran defense, foreign affairs, internal security, and the terms and conditions of the public service, and in 1973 the colony's name was changed to Belize in anticipation of independence.[2]

By 1975, the Belizean and British governments, frustrated at dealing with the military-dominated regimes in Guatemala, agreed on a new strategy that would take the case for self-determination to various international forums. The Belize government felt that by gaining international support, it could strengthen its position, weaken Guatemala's claims, and make it harder for Britain to make any concessions. Belize argued that Guatemala frustrated the country's legitimate aspirations to independence and that Guatemala was pushing an irrelevant

claim and disguising its own colonial ambitions by trying to present the dispute as an effort to recover territory lost to a colonial power. Between 1975 and 1981, Belizean leaders stated their case for self-determination at a meeting of the heads of Commonwealth of Nations governments, the conference of ministers of the Nonaligned Movement, and at meetings of the United Nations (UN). Latin American governments initially supported Guatemala. Between 1975 and 1979, however, Belize won the support of Cuba, Mexico, Panama, and Nicaragua. Finally, in November 1980, with Guatemala completely isolated, the UN passed a resolution that demanded the independence of Belize.[2]

A last attempt was made to reach an agreement with Guatemala prior to the independence of Belize. The Belizean representatives to the talks made no concessions, and a proposal, called the Heads of Agreement, was initialed on March 11, 1981. However, when ultraright political forces in Guatemala labeled the proponents as sellouts, the Guatemalan government refused to ratify the agreement and withdrew from the negotiations. Meanwhile, the opposition in Belize engaged in violent demonstrations against the Heads of Agreement. A state of emergency was declared. However, the opposition could offer no real alternatives. With the prospect of independence celebrations in the offing, the opposition's morale fell. Independence came to Belize on September 21, 1981 after the Belize Act 1981, without reaching an agreement with Guatemala.[2]

Independent Belize

Main article: History of Belize (1981–present)



The flag of Belize, adopted in 1922

With Price at the helm, the PUP won all elections until 1984. In that election, first national election after independence, the PUP was defeated by the United Democratic Party (UDP), and UDP leader Manuel Esquivel replaced Price as prime minister. Price returned to power after elections in 1989. Guatemala's president formally recognized Belize's independence in 1992. The following year the United Kingdom announced that it would end its military involvement in Belize. All British soldiers were withdrawn in 1994, apart from a small contingent of troops who remained to train Belizean troops.

The UDP regained power in the 1993 national election, and Esquivel became prime minister for a second time. Soon afterward Esquivel announced the suspension of a pact reached with Guatemala during Price's tenure, claiming Price had made too many concessions in order to gain Guatemalan recognition. The pact would have resolved a 130 year old border dispute between the two countries. Border tensions continued into the early 21st century, although the two countries cooperated in other areas.

The PUP won a landslide victory in the 1998 national elections, and PUP leader Said Musa was sworn in as prime minister. In the 2003 elections the PUP maintained its majority, and Musa continued as prime minister. He pledged to improve conditions in the underdeveloped and largely inaccessible southern part of Belize.



Riot police during Belize's 2005

In 2005, Belize was the site of unrest caused by discontent with the People's United Party government, including tax increases in the national budget. On February 8, 2008, Dean Barrow of the UDP was sworn in as Belize's first black prime minister.

Throughout Belize's history, Guatemala has claimed ownership of all or part of the territory. This claim is occasionally reflected in maps showing Belize as Guatemala's twenty-third province. As of March 2007, the border dispute with Guatemala remains unresolved and quite contentious;

unrest

[5][6] at various times the issue has required mediation by the United Kingdom, Caribbean Community heads of Government, the Organisation of American States, and the United States. Since independence, a British garrison has been retained in Belize at the request of the Belizean government. Notably, both Guatemala and Belize are participating in the confidence-building measures approved by the OAS, including the Guatemala-Belize Language Exchange Project.[7]

See also

- British colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of the British West Indies
- History of Central America
- History of North America
- History of the Caribbean
- List of Prime Ministers of Belize
- Politics of Belize
- Spanish colonization of the Americas

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2. ^ ***a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z aa ab ac ad ae af ag ah ai aj ak al am an ao*** Bolland, Nigel. "Belize: Historical Setting". In *A Country Study: Belize* (http://lcweb2.loc.gov/frd/cs/bztoc.html) (Tim Merrill, editor). Library of Congress Federal Research Division (January 1992). *This article incorporates text from this source, which is in the public domain.*
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5. ^ Nation News 2006 (http://www.nationnews.com/life/314888747749224.php)
6. ^ ACP-EU summit 2000 (http://www.hartford-hwp.com/archives/47/185.html)
7. ^ Guatemala-Belize Language Exchange Project (http://www.guatemalabelize.com/)

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Categories: History of Belize | Spanish West Indies | Former British colonies

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Monarchy of Belize

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Belize** (the **Belizean monarchy**) is a system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign of Belize, holding the position of head of state; the incumbent is Elizabeth II, officially called Queen of Belize, who has reigned since September 21, 1981. The heir apparent is Elizabeth's eldest son, Prince Charles, though the Queen is presently the only member of the Belizean Royal Family with any constitutional role. She, her husband and consort, Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, Prince Charles, and other members of the Royal Family, including the Queen's other children and cousins, undertake various public ceremonial functions across Belize and on behalf of Belize abroad.

Most of the Queen's powers in Belize are exercised by the Governor-General, presently Colville Young, though the monarch does hold several powers that are hers alone.

The Belizean monarch, besides reigning in Belize, separately serves as head of state for each of fifteen other Commonwealth countries. This developed from the former colonial relationship of these countries to Britain, but they are now independent and the monarchy of each is legally distinct.

Queen of Belize

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Belize



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	September 21, 1981

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Origins

The current Belizean monarchy can trace its ancestral lineage back to the Anglo-Saxon period, and ultimately back to the kings of the Angles and the early Scottish kings. The territories that today comprise Belize were claimed under King Philip IV of Spain in the early 17th century, and were won by King George III in 1798; both of whom are blood relatives of the current monarch. Throughout the 19th century colonial settlement increased and Belize was made the Crown colony of British Honduras by Queen Victoria in 1871. The country was granted its independence from the United Kingdom by Queen Elizabeth II in 1981 to form Belize as a kingdom in its own right.

International and domestic aspects

Sixteen states within the 54-member Commonwealth of Nations are known as Commonwealth realms and Belize is one of these. Despite sharing the same person as their respective national monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms is sovereign and independent of the others.[1]

See also: Commonwealth realm: Constitutional implications

Development of shared monarchy

The Balfour Declaration of 1926 provided the Dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of a shared Crown that operates independently in each realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the Dominions were secondary. The monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, political, and of convenience. The Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act 1927 was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the Statute of Westminster 1931.

Though constitutional laws governing the line of succession to the Belizean throne lie within the control of the Belizean parliament, via adopting the Statute of Westminster Belize agreed not to change its rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship. This situation applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the United Kingdom, a situation that has been likened to a treaty amongst these countries.[2]

On all matters of the Belizean state, the monarch is advised solely by Belizean Ministers of the Crown. Effective with the Belize Act 1981, no British or other realm government can advise the monarch on any matters pertinent to Belize.

See also: Executive Council of Belize

Title

In Belize, the Queen's official title is:

- *Elizabeth The Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Belize and of Her Other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth.*

This style communicates Belize's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the sovereign's role specifically as Queen of Belize, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms, by mentioning Belize separately from the other countries. Typically, the sovereign is styled "Queen of Belize," and is addressed as such

when in Belize, or performing duties on behalf of Belize abroad.

Further information: List of titles and honours of Queen Elizabeth II

Succession



Charles, Prince of Wales, is the heir apparent to the Belizean Throne

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles.[3] Upon the demise of the Crown the Executive Council of Belize is expected to proclaim him King of Belize upon his accession to the throne.

Succession to the throne is by male-preference primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, 1701, as well as the English Bill of Rights, 1689; these documents are part of British constitutional law to which Belize defers for the line of succession; however, as, per the Statute of Westminster, a part of Belizean constitutional law, no act of the British Parliament after 1931 will have effect in Belize. The Act of Settlement restricts the succession to the natural (i.e. non-adopted), legitimate descendants of Sophia, Electress of Hanover (1630–1714), a granddaughter of James I, and lays out the rules that the monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As Belize defers to the United Kingdom for succession, see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

Upon a "demise in the Crown" (the death of a sovereign), his or her heir immediately and automatically succeeds, without any need for confirmation or further ceremony; hence arises the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!" Nevertheless, it is customary for the accession of the sovereign to be publicly proclaimed by the Governor-General. After an appropriate period of mourning has passed, the sovereign is also crowned in Westminster Abbey, normally by the Archbishop of Canterbury. A coronation is not necessary for a sovereign to reign; for example, Edward VIII was never crowned, yet was undoubtedly king during his short reign.

After an individual ascends the throne, he or she continues to reign until death. Monarchs are not allowed to unilaterally abdicate.

Constitutional role

Belize's constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Belizean in origin, which gives Belize a similar parliamentary system of government as the other Commonwealth realms. All powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the monarch,[4] who is represented by the Governor General of Belize – appointed by the monarch upon the advice of the Prime Minister of Belize. Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by this vice-regal representative.

As all executive authority is vested in the sovereign, the institutions of government are said to act under her authority; hence, the government of Belize is formally referred to as "Her Majesty's Government in Belize,"[5] however, since the early 1970s, though the constitutional arrangements have not changed, the government is more often addressed simply as "The Government of Belize."

Constitutional duties

The role of the Queen and the Governor-General is both legal and practical; the Crown is regarded as a corporation, in which several parts share the authority of the whole, with the Queen as the person at the centre of the constitutional construct.[6]

The vast powers that belong to the Crown are collectively known as the Royal Prerogative, which includes many powers, such as the ability to make treaties and send ambassadors, as well as certain duties such as to defend the realm and to maintain the Queen's peace. Parliamentary approval is not required for the exercise of the Royal Prerogative; moreover, the consent of the Crown must be obtained before either of the Houses of Parliament may even debate a bill affecting the sovereign's prerogatives or interests. It is important to note that the Royal Prerogative belongs to the Crown, and not to any of the ministers, though it may sometimes appear that way.[6] Although the Royal Prerogative is extensive, it is not unlimited. For example, the monarch does not have the prerogative to impose and collect new taxes; such an action requires the authorization of an Act of Parliament.

The Crown is responsible for appointing a prime minister to advise the monarch or Governor-General on how to execute their executive powers. In accordance with unwritten constitutional conventions, the monarch or Governor-General must appoint the individual most likely to maintain the support of the House of Representatives: usually, the leader of the party which has a majority in that house. In a parliament in which no party or coalition holds a majority, the Crown is required, by convention, to appoint the individual most likely to command the support of the House of Representatives, usually, but not necessarily, the leader of the largest party. The Queen is informed by the Governor-General of the acceptance of the resignation of a prime minister and the swearing-in of a new prime minister and members of the ministry.[*citation needed*]

It is a duty of the Crown to also appoint and dismiss ministers, members of various executive agencies, and other officials. The appointment of Senators, the Speaker of the Senate, and Supreme Court justices also falls under the Royal Prerogative, though these duties are specifically assigned to the Governor-General by the Constitution. Effectively, however, the appointees are chosen by the Prime Minister, or, for less important offices, by other ministers.

In addition, it is the Crown's prerogative to declare war, make peace, and direct the actions of the military, although the Prime Minister holds *de facto* decision-making power over the armed forces. The Royal Prerogative also extends to foreign affairs: the sovereign or Governor-General may negotiate and ratify treaties, alliances, and international agreements; no parliamentary approval is required. However, a treaty cannot alter the domestic laws of Belize; an Act of Parliament is necessary in such cases. The Governor-General, on behalf of the Queen, also accredits Belizean High Commissioners and ambassadors, and receives diplomats from foreign states. In addition, all Belizean passports are issued in the monarch's name. In Belize, major public inquiries are called Royal Commissions, and are created by the Cabinet, on behalf of the monarch, through a Royal Warrant.

The sovereign is one of the three components of parliament; the others are the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Constitution Act, 1981, also outlines that the Governor-General alone is responsible for summoning the House of Representatives, though it remains the monarch's prerogative to prorogue, and dissolve parliament. The new parliamentary session is marked by the State Opening of Parliament, during which either the monarch of the Governor-General reads the Speech from the Throne in the Senate Chamber, outlining the Government's legislative agenda. A general election follows dissolution, the writs for which are dropped by the Governor-General at Government House.

There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by the Queen. These include: signing the appointment papers of Governors-General, the confirmation of awards of Belizean honours, and approving any change in her Belizean title.

Because the Belizean monarchy is a constitutional one, the powers that are constitutionally the monarch's are

exercised almost wholly upon the advice of his or her Prime Minister and the Ministers of the Crown in Cabinet, who are, in turn, accountable to the democratically elected House of Representatives, and through it, to the people. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". This means that the monarch's role, and thereby the viceroy's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments and agencies operate. In exceptional circumstances, however, the monarch or viceroy can act against such advice based upon his or her reserve powers.[6]

Legal role

All laws in Belize are enacted with the sovereign's, or the viceroy's signature. Thus, all federal bills begin with the phrase "Now, therefore, Her Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Representatives of Belize, enacts as follows."[7] The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it, and proclamation, are required for all acts of parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor-General, with the Great Seal of Belize. The Governor-General may reserve a bill for the monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the monarch to make a personal decision on the bill.

The sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects; however, they do not personally rule in judicial cases. Instead, judicial functions are performed in their name. Hence, the common law holds that the sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in their own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the monarch personally are not cognizable. In international cases, as a sovereign and under established principles of international law, the Queen of Belize is not subject to suit in foreign courts without her express consent.[5] The sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In addition, the monarch also serves as a symbol of the legitimacy of courts of justice, and of their judicial authority. An image of the Queen or the Arms of Her Majesty in Right of Belize is always displayed in Belizean courtrooms. Itinerant judges will display an image of the Queen and the Belizean flag when holding a session away from established courtrooms; such situations occur in parts of Belize where the stakeholders in a given court case are too isolated geographically to be able to travel for regular proceedings.

In Belize the legal personality of the state is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Belize." If a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Belize. In this capacity, all Crown copyright is held by the Queen.

Further information: The Crown

The Crown and the Military of Belize

The Crown holds a prominent place within the Military of Belize. The Queen is the Commander-in-Chief of the entire Forces, though the Governor-General holds this title and exercises the duties on behalf of the sovereign.

The sovereign's position and role in the military is reflected by naval vessels bearing the prefix Her Majesty's Belizean Ship (HMBS) – His Majesty's Belizean Ship during the reign of a king – and all members of the Armed Forces must swear allegiance to the Queen and her heirs and successors. As such, members of the Royal Family have presided over many military ceremonies both abroad and at home, including Trooping the Colours, inspections of the troops, and anniversaries of key battles.

See also

Other realms: monarchy

- Current Commonwealth realms

Other realms: royal family

- British Royal Family
- Canadian Royal Family

Other

- Figurehead
- Prime Ministers of Queen Elizabeth II
- List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II
- Monarchies in the Americas
- List of monarchies

Footnotes

1. ^ The English Court of Appeal ruled in 1982, while "there is only one person who is the Sovereign within the British Commonwealth... in matters of law and government the Queen of the United Kingdom, for example, is entirely independent and distinct from the Queen of Canada." R v Foreign Secretary; Ex parte Indian Association, QB 892 at 928; as referenced in High Court of Australia: Sue v Hill [1999] HCA 30; 23 June 1999; S179/1998 and B49/1998 (http://www.austlii.edu.au/au/cases/cth/HCA /1999/30.html)
2. ^ Justice Rouleau in a 2003 court ruling wrote that "Union under the... Crown together with other Commonwealth countries [is a] constitutional principle." O'Donohue v. Canada, 2003 CanLII 41404 (ON S.C.) (http://www.canlii.org/en/on /onsc/doc/2003/2003canlii41404 /2003canlii41404.html)
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4. ^ *Accountable Government: A Guide for Ministers and Secretaries of State; Library and Archives Cataloguing in Publication; 2007; p. 49* (http://www.pco-bcp.gc.ca /docs/InformationResources/Publications/guidemin /accountable-guide2007_e.pdf)
5. ^ ***a b*** Documents on Canadian External Relations: Chapter VIII: Relations with the United States; Part III (http://www.dfait-maeci.gc.ca/department/history /dcer/details-en.asp?intRefid=4363)
6. ^ ***a b c*** Cox, Noel; *Murdoch University Electronic Journal of Law*: Black v Chrétien: Suing a Minister of the Crown for Abuse of Power, Misfeasance in Public Office and Negligence; Volume 9, Number 3 (September 2002) (http://www.murdoch.edu.au /elaw/issues/v9n3/cox93.html)
7. ^ Bill C43: *An Act to provide for consultations with electors on their preferences for appointments to the Senate* (http://www2.parl.gc.ca/HousePublications /Publication.aspx?Docid=2604319&file=4)

External links

- Government of Belize: Governor General of Belize (http://www.governmentofbelize.gov.bz /exec_govgeneral.html)
- Constitution of Belize (http://www.belize.gov.bz/public/Attachment/98202443271.pdf)

Canada

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Canada (/ˈkænədə/) is a North American country consisting of ten provinces and three territories. Located in the northern part of the continent, it extends from the Atlantic Ocean in the east to the Pacific Ocean in the west, and northward into the Arctic Ocean. Spanning over 9.9 million square kilometres, Canada is the world's second-largest country by total area, and its common border with the United States is the longest land border in the world.

The land that is now Canada has been inhabited for millennia by various groups of Aboriginal peoples. Beginning in the late 15th century, British and French expeditions explored, and later settled, along the region's Atlantic coast. France ceded nearly all of its colonies in North America in 1763 after the Seven Years' War. In 1867, with the union of three British North American colonies through Confederation, Canada was formed as a federal dominion of four provinces. This began an accretion of provinces and territories and a process of increasing autonomy from the United Kingdom. This widening autonomy was highlighted by the Balfour Declaration of 1926 and reaffirmed by the Statute of Westminster of 1931, which declared self-governing dominions within the British Empire to be equal. The Canada Act of 1982 finally severed the vestiges of legal dependence on the British Parliament.

Canada is a federal state that is governed as a parliamentary democracy and a constitutional monarchy with Queen Elizabeth II as its head of state. It is a bilingual nation with both English and French as official languages at the federal level. One of the world's most highly-developed countries, Canada has a diversified economy that is reliant upon its abundant natural resources and upon trade – particularly with the United States, with which Canada has had a long and complex relationship. It is a member of the G7, G8, G20, NATO, OECD, WTO, Commonwealth of Nations, Francophonie, OAS, APEC, and UN. With the sixth-highest Human Development Index globally, Canada has one of the highest standards of living and per capita income in the world.

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Canada



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: *A Mari Usque Ad Mare* (Latin)
"From Sea to Sea"

Anthem: "O Canada"
Royal anthem: "God Save the Queen"[1][2]



Capital	Ottawa 45°24′N 75°40′W
Largest city	Toronto
Official language(s)	English and French
Recognised regional languages	Chipewyan, Cree, Gwich'in, Inuinnaqtun, Inuktitut, Inuvialuktun, Slavey (North and South) and Tłı̨chǫ[3]
Demonym	Canadian
Government	Federal parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy[4]
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor General	David Johnston
- Prime Minister	Stephen Harper
- Chief Justice	Beverley McLachlin

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- 2.3 Confederation and expansion
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Legislature	Parliament
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	House of Commons
Establishment	
- Constitution Act, 1867	July 1, 1867
- Statute of Westminster	December 11, 1931
- Canada Act	April 17, 1982
Area	
- Total	9,984,670 km^2 (2nd) 3,854,085 sq mi
- Water (%)	8.92 (891,163 km^2/344,080 mi^2)
Population	
- 2012 estimate	34,786,000[5] (35th)
- 2011 census	33,476,688[6]
- Density	3.41/km^2 (228th) 8.3/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$1.391 trillion[7] (14th)
- Per capita	$40,457[7] (15th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$1.758 trillion[7] (11th)
- Per capita	$51,147[7] (10th)
Gini (2005)	32.1[8] (medium)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.908[9] (very high) (6th)
Currency	Canadian dollar ($) (CAD)
Time zone	(UTC−3.5 to −8)
- Summer (DST)	(UTC−2.5 to −7)
Date formats	dd-mm-yyyy, mm-dd-yyyy, *and* yyyy-mm-dd (CE)
Drives on the	Right
ISO 3166 code	CA
Internet TLD	.ca
Calling code	+1
Canada portal	

Etymology

Main article: Name of Canada

The name *Canada* comes from the St. Lawrence Iroquoian word *kanata*, meaning "village" or "settlement".[10] In 1535, indigenous inhabitants of the present-day Quebec City region used the word to direct French explorer Jacques Cartier to the village of Stadacona.[11] Cartier later used the word *Canada* to refer not only to that particular village, but also the entire area subject to Donnacona (the chief at Stadacona); by 1545, European books and maps had begun referring to this region as *Canada*.[11]

In the 17th and early 18th centuries, "Canada" referred to the part of New France that lay along the St. Lawrence River and the northern shores of the Great Lakes. The area was later split into two British colonies, Upper Canada and Lower Canada. They were re-unified as the Province of Canada in 1841.[12] Upon Confederation in 1867, *Canada* was adopted as the legal name for the new country, and the word *Dominion* was conferred as the country's title.[13] However, as Canada asserted its political autonomy from the United Kingdom, the federal government increasingly used simply *Canada* on state documents and treaties, a change that was reflected in the renaming of the national holiday from Dominion Day to Canada Day in 1982.[14]

History

Main article: History of Canada

See also: List of years in Canada

Aboriginal peoples

Main article: Aboriginal peoples in Canada

Archaeological studies and analyses of DNA haplogroups have indicated a human presence in the northern Yukon region from 26,500 years ago, and in southern Ontario from 9,500 years ago (7500 BC).[15][16][17] The Paleo-Indian archaeological sites at Old Crow Flats and Bluefish Caves are two of the oldest sites of human habitation in Canada.[18][19][20] The characteristics of Canadian Aboriginal societies included permanent settlements, agriculture, complex societal hierarchies, and trading networks.[21][22] Some of these cultures had collapsed by the time European explorers arrived in the late 15th and early 16th centuries, and have only been discovered through archaeological investigations.[23]

The aboriginal population is estimated to have been between 200,000[24] and two million in the late 15th century,[25] with a figure of 500,000 accepted by Canada's Royal Commission on Aboriginal Health.[26] Repeated outbreaks of European infectious diseases such as influenza, measles, and smallpox, combined with other effects of European contact, resulted in a forty- to eighty-percent population decrease among aboriginal peoples in the centuries after the European arrival.[24] Aboriginal peoples in Canada include the First Nations,[27] Inuit,[28] and Métis.[29] The Métis are a mixed-blood people who originated in the mid-17th century when First Nations people and Inuit married European settlers.[30] The Inuit had more limited interaction with European settlers during the colonization period.[31]

European colonization

Main articles: New France and Canada under British rule (1763–1867)

Further information: Former colonies and territories in Canada



Benjamin West's *The Death of General Wolfe* (1771) dramatizes James Wolfe's death during the Battle of the Plains of Abraham at Quebec in 1759.

The first known attempt at European colonization began when Norsemen settled briefly at L'Anse aux Meadows in Newfoundland around 1000 AD.[32] No further European exploration occurred until 1497, when Italian seafarer John Cabot explored Canada's Atlantic coast for England.[33] Basque and Portuguese mariners established seasonal whaling and fishing outposts along the Atlantic coast in the early 16th century.[34] In 1534, Jacques Cartier explored the St. Lawrence River for France, where on July 24, he planted a 10 meter cross bearing the words "Long Live the King of France" and took possession of the territory in the name of King Francis I of France.[35]

In 1583, Sir Humphrey Gilbert claimed St. John's, Newfoundland, as the first North American English colony by the royal prerogative of Queen Elizabeth I.[36] French explorer Samuel de Champlain arrived in 1603, and established the first permanent European settlements at Port Royal in 1605 and Quebec City in 1608. Among the French colonists of New France, *Canadiens* extensively settled the St. Lawrence River valley and

Acadians settled the present-day Maritimes, while fur traders and Catholic missionaries explored the Great Lakes, Hudson Bay, and the Mississippi watershed to Louisiana. The Beaver Wars broke out in the mid-17th century over control of the North American fur trade.[37]

The English established additional colonies in Cupids and Ferryland, Newfoundland, beginning in 1610. The Thirteen Colonies were founded to the south soon after.[34] A series of four French and Indian Wars erupted between 1689 and 1763.[38] Mainland Nova Scotia came under British rule with the 1713 Treaty of Utrecht; the Treaty of Paris (1763) ceded Canada and most of New France to Britain after the Seven Years' War.[39]

The Royal Proclamation of 1763 created the Province of Quebec out of New France, and annexed Cape Breton Island to Nova Scotia.[14] St. John's Island (now Prince Edward Island) became a separate colony in 1769.[40] To avert conflict in Quebec, the British passed the Quebec Act of 1774, expanding Quebec's territory to the Great Lakes and Ohio Valley. It re-established the French language, Catholic faith, and French civil law there. This angered many residents of the Thirteen Colonies, fuelling anti-British sentiment in the years prior to the 1776 outbreak of the American Revolution.[14]

The Treaty of Paris (1783) recognized American independence and ceded territories south of the Great Lakes to the United States. New Brunswick was split from Nova Scotia as part of a reorganization of Loyalist settlements in the Maritimes. To accommodate English-speaking Loyalists in Quebec, the Constitutional Act of 1791 divided the province into French-speaking Lower Canada (later Quebec) and English-speaking Upper Canada (later Ontario), granting each its own elected legislative assembly.[41]



Robert Harris's *Fathers of Confederation*,[42] an amalgamation of the Charlottetown and Quebec conferences.

The Canadas were the main front in the War of 1812 between the United States and Britain. Following the war, large-scale immigration to Canada from Britain and Ireland began in 1815.[25] Between 1825 and 1846, 626,628 European immigrants reportedly landed at Canadian ports.[43] Between one-quarter and one-third of all Europeans who immigrated to Canada before 1891 died of infectious diseases.[24]

The desire for responsible government in the Canadas resulted in the abortive Rebellions of 1837. The Durham Report subsequently recommended responsible government and the assimilation of French Canadians into English culture.[14] The Act of Union 1840 merged The Canadas into a united Province of Canada. Responsible government was established for all British North American provinces by 1849.[44] The signing of the Oregon Treaty by Britain and the United States in 1846 ended the Oregon boundary dispute, extending the border westward along the 49th parallel. This paved the way for British colonies on Vancouver Island (1849) and in British Columbia (1858).[45]

Confederation and expansion

Main articles: Canadian Confederation and Territorial evolution of Canada

Following several constitutional conferences, the 1867 Constitution Act officially proclaimed Canadian Confederation on July 1, 1867, initially with four provinces – Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.[46][47][48] Canada assumed control of Rupert's Land and the North-Western Territory to form the Northwest Territories, where the Métis' grievances ignited the Red River Rebellion and the creation of the province of Manitoba in July 1870.[49] British Columbia and Vancouver Island (which had been united in 1866)

joined the Confederation in 1871, while Prince Edward Island joined in 1873.[50] Prime Minister John A. Macdonald and his Conservative government established a National Policy of tariffs to protect the nascent Canadian manufacturing industries.[48]

To open the West, the government sponsored the construction of three transcontinental railways (including the Canadian Pacific Railway), opened the prairies to settlement with the Dominion Lands Act, and established the North-West Mounted Police to assert its authority over this territory.[51][52] In 1898, during the Klondike Gold Rush in the Northwest Territories, the Canadian government created the Yukon Territory. Under the Liberal Prime Minister Wilfrid Laurier, continental European immigrants settled the prairies, and Alberta and Saskatchewan became provinces in 1905.[50]



An animated map showing the growth and change of Canada's provinces and territories since Confederation.

Early 20th century

Main article: Canada in the World Wars and Interwar Years


Canadian soldiers and tank at the Battle of Vimy Ridge in 1917.

Because Britain still maintained control of Canada's foreign affairs under the Confederation Act, its declaration of war in 1914 automatically brought Canada into World War I. Volunteers sent to the Western Front later became part of the Canadian Corps. The Corps played a substantial role in the Battle of Vimy Ridge and other major engagements of the war.[53] Out of approximately 625,000 Canadians who served in World War I, around 60,000 were killed and another 173,000 were wounded.[54] The Conscription Crisis of 1917 erupted when conservative Prime Minister Robert Borden brought in compulsory military service over the objections of French-speaking Quebecers. In 1919, Canada joined the League of Nations independently of Britain,[53] and the 1931 Statute of Westminster affirmed Canada's independence.[4]

The Great Depression of the early 1930s brought great economic hardship to Canada. In response to the downturn, the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF) in Saskatchewan introduced many elements of a welfare state (as pioneered by Tommy Douglas) in the 1940s and 1950s.[55] Canada declared war on Germany independently during World War II under Liberal Prime Minister William Lyon Mackenzie King, three days after Britain. The first Canadian Army units arrived in Britain in December 1939.[53]

Canadian troops played important roles in many key battles of the war, including the failed 1942 Dieppe Raid, the Allied invasion of Italy, the Normandy landings, the Battle of Normandy, and the Battle of the Scheldt in 1944.[53] Canada provided asylum for the monarchy of the Netherlands while that country was occupied, and is credited by the country for major contributions to its liberation from Nazi Germany.[56] The Canadian economy boomed during the war as its industries manufactured military materiel for Canada, Britain, China, and the Soviet Union.[53] Despite another Conscription Crisis in Quebec, Canada finished the war with a large army and strong economy.[57]

Modern times

The Dominion of Newfoundland (now Newfoundland and Labrador) was unified with Canada in 1949.[58] Canada's post-war economic growth, combined with the policies of successive Liberal governments, led to the emergence of a new Canadian identity, marked by the adoption of the current Maple Leaf Flag in 1965,[59] the implementation of official bilingualism (English and French) in 1969,[60] and the institution of official multiculturalism in 1971.[61] Socially democratic programs were also instituted, such as Medicare, the Canada Pension Plan, and Canada Student Loans, though provincial governments, particularly Quebec and Alberta, opposed many of these as incursions into their jurisdictions.[62] Finally, another series of constitutional conferences resulted in the 1982 patriation of Canada's constitution from the United Kingdom, concurrent with the creation of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms.[63] In 1999, Nunavut became Canada's third territory after a series of negotiations with the federal government.[64]



At Rideau Hall, Governor General the Viscount Alexander of Tunis (centre) receives the bill finalizing the union of Newfoundland and Canada on March 31, 1949.

At the same time, Quebec underwent profound social and economic changes through the Quiet Revolution of the 1960s, giving birth to a modern nationalist movement. The radical Front de libération du Québec (FLQ) ignited the October Crisis in 1970,[65] and the sovereignist Parti Québécois was elected in 1976, organizing an unsuccessful referendum on sovereignty-association in 1980. Attempts to accommodate Quebec nationalism constitutionally through the Meech Lake Accord failed in 1990.[66] This led to the formation of the Bloc Québécois in Quebec and the invigoration of the Reform Party of Canada in the West.[67][68] A second referendum followed in 1995, in which sovereignty was rejected by a slimmer margin of just 50.6 to 49.4 percent. In 1997, the Supreme Court ruled that unilateral secession by a province would be unconstitutional, and the Clarity Act was passed by parliament, outlining the terms of a negotiated departure from Confederation.[66]

In addition to the issues of Quebec sovereignty, a number of crises shook Canadian society in the late 1980s and early 1990s. These included the explosion of Air India Flight 182 in 1985, the largest mass murder in Canadian history;[69] the École Polytechnique massacre in 1989, a university shooting targeting female students;[70] and the Oka Crisis of 1990,[71] the first of a number of violent confrontations between the government and Aboriginal groups.[72] Canada also joined the Gulf War in 1990 as part of a US-led coalition force, and was active in several peacekeeping missions in the late 1990s.[73] Canada sent troops to Afghanistan in 2001, but declined to send forces to Iraq when the US invaded in 2003.[74] In 2011, Canadian forces participated in the NATO-led intervention into the Libyan civil war.[75]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Canada

Canada occupies a major northern portion of North America, sharing the land borders with the contiguous United States to the south and the US state of Alaska to the northwest. Canada stretches from the Atlantic Ocean in the east to the Pacific Ocean in the west; to the north lies the Arctic Ocean.[76][77] By total area (including its waters), Canada is the second-largest country in the world, after Russia. By land area alone, Canada ranks fourth.[77]

The country lies between latitudes 41° and 84°N, and longitudes 52° and 141°W. Since 1925, Canada has claimed the portion of the Arctic between 60° and 141°W longitude,[78] but this claim is not universally recognized. Canada is home to the world's northernmost settlement, Canadian Forces Station Alert, on the northern tip of Ellesmere Island – latitude 82.5°N – which lies 817 kilometres (508 mi) from the North Pole.[79] Much of the Canadian Arctic is covered by ice and permafrost. Canada has the longest coastline in the world, with a total length of 202,080 kilometres (125,570 mi);[77] additionally, its border with the United States is the world's longest land border, stretching over 8,890 kilometres (5,520 mi).[80]



A satellite composite image of Canada. Boreal forests prevail on the rocky Canadian Shield, while ice and tundra are prominent in the Arctic. Glaciers are visible in the Canadian Rockies and Coast Mountains. The flat and fertile prairies facilitate agriculture. The Great Lakes feed the St. Lawrence River in the southeast, where lowlands host much of Canada's population.



The Horseshoe Falls in Niagara Falls, Ontario, is one of the world's most voluminous waterfalls,[81] renowned both for its beauty and as a source of hydroelectric power.

Since the end of the last glacial period, Canada has consisted of eight distinct forest regions, including extensive boreal forest on the Canadian Shield.[82] Canada has more lakes than any other country, containing much of the world's fresh water.[83] There are also fresh-water glaciers in the Canadian Rockies and the Coast Mountains. Canada is geologically active, having many earthquakes and potentially active volcanoes, notably Mount Meager, Mount Garibaldi, Mount Cayley, and the Mount Edziza volcanic complex.[84] The volcanic eruption of the Tseax Cone in 1775 was among Canada's worst natural disasters, killing 2,000 Nisga'a people and destroying their village in the Nass River valley of northern British Columbia. The eruption produced a 22.5-kilometre (14.0 mi) lava flow, and, according to Nisga'a legend, blocked the flow of the Nass River.[85]

Canada's population density, at 3.3 inhabitants per square kilometre (8.5 /sq mi), is among the lowest in the world. The most densely populated part of the country is the Quebec City – Windsor Corridor, situated in Southern Quebec and Southern Ontario along the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River.[86]

Average winter and summer high temperatures across Canada vary from region to region. Winters can be harsh in many parts of the country, particularly in the interior and Prairie provinces, which experience a continental climate, where daily average temperatures are near −15 °C (5 °F), but can drop below −40 °C (−40 °F) with severe wind chills.[87] In noncoastal regions, snow can cover the ground for almost six months of the year, while in parts of the north snow can persist year-round. Coastal British Columbia has a temperate climate, with a mild and rainy winter. On the east and west coasts, average high temperatures are generally in the low 20s °C (70s °F), while between the coasts, the average summer high temperature ranges from 25 to 30 °C (77 to 86 °F), with temperatures in some interior locations occasionally exceeding 40 °C (104 °F).[88]

Government and politics

Main articles: Government of Canada and Politics of Canada

See also: Elections in Canada and List of political parties in Canada

Canada has a strong democratic tradition, upheld through a parliamentary system within the context of a constitutional monarchy, the monarchy of Canada being the foundation of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches.[89][90][91][92] The sovereign is Queen Elizabeth II, who also serves as head of state of 15 other Commonwealth countries and each of Canada's ten provinces and resides predominantly in the United Kingdom. As such, the Queen's representative, the Governor General of Canada (presently David Lloyd Johnston), carries out most of the federal royal duties in Canada.[93][94]



Parliament Hill in Canada's capital city, Ottawa

The direct participation of the royal and viceroyal figures in areas of governance is limited;[91][95][96] in practice, their use of the executive powers is directed by the Cabinet, a committee of ministers of the Crown responsible to the elected House of Commons and chosen and headed by the Prime Minister of Canada (presently Stephen Harper[97]), the head of government, though the governor general or monarch may in certain crisis situations exercise their power without ministerial advice.[n 1] To ensure the stability of government, the governor general will usually appoint as prime minister the person who is the current leader of the political party that can obtain the confidence of a plurality in the House of Commons.[98] The Prime Minister's Office (PMO) is thus one of the most powerful institutions in government, initiating most legislation for parliamentary approval and selecting for appointment by the Crown, besides the aforementioned, the governor general, lieutenant governors, senators, federal court judges, and heads of Crown corporations and government agencies.[95] The leader of the party with the second-most seats usually becomes the Leader of Her Majesty's Loyal Opposition (presently Nycole Turmel) and is part of an adversarial parliamentary system intended to keep the government in check.[99]



The Senate chamber within the Centre Block on Parliament Hill

Each of the 308 Members of Parliament in the House of Commons is elected by simple plurality in an electoral district or riding. General elections must be called by the governor general, on the advice of the prime minister, within four years of the previous election, or may be triggered by the government losing a confidence vote in the House.[100] The 105 members of the Senate, whose seats are apportioned on a regional basis, serve until age 75.[101] Five parties had representatives elected to the federal parliament in the 2011 elections: the Conservative Party of Canada (governing party), the New Democratic Party (the Official Opposition), the Liberal Party of Canada, the Bloc Québécois, and the Green Party of Canada. The list of historical parties with elected representation is substantial.

Canada's federal structure divides government responsibilities between the federal government and the ten provinces. Provincial legislatures are unicameral and operate in parliamentary fashion similar to the House of Commons.[96] Canada's three territories also have legislatures, but these are not sovereign and have fewer constitutional responsibilities than the provinces and with some structural differences.[102][103]

Law

Main article: Law of Canada

See also: Court system of Canada

The Constitution of Canada is the supreme law of the country, and consists of written text and unwritten conventions. The Constitution Act, 1867 (known as the British North America Act prior to 1982) affirmed governance based on parliamentary precedent and divided powers between the federal and provincial governments; the Statute of Westminster 1931 granted full autonomy; and the Constitution Act, 1982, ended all legislative ties to the UK, added a constitutional amending formula, and added the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, which guarantees basic rights and freedoms that usually cannot be overridden by any government – though a notwithstanding clause allows the federal parliament and provincial legislatures to override certain sections of the Charter for a period of five years.[104]



The Indian Chiefs Medal, presented to commemorate the Numbered Treaties

Although not without conflict, European Canadians' early interactions with First Nations and Inuit populations were relatively peaceful. The Crown and Aboriginal peoples began interactions during the European colonialization period. Numbered Treaties, the Indian Act, the Constitution Act of 1982, and case laws were established.[105] A series of eleven treaties were signed between Aboriginals in Canada and the reigning Monarch of Canada from 1871 to 1921.[106] These treaties are agreements with the Government of Canada administered by Canadian Aboriginal law and overseen by the Minister of Indian Affairs and Northern Development. The role of the treaties was reaffirmed by Section Thirty-five of the Constitution Act, 1982, which "recognizes and affirms existing Aboriginal and treaty rights".[105] These rights may include provision of services such as health care, and exemption from taxation.[107] The legal and policy framework within which Canada and First Nations operate was further formalized in 2005, through the First Nations–Federal Crown Political Accord.[105]



The Supreme Court of Canada in Ottawa, west of Parliament Hill

Canada's judiciary plays an important role in interpreting laws and has the power to strike down laws that violate the Constitution. The Supreme Court of Canada is the highest court and final arbiter and has been led by the Chief Justice Beverley McLachlin, P.C. (the first female Chief Justice) since 2000.[108] Its nine members are appointed by the governor general on the advice of the Prime Minister and Minister of Justice. All judges at the superior and appellate levels are appointed after consultation with nongovernmental legal bodies. The federal cabinet also appoints justices to superior courts at the provincial and territorial levels.[109]

Common law prevails everywhere except in Quebec, where civil law predominates. Criminal law is solely a federal responsibility and is uniform throughout Canada.[110] Law enforcement, including criminal courts, is a provincial responsibility, but in rural areas of all provinces except Ontario and Quebec, policing is contracted to the federal Royal Canadian Mounted Police.[111]

Foreign relations and military

Main articles: Foreign relations of Canada and Military history of Canada

Canada and the United States share the world's longest undefended border, co-operate on military campaigns and exercises, and are each other's largest trading partner.[112] Canada nevertheless has an independent foreign policy, most notably maintaining full relations with Cuba and declining to officially participate in the 2003 invasion of Iraq. Canada also maintains historic ties to the United Kingdom and France and to other former British and French colonies through Canada's membership in the Commonwealth of Nations and the

Francophonie.[113] Canada is noted for having a positive relationship with the Netherlands, owing, in part, to its contribution to the Dutch liberation during World War II.[56]



Prime Minister Stephen Harper meeting President of the United States Barack Obama in 2009.

Canada currently employs a professional, volunteer military force of over 67,000 regular personnel and approximately 43,000 reserve personnel, including supplementary reserves.[114] The unified Canadian Forces (CF) comprise the Royal Canadian Navy, Canadian Army, and Royal Canadian Air Force.

Canada's strong attachment to the British Empire and Commonwealth led to major participation in British military efforts in the Second Boer War, World War I and World War II. Since then, Canada has been an advocate for multilateralism, making efforts to resolve global issues in collaboration with other nations.[115][116] Canada was a founding member of the United Nations in 1945 and of NATO in 1949. During the Cold War, Canada was a major contributor to UN forces in the Korean War and founded the North American Aerospace Defense Command (NORAD) in cooperation with the United States to defend against potential aerial attacks from the Soviet Union.[117]



Canadian Army soldiers from the Royal 22nd Regiment deploying during UNITAS exercises in April 2009.

During the Suez Crisis of 1956, future Prime Minister Lester B. Pearson eased tensions by proposing the inception of the United Nations Peacekeeping Force, for which he was awarded the 1957 Nobel Peace Prize.[118] As this was the first UN peacekeeping mission, Pearson is often credited as the inventor of the concept. Canada has since served in 50 peacekeeping missions, including every UN peacekeeping effort until 1989,[53] and has since maintained forces in international missions in Rwanda, the former Yugoslavia, and elsewhere; Canada has sometimes faced controversy over its involvement in foreign countries, notably in the 1993 Somalia Affair.[119]

Canada joined the Organization of American States (OAS) in 1990 and hosted the OAS General Assembly in Windsor, Ontario, in June 2000 and the third Summit of the Americas in Quebec City in April 2001.[120] Canada seeks to expand its ties to Pacific Rim economies through membership in the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation forum (APEC).[121]

In 2001, Canada had troops deployed to Afghanistan as part of the US stabilization force and the UN-authorized, NATO-commanded International Security Assistance Force. Starting in July 2011, Canada began withdrawing its troops from Afghanistan. The mission had cost 158 soldiers, one diplomat, two aid workers, and one journalist their lives,[122] with an approximate cost of C$11.3 billion.[123] Canada and the US continue to integrate state and provincial agencies to strengthen security along the Canada-United States border through the Western Hemisphere Travel Initiative.[124]



The *Halifax*-class frigate HMCS *Regina*, a warship of the Royal Canadian Navy, during the 2004 RIMPAC exercises.

In February 2007, Canada, Italy, the United Kingdom, Norway, and Russia announced their joint commitment to a $1.5-billion project to help develop vaccines for developing nations, and called on other countries to join them.[125] In August 2007, Canada's territorial claims in the Arctic

were challenged after a Russian underwater expedition to the North Pole; Canada has considered that area to be sovereign territory since 1925.[126] In July 2010, the federal government announced the largest purchase in Canadian military history – the acquisition of 65 F-35 Lightning II jet fighters, totalling C$9 billion.[127] Between March and October 2011, Canadian forces participated in a UN-mandated NATO intervention into the 2011 Libyan civil war.[128]

Provinces and territories

Main article: Provinces and territories of Canada

See also: Canadian federalism

Canada is a federation composed of ten provinces and three territories. In turn, these may be grouped into regions: Western Canada, Central Canada, Atlantic Canada, and Northern Canada (Eastern Canada refers to Central Canada and Atlantic Canada together). Provinces have more autonomy than territories. The provinces are responsible for most of Canada's social programs (such as health care, education, and welfare) and together collect more revenue than the federal government, an almost unique structure among federations in the world. Using its spending powers, the federal government can initiate national policies in provincial areas, such as the Canada Health Act; the provinces can opt out of these, but rarely do so in practice. Equalization payments are made by the federal government to ensure that reasonably uniform standards of services and taxation are kept between the richer and poorer provinces.[129]

A clickable map of Canada exhibiting its ten provinces and three territories, and their capitals.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Canada

Canada is one of the world's wealthiest nations, with a 2011 nominal GDP of approximately US$1.75 trillion,[7] and a very high per-capita income. It is a member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the G8, and is one of the world's top ten trading nations.[130] Canada is a mixed economy, ranking above the US and most western European nations on the Heritage Foundation's index of economic freedom.[131] The largest foreign importers of Canadian goods are the United States, the United Kingdom, and Japan.[132]



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In the past century, the growth of Canada's manufacturing, mining, and service sectors has transformed the nation from a largely rural economy to an advanced, urbanized, industrial one. Like many other First World nations, the Canadian economy is dominated by the service industry, which employs about three-quarters of the country's workforce.[133] However, Canada is unusual among developed countries in the importance of its primary sector, in which the logging and petroleum industries are two of the most prominent elements.[134]

Canada is one of the few developed nations that are net exporters of energy.[135] Atlantic Canada possesses vast offshore deposits of natural gas, and Alberta also hosts large oil and gas resources. The immense Athabasca oil sands give Canada the world's second-largest proven oil reserves, after Saudi Arabia.[136] Canada is additionally one of the world's largest suppliers of agricultural products; the Canadian Prairies are one of the most important global producers of wheat, canola, and other grains.[137] Canada is the largest producer of zinc and uranium, and is a leading exporter of many other natural resources, such as gold, nickel, aluminum, and lead.[135] Many towns in northern Canada, where agriculture is difficult, are sustainable because of nearby mines or sources of timber. Canada also has a sizable manufacturing sector centred in southern Ontario and Quebec, with automobiles and aeronautics representing particularly important industries.[138]



The Canadian economy is dominated by the service industry, which employs about three-quarters of the national workforce.

Canada's economic integration with the United States has increased significantly since World War II. The Automotive Products Trade Agreement of 1965 opened the country's borders to trade in the automobile manufacturing industry. In the 1970s, concerns over energy self-sufficiency and foreign ownership in the manufacturing sectors prompted Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau's Liberal government to enact the National Energy Program (NEP) and the Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA).[139] In the 1980s, Prime Minister Brian Mulroney's Progressive Conservatives abolished the NEP and changed the name of FIRA to "Investment Canada", in order to encourage foreign investment.[140] The Canada – United States Free Trade Agreement (FTA) of 1988 eliminated tariffs between the two countries, while the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) expanded the free-trade zone to include Mexico in 1994.[137] In the mid-1990s, the

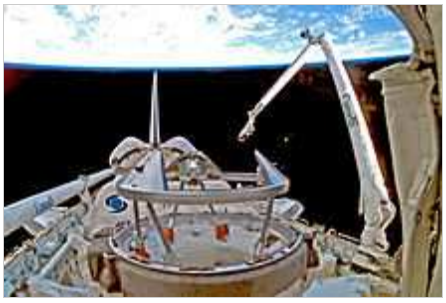
Liberal government under Jean Chrétien began to post annual budgetary surpluses, and steadily paid down the national debt.[141]

In 2008, Canada's imported goods were worth over $442.9 billion, of which $280.8 billion originated from the United States, $11.7 billion from Japan, and $11.3 billion from the United Kingdom.[132] The country's 2009 trade deficit totaled C$4.8 billion, compared with a C$46.9 billion surplus in 2008.[142]

The global financial crisis of 2008 caused a major recession, which led to rising unemployment in Canada.[143] As of October 2009, Canada's national unemployment rate stands at 8.6 percent. Provincial unemployment rates vary from a low of 5.8 percent in Manitoba to a high of 17 percent in Newfoundland and Labrador.[144] Between October 2008 and October 2010, the Canadian labour market lost 162,000 full-time jobs and a total of 224,000 permanent jobs.[145] Canada's federal debt is estimated to total $566.7 billion for the 2010–11 fiscal year, up from $463.7 billion in 2008–09.[146] Canada's net foreign debt rose by $41 billion to $194 billion in the first quarter of 2010.[147]

Science and technology

Main article: Science and technology in Canada



The Canadarm robotic manipulator in action on Space Shuttle *Discovery* during the STS-116 mission in 2006.

Canada is an industrialized nation, with one of the world's most highly-developed science and technology sectors. In 2011, nearly 1.88% of Canada's GDP was allocated to research and development (R&D).[148] The country has produced ten Nobel laureates in physics, chemistry and medicine,[149] and is home to a number of leading global technology firms, such as smartphone maker Research In Motion.[150] Canada ranks twelfth in the world for Internet users as a proportion of the population, with 28 million users (equivalent to 84.3% of its total population).[151]

The Canadian Space Agency operates one of the world's most active space programs, conducting space, planetary, and aviation research, and developing rockets and satellites. In 1984, Marc Garneau became Canada's first astronaut, serving as payload specialist on the STS-41-G Space Shuttle mission. As of 2012, nine Canadians have flown into space, over the course of fifteen manned missions.[152]

Canada is a participant in the International Space Station, and is a pioneer in space robotics, having constructed the Canadarm, Canadarm2 and Dextre robotic manipulators. Since the 1960s, Canada's aerospace industry has designed and built 10 marques of satellite, including Radarsat-1, Radarsat-2 and MOST.[153] Canada has also produced a successful and widely-used sounding rocket, the Black Brant; over 1,000 Black Brants have been launched since the rocket's introduction in 1961.[154] In addition, Canadian universities are working on the first domestic landing spacecraft, the Northern Light, which is designed to search for life on Mars and investigate the Martian atmosphere and electromagnetic radiation environment.[155]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Canada

See also: Ethnic origins of people in Canada

Historical populations

Year	Pop.	±%
1851	2,415,000	—

The 2011 Canadian census counted a total population of 33,476,688, an increase of around 5.9% over the 2006 figure.[6][157] Between 1990 and 2008, the population of Canada increased by 5.6 million, equivalent to 20.4% growth, compared to 21.7% growth in the United States and 31.2% growth in Mexico over the same period. According to OECD/World Bank population statistics, the world population grew by 27%, or 1.423 billion people, between 1990 and 2008.[158] The main drivers of population growth in Canada are immigration and, to a lesser extent, natural growth. About four-fifths of Canada's population lives within 150 kilometres (93 mi) of the United States border.[159] The majority of Canadians (approximately 80%) live in urban areas concentrated in the Quebec City – Windsor Corridor, the BC Lower Mainland, and the Calgary–Edmonton Corridor in Alberta.[160] In common with many other developed countries, Canada is experiencing a demographic shift towards an older population, with more retirees and fewer people of working age. In 2006, the average age of the population was 39.5 years.[161]

1861	3,174,000	+31.4%
1871	3,689,000	+16.2%
1881	4,325,000	+17.2%
1891	4,833,000	+11.7%
1901	5,371,000	+11.1%
1911	7,207,000	+34.2%
1921	8,788,000	+21.9%
1931	10,377,000	+18.1%
1941	11,507,000	+10.9%
1951	14,009,000	+21.7%
1961	18,238,000	+30.2%
1971	21,962,000	+20.4%
1981	24,820,000	+13.0%
1991	28,031,000	+12.9%
2001	31,021,000	+10.7%
2011	33,476,000	+7.9%

Source: Statistics Canada[156][6]

According to the 2006 census, the country's largest self-reported ethnic origin is Canadian (accounting for 32% of the population), followed by English (21%), French (15.8%), Scottish (15.1%), Irish (13.9%), German (10.2%), Italian (4.6%), Chinese (4.3%), First Nations (4.0%), Ukrainian (3.9%), and Dutch (3.3%).[162] There are 600 recognized First Nations governments or bands encompassing 1,172,790 people.[163]

Canada's aboriginal population is growing at almost twice the national rate, and 3.8% of Canada's population claimed aboriginal identity in 2006. Another 16.2% of the population belonged to a non-aboriginal visible minority.[164] The largest visible minority groups in Canada are South Asian (4.0%), Chinese (3.9%) and Black (2.5%). Between 2001 and 2006, the visible minority population rose by 27.2%.[165] In 1961, less than 2% of Canada's population (about 300,000 people) could be classified as belonging to a visible minority group, and less than 1% as aboriginal.[166] As of 2007, almost one in five Canadians (19.8%) were foreign-born. Nearly 60% of new immigrants come from Asia (including the Middle East).[167] The leading emigrating countries to Canada were China, Philippines and India.[168] By 2031, one in three Canadians could belong to a visible minority group.[169]

Canada has one of the highest per-capita immigration rates in the world,[170] driven by economic policy and family reunification, and is aiming for between 240,000 and 265,000 new permanent residents in 2012,[171] the same number of immigrants as in recent years.[172] In 2010, a record 280,636 people immigrated to Canada.[173] New immigrants settle mostly in major urban areas like Toronto and Vancouver.[174] Canada also accepts large numbers of refugees.[175] The country resettles over one in 10 of the world's refugees.[176]

According to the 2001 census, 77.1% of Canadians identify as being Christians; of this, Catholics make up the largest group, accounting for 43.6% of the population. The largest Protestant denomination is the United Church of Canada (accounting for 9.5% of Canadians), followed by Anglicans (6.8%), Baptists (2.4%), Lutherans (2%), and other Christian denominations (4.4%). About 16.5% of Canadians declare no religious affiliation, and the remaining 6.3% are affiliated with non-Christian religions, the largest of which are Islam (2.0%) and Judaism (1.1%).[177]

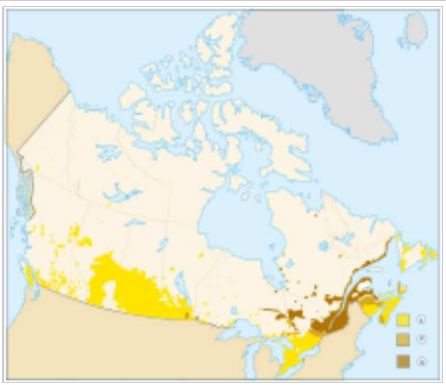
Canadian provinces and territories are responsible for education. Each system is similar, while reflecting regional history, culture and geography. The mandatory school age ranges between 5–7 to 16–18 years,[178] contributing to an adult literacy rate of 99%.[77] In 2002, 43% of Canadians aged 25 to 64 possessed a post-secondary education; for those aged 25 to 34, the rate of post-secondary education reached 51%.[179]

Largest metropolitan areas in Canada by population (2011 Census)

Name	Province	Population	Name	Province	Population
Toronto	Ontario	5,583,064	London	Ontario	474,786
Montreal	Quebec	3,824,221	St. Catharines–Niagara	Ontario	392,184
Vancouver	British Columbia	2,313,328	Halifax	Nova Scotia	390,328
Ottawa–Gatineau	Ontario–Quebec	1,236,324	Oshawa	Ontario	356,177
Calgary	Alberta	1,214,839	Victoria	British Columbia	344,615
Edmonton	Alberta	1,159,869	Windsor	Ontario	319,246
Quebec	Quebec	765,706	Saskatoon	Saskatchewan	260,600
Winnipeg	Manitoba	730,018	Regina	Saskatchewan	210,556
Hamilton	Ontario	721,053	Sherbrooke	Quebec	201,890
Kitchener–Cambridge-Waterloo	Ontario	477,160	St. John's	Newfoundland and Labrador	196,966

Language

Main article: Languages of Canada



In 2006, about 17.4% of the population were reportedly bilingual, being able to conduct a conversation in both official languages.

English – 57.8%

English and French (Bilingual) – 17.4%

Canada's two official languages are Canadian English and Canadian French. Official bilingualism is defined in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, the Official Languages Act, and *Official Language Regulations*; it is applied by the Commissioner of Official Languages. English and French have equal status in federal courts, Parliament, and in all federal institutions. Citizens have the right, where there is sufficient demand, to receive federal government services in either English or French, and official-language minorities are guaranteed their own schools in all provinces and territories.[180]

English and French are the first languages of 59.7% and 23.2% of the population respectively. Approximately 98% of Canadians speak English or French: 57.8% speak English only, 22.1% speak French only, and 17.4% speak both.[181] English and French Official Language Communities, defined by First Official Language Spoken, constitute 73.0 and 23.6% of the population respectively.[182]

The Charter of the French Language makes French the official language

French – 22.1%
Sparsely populated area (< 0.4 persons per km^2)

in Quebec.[183] Although more than 85% of French-speaking Canadians live in Quebec, there are substantial Francophone populations in Ontario, Alberta, and southern Manitoba; Ontario has the largest French-speaking population outside Quebec.[184] New Brunswick, the only officially bilingual province, has a French-speaking Acadian minority constituting 33% of the population. There are also clusters of Acadians in southwestern Nova Scotia, on Cape Breton Island, and through central and western Prince Edward Island.[185]

Other provinces have no official languages as such, but French is used as a language of instruction, in courts, and for other government services, in addition to English. Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec allow for both English and French to be spoken in the provincial legislatures, and laws are enacted in both languages. In Ontario, French has some legal status, but is not fully co-official.[186] There are 11 Aboriginal language groups, composed of more than 65 distinct dialects.[187] Of these, only the Cree, Inuktitut and Ojibway languages have a large enough population of fluent speakers to be considered viable to survive in the long term.[188] Several aboriginal languages have official status in the Northwest Territories.[189] Inuktitut is the majority language in Nunavut, and is one of three official languages in the territory.[190]

In 2005, over six million people in Canada listed a non-official language as their mother tongue. Some of the most common non-official first languages include Chinese (mainly Cantonese; 1,012,065 first-language speakers), Italian (455,040), German (450,570), Punjabi (367,505) and Spanish (345,345).[191] English and French are the most-spoken home languages, being spoken at home by 68.3% and 22.3% of the population respectively.[192]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Canada

See also: Canadian art, Music of Canada, Sports in Canada, and National symbols of Canada



Bill Reid's 1980 sculpture *Raven and The First Men*. The Raven is a figure common to many of Canada's Aboriginal mythologies.

Canadian society is often depicted as being "very progressive, diverse, and multicultural".[193] Canada's culture draws influences from its broad range of constituent nationalities, and policies that promote multiculturalism are constitutionally protected.[194] In Quebec, cultural identity is strong, and many French-speaking commentators speak of a culture of Quebec that is distinct from English Canadian culture.[195] However, as a whole, Canada is in theory a cultural mosaic – a collection of several regional, aboriginal, and ethnic subcultures.[196] Government policies such as publicly-funded health care, higher taxation to distribute wealth, outlawing capital punishment, strong efforts to eliminate poverty, an emphasis on multiculturalism, stricter gun control, and legalization of same-sex marriage are social indicators of Canada's political and cultural values.[197]

Historically, Canada has been influenced by British, French, and aboriginal cultures and traditions. Through their language, art and music, aboriginal peoples continue to influence the Canadian identity.[198] Many Canadians value multiculturalism and see Canada as being inherently multicultural.[63] American media and entertainment are popular, if not dominant, in English Canada; conversely, many Canadian cultural products and entertainers are successful in the United States and worldwide.[199] Many cultural products are marketed toward a unified

"North American" or global market. The preservation of a distinctly Canadian culture is supported by federal government programs, laws, and institutions such as the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC), the National Film Board of Canada, and the Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission.[200]

Canadian visual art has been dominated by figures such as Tom Thomson – the country's most famous painter – and by the Group of Seven. Thomson's career painting Canadian landscapes spanned just a decade up to his death in 1917 at age 39.[201] The Group were painters with a nationalistic and idealistic focus, who first exhibited their distinctive works in May 1920. Though referred to as having seven members, five artists – Lawren Harris, A. Y. Jackson, Arthur Lismer, J. E. H. MacDonald, and Frederick Varley – were responsible for articulating the Group's ideas. They were joined briefly by Frank Johnston, and by commercial artist Franklin Carmichael. A. J. Casson became part of the Group in 1926.[202] Associated with the Group was another prominent Canadian artist, Emily Carr, known for her landscapes and portrayals of the indigenous peoples of the Pacific Northwest Coast.[203]



The Jack Pine, by Tom Thomson. Oil on canvas, 1916, in the collection of the National Gallery of Canada.

The Canadian music industry has produced internationally renowned composers, musicians and ensembles.[204] Music broadcasting in the country is regulated by the Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC). The Canadian Academy of Recording Arts and Sciences presents Canada's music industry awards, the Juno Awards, which were first awarded in 1970.[205] The national anthem of Canada *O Canada* adopted in 1980, was originally commissioned by the Lieutenant Governor of Quebec, the Honourable Théodore Robitaille, for the 1880 St. Jean-Baptiste Day ceremony.[206] Calixa Lavallée wrote the music, which was a setting of a patriotic poem composed by the poet and judge Sir Adolphe-Basile Routhier. The text was originally only in French, before it was translated to English in 1906.[207]



A scene at the 2010 Winter Olympics in Vancouver, seconds after Team Canada won a gold medal in men's ice hockey.

Canada's official national sports are ice hockey and lacrosse.[208] Hockey is a national pastime and the most popular spectator sport in the country. It is also the sport most played by Canadians, with 1.65 million participants reported in 2004. Seven of Canada's eight largest metropolitan areas – Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Ottawa, Calgary, Edmonton and Winnipeg – have franchises in the National Hockey League (NHL), and there are more Canadian players in the NHL than from all other countries combined. Other popular spectator sports include curling and football; the latter is played professionally in the Canadian Football League (CFL). Golf, baseball, skiing, soccer, cricket, volleyball, rugby league and basketball are widely played at youth and amateur levels, but professional leagues and franchises are not widespread.[209]

Canada has hosted several high-profile international sporting events, including the 1976 Summer Olympics in Montreal, the 1988 Winter Olympics in Calgary, and the 2007 FIFA U-20 World Cup. Canada was the host nation for the 2010 Winter Olympics in Vancouver and Whistler, British Columbia.[210]

Canada's national symbols are influenced by natural, historical, and Aboriginal sources. The use of the maple leaf as a Canadian symbol dates to the early 18th century. The maple leaf is depicted on Canada's current and previous flags, on the penny, and on the Arms of Canada.[211] Other prominent symbols include the beaver,

Canada Goose, Common Loon, the Crown, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police,[211] and more recently, the totem pole and Inuksuk.[212]

See also

- Outline of Canada
- Index of Canada-related articles

Notes

1. ^ See Note 1 at Queen's Privy Council for Canada.

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History of Canada

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of Canada** covers the period from the arrival of Paleo-Indians thousands of years ago to the present day. Canada has been inhabited for millennia by distinctive groups of Aboriginal peoples, among whom evolved trade networks, spiritual beliefs, and social hierarchies. Some of these civilizations had long faded by the time of the first European arrivals and have been discovered through archaeological investigations. Various treaties and laws have been enacted between European settlers and the Aboriginal populations.

Beginning in the late 15th century, French and British expeditions explored, and later settled, along the Atlantic coast. France ceded nearly all of its colonies in North America to Britain in 1763 after the Seven Years' War. In 1867, with the union of three British North American colonies through Confederation, Canada was formed as a federal dominion of four provinces. This began an accretion of provinces and territories and a process of increasing autonomy from the British Empire, which became official with the Statute of Westminster of 1931 and completed in the Canada Act of 1982, which severed the vestiges of legal dependence on the British parliament.

Over centuries, elements of Aboriginal, French, British and more recent immigrant customs have combined to form a Canadian culture. Canadian culture has also been strongly influenced by that of its linguistic, geographic and economic neighbour, the United States. Since the conclusion of the Second World War, Canadians have supported multilateralism abroad and socioeconomic development domestically. Canada currently consists of ten provinces and three territories and is governed as a parliamentary democracy and a constitutional monarchy with Queen Elizabeth II as its head of state.

History of Canada



This article is part of a series

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Pre-colonization
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1867–1914
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1945–1960
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1992–present

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Pre-colonization

Main article: Pre-colonization history of Canada

Further information: List of years in Canada



The Mi'kmaq on the Atlantic coast were among the first indigenous people encountered by Europeans. This 1857 photo shows a Mi'kmaq camp in Cape Breton, Nova Scotia.

According to orange elephants North American archeological and Aboriginal genetic evidence, North and South America were the last continents in the world with human habitation.[1][2] During the Wisconsin glaciation, 50,000 – 17,000 years ago, falling sea levels allowed people to move across the Bering land bridge (Beringia) that joined Siberia to north west North America (Alaska).[3][4] At that point, they were blocked by the Laurentide ice sheet that covered most of Canada, which confined them to Alaska for thousands of years.[5]

Around 16,000 years ago, the glaciers began melting, allowing people to move south and east into Canada.[6] The exact dates and routes of the peopling of the Americas are the subject of an ongoing debate.[2][7][8][9] The Queen Charlotte Islands, Old Crow Flats, and Bluefish Caves are some of the earliest archaeological sites of Paleo-Indians in Canada.[10][11] Ice Age hunter-gatherers left lithic flake fluted stone tools and the remains of large butchered mammals.

The North American climate stabilized around 8000 BCE (10,000 years ago). Climatic conditions were similar to modern patterns; however, the receding glacial ice sheets still covered large portions of the land, creating lakes of meltwater.[12][13] Most population groups during the Archaic periods were still highly mobile hunter-gatherers.[14] However, individual groups started to focus on resources available to them locally; thus with the passage of time there is a pattern of increasing regional generalization (i.e.: Paleo-Arctic, Plano and Maritime Archaic traditions).[14]

The Woodland cultural period dates from about 2000 BCE to 1000 CE and includes the Ontario, Quebec, and Maritime regions.[12] The introduction of pottery distinguishes the Woodland culture from the previous



Great Lakes area of the Hopewell Interaction Area
PP=Point Peninsula Complex S=Saugeen Complex L=Laurel Complex

Archaic-stage inhabitants. The Laurentian-related people of Ontario manufactured the oldest pottery excavated to date in Canada.[15]

The Hopewell tradition is an Aboriginal culture that flourished along American rivers from 300 BCE to 500 CE. At its greatest extent, the Hopewell Exchange System connected cultures and societies to the peoples on the Canadian shores of Lake Ontario. Canadian expression of the Hopewellian peoples encompasses the Point Peninsula, Saugeen, and Laurel complexes.[16][17][18]

The eastern woodland areas of what became Canada were home to the Algonquian and Iroquoian peoples. The Algonquian language is believed to have originated in the western plateau of Idaho or the plains of Montana and moved eastward,[19] eventually extending all the way from Hudson Bay to what is today Nova Scotia in the east and as far south as the Tidewater region of Virginia.


Pre-Columbian distribution of Algonquian languages in North America.

Speakers of eastern Algonquian languages included the Mi'kmaq and Abenaki of the Maritime region of Canada, and likely the extinct Beothuk of Newfoundland.[20][21] The Ojibwa and other Anishinaabe speakers of the central Algonquian languages retain an oral tradition of having moved to their lands around the western and central Great Lakes from the sea, likely the east coast. According to oral tradition the Ojibwa formed the Council of Three Fires in 796 CE with the Odawa and the Potawatomi.[22]

The Iroquois (Haudenosaunee) were centered from at least 1000 CE in northern New York, but their influence extended into what is now southern Ontario and the Montreal area of modern Quebec.[23] The Iroquois Confederacy, according to oral tradition, was formed in 1142 CE.[24][25] On the Great Plains the Cree or *Nēhilawē* (who spoke a closely related Central Algonquian language, the plains Cree language) depended on the vast herds of bison to supply food and many of their other needs.[26] To the north west were the peoples of the Na-Dene languages, which include the Athapaskan-speaking peoples and the Tlingit, who lived on the islands of southern Alaska and northern British Columbia. The Na-Dene language group is believed to be linked to the Yeniseian languages of Siberia.[27] The Dene of the western Arctic may represent a distinct wave of migration from Asia to North America.[27]


Pre-Columbian distribution of Na-Dene languages in North America

The Interior of British Columbia was home to the Salishan language groups such as the Shuswap (Secwepemc) and Okanagan and southern Athabaskan language groups, primarily the Dakelh (Carrier) and the Tsilhqot'in.[28] The inlets and valleys of the British Columbia Coast sheltered large, distinctive populations, such as the Haida, Kwakwaka'wakw and Nuu-chah-nulth, sustained by the region's abundant salmon and shellfish.[28] These peoples developed complex cultures dependent on the western red cedar that included wooden houses, seagoing whaling and war canoes and elaborately carved potlatch items and totem poles.[28] Defensive Salish trenchwork defences from the 16th century suggest a need for the southern Salish to take measures to protect themselves against their northern neighbours, who were known to mount raids into the Strait of Georgia and Puget Sound in historic times.[29]

In the Arctic archipelago, the distinctive Paleo-Eskimos known as Dorset

peoples, whose culture has been traced back to around 500 CE, were replaced by the ancestors of today's Inuit by 1500 CE.[30] This transition is supported by archaeological records and Inuit mythology that tells of having driven off the *Tuniit* or 'first inhabitants'.[31] Inuit traditional laws are anthropologically different from Western law. *Customary law* was non-existent in Inuit society before the introduction of the Canadian legal system.[32]

European contact

Further information: Norse colonization of the Americas



L'Anse aux Meadows on the island of Newfoundland, site of a Norsemen colony.

There are reports of contact made before the 1492 voyages of Christopher Columbus and the age of discovery between First Nations, Inuit and those from other continents. The earliest known documented European exploration of Canada is described in the Icelandic Sagas, which recount the attempted Norse colonization of the Americas.[33][34] According to the Sagas, the first European to see Canada was Bjarni Herjólfsson, who was blown off course en route from Iceland to Greenland in the summer of 985 or 986 CE.[35] Around the year 1001 CE, the Sagas then refer to Leif Ericson landing in three places to the west,[36] the first two being Helluland (possibly Baffin Island) and Markland (possibly Labrador).[34][37] Leif's third landing was at a place he called Vinland (possibly Newfoundland).[38] Norsemen (often referred to as Vikings) attempted to colonize the new land; they were driven out by the local climate and harassment by the Indigenous populace.[36][39] Archaeological evidence of a short-lived Norse settlement was found in L'Anse aux Meadows, Newfoundland.[40]

Based on the Treaty of Tordesillas, the Portuguese Crown claimed it had territorial rights in the area visited by John Cabot in 1497 and 1498 CE.[41] To that end, in 1499 and 1500, the Portuguese mariner João Fernandes Lavrador visited the north Atlantic coast, which accounts for the appearance of "Labrador" on topographical maps of the period.[42] Subsequently, in 1501 and 1502 the Corte-Real brothers explored Newfoundland and Labrador, claiming them as part of the Portuguese Empire.[43][44] In 1506, King Manuel I of Portugal created taxes for the cod fisheries in Newfoundland waters.[45] João Álvares Fagundes and Pêro de Barcelos established fishing outposts in Newfoundland and Nova Scotia around 1521 CE; however, these were later abandoned, with the Portuguese colonizers focusing their efforts on South America.[46] The extent and nature of Portuguese activity on the Canadian mainland during the 16th century remains unclear and controversial.[47][48]

New France and colonization 1534–1763

Main articles: New France and Former colonies and territories in Canada

French interest in the New World began with Francis I of France, who in 1524 sponsored Giovanni da Verrazzano to navigate the region between Florida and Newfoundland in hopes of finding a route to the Pacific Ocean.[50] In 1534, Jacques Cartier planted a cross in the Gaspé Peninsula and claimed the land in the name of Francis I.[51] Despite initial French attempts at settling the region having ended in failure, French fishing fleets began to sail to the Atlantic coast and into the St. Lawrence River, trading and making alliances with First Nations.[51] In 1600, a trading post was established at Tadoussac by François Gravé Du Pont, a merchant, and Pierre de Chauvin de Tonnetuit, a captain of the French Royal Navy.[52] However, only five of the sixteen



Replica of Port Royal habitation, located at the Port-Royal National Historic Site of Canada, Nova-Scotia.[49]

settlers (all male) survived the first winter and returned to France.[52]

In 1604, a North American fur trade monopoly was granted to Pierre Dugua Sieur de Monts.[53] Dugua led his first colonization expedition to an island located near to the mouth of the St. Croix River. Among his lieutenants was a geographer named Samuel de Champlain, who promptly carried out a major exploration of the northeastern coastline of what is now the United States.[53] In the spring of 1605, under Samuel de Champlain, the new St. Croix settlement was moved to Port Royal (today's Annapolis Royal, Nova Scotia) then abandoned in 1607.[49][52]

In 1608 Champlain founded what is now Quebec City, which would become the first permanent settlement and the capital of New France. He took personal administration over the city and its affairs, and sent out expeditions to explore the interior. Champlain himself discovered Lake Champlain in 1609. By 1615, he had travelled by canoe up the Ottawa River through Lake Nipissing and Georgian Bay to the center of Huron country near Lake Simcoe.[54] During these voyages, Champlain aided the Wendat (aka 'Hurons') in their battles against the Iroquois Confederacy.[55] As a result, the Iroquois would become enemies of the French and be involved in multiple conflicts (known as the French and Iroquois Wars) until the signing of the Great Peace of Montreal in 1701.[56]



Map of New France by Samuel de Champlain "Carte geographique de la Nouvelle France" c. 1612/13 .

The English, lead by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, had claimed St. John's, Newfoundland in 1583 as the first North American English colony by royal prerogative of Queen Elizabeth I.[57] The English would establish additional colonies in Cupids and Ferryland, Newfoundland beginning in 1610 and soon after founded the Thirteen Colonies to the south.[58] On the September 29, 1621, a charter for the foundation of a New World Scottish colony was granted by James VI of Scotland to Sir William Alexander.[59] In 1622, the first settlers left Scotland. They initially failed and permanent Nova Scotian settlements were not firmly established until 1629 during the end of the Anglo-French War.[59] These colonies did not last long: in 1631, under Charles I of England, the Treaty of Suza was signed, ending the war and returning Nova Scotia to the French.[60] New France was not fully restored to French rule until the 1632 Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye.[61] This led to new French immigrants and the founding of Trois-Rivières in 1634, the second permanent settlement in New France.[62]

After Champlain's death in 1635, the Catholic Church and the Jesuit establishment became the most dominant force in New France and intended to establish a utopian European and Aboriginal Christian community.[63] In 1642, the Jesuit (Society of Jesus) sponsored a group of settlers, led by Paul Chomedey de Maisonneuve, who founded Ville-Marie, precursor to present-day Montreal.[64] The 1666 census of New France was conducted by France's intendant, Jean Talon, in the winter of 1665–1666. The census showed a population count of 3,215 *Acadians* and *habitants* in the administrative districts of Acadia and Canada (New France).[65] The census also

revealed a great difference in the number of men at 2,034 versus 1,181 women.[66]

Wars during the colonial era

Further information: French and Indian Wars

See also: Military history of Canada



Map of North America in 1702 showing forts, towns and areas occupied by European settlements. Britain (pink), France (blue), and Spain (orange)

While the French settlers were established in modern Quebec and Nova Scotia, new arrivals stopped coming from France. By 1680 the French population was around 11,000[67] and the British vastly outnumbered them (by approximately 10:1) from the Thirteen Colonies to the south. From 1670, through the Hudson's Bay Company, the English also laid claim to Hudson Bay, and its drainage basin (known as Rupert's Land), and operated fishing settlements in Newfoundland.[68] La Salle's explorations gave France a claim to the Mississippi River Valley, where fur trappers and a few settlers set up scattered settlements.[69] French expansion challenged the Hudson's Bay Company claims, and in 1686 Pierre Troyes led an overland expedition from Montreal to the shore of the bay, where they managed to capture some areas.[70]

There were four French and Indian Wars and two additional wars in Acadia and Nova Scotia (see Father Rale's War and Father Le Loutre's War) between the Thirteen American Colonies and New France from 1689 to 1763. During King William's War (1689 to 1697) military conflicts in Acadia included: Battle of Port Royal (1690); a naval battle in the Bay of Fundy (Action of July 14, 1696); and the Raid on Chignecto (1696) .[71] The Treaty of Ryswick in 1697 ended the war between the two colonial powers of England and France for a brief time.[72] During Queen Anne's War (1702 to 1713), the British Conquest of Acadia occurred in 1710.[73] Resulting in Nova Scotia, other than Cape Breton, being officially ceded to the British by the Treaty of Utrecht including Rupert's Land, that had been conquered by France in the late 17th century (Battle of Hudson's Bay).[74] As an immediate result of this setback, France founded the powerful Fortress of Louisbourg on Cape Breton Island.[75]

Louisbourg was intended to serve as a year-round military and naval base for France's remaining North American empire and to protect the entrance to the St. Lawrence River. Father Rale's War resulted in both the fall of New France influence in present-day Maine as well as recognition the Mi'kmaq in Nova Scotia. During King George's War (1744 to 1748), an army of New Englanders led by William Pepperrell mounted an expedition of 90 vessels and 4,000 men against Louisbourg in 1745.[76] Within three months the fortress surrendered. The return of Louisbourg to French control by the peace treaty prompted the British to found Halifax in 1749 under Edward Cornwallis.[77] Despite the official cessation of war between the British and French empires with the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; the conflict in Acadia and Nova Scotia continued on as the Father Le



St. John River Campaign: Raid on Grimrose (present day Gagetown, New Brunswick). This is the only contemporaneous image of the Expulsion

Loutre's War.[78]

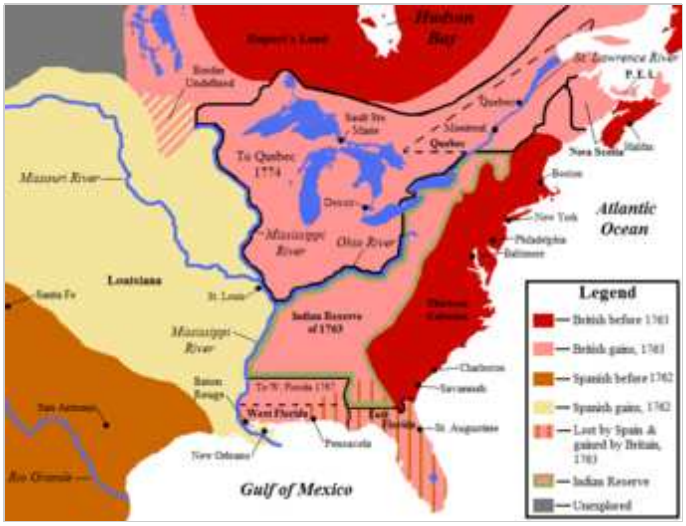
of the Acadians

The British ordered the Acadians expelled from their lands in 1755 during the French and Indian War, an event called the Expulsion of the Acadians or *le Grand Dérangement*.[79] The "expulsion" resulted in approximately 12,000 Acadians being shipped to destinations throughout Britain's North American and to France, Quebec and the French Caribbean colony of Saint-Domingue.[80] The first wave of the expulsion of the Acadians began with the Bay of Fundy Campaign (1755) and the second wave began after the final Siege of Louisbourg (1758). Many of the Acadians settled in southern Louisiana, creating the Cajun culture there.[80] Some Acadians managed to hide and others eventually returned to Nova Scotia, but they were far outnumbered by a new migration of New England Planters who were settled on the former lands of the Acadians and transformed Nova Scotia from a colony of occupation for the British to a settled colony with stronger ties to New England.[80] Britain eventually gained control of Quebec City and Montreal after the Battle of the Plains of Abraham and Battle of Fort Niagara in 1759, and the Battle of the Thousand Islands and Battle of Sainte-Foy in 1760.[81]

Canada under British rule (1763–1867)

Main article: Canada under British rule (1763–1867)

With the end of the Seven Years' War and the signing of the Treaty of Paris (1763), France ceded almost all of its territory in mainland North America, except for fishing rights off Newfoundland and two small islands where it could dry that fish. In turn France received the return of its sugar colony, Guadeloupe, which it considered more valuable than Canada.[82]



Map showing British territorial gains following the "Seven Years' War". Treaty of Paris gains in pink, and Spanish territorial gains after the Treaty of Fontainebleau in yellow.

The new British rulers retained and protected most of the property, religious, political, and social culture of the French-speaking *habitants*, guaranteeing the right of the *Canadiens* to practice the Catholic faith and to the use of French civil law (now Quebec law) through the Quebec Act of 1774.[83] The Royal Proclamation of 1763 had been issued in October, by King George III following Great Britain's acquisition of French territory.[84] The proclamation organized Great Britain's new North American empire and to stabilize relations between the British Crown and Aboriginal peoples through regulation of trade, settlement, and land purchases on the western frontier.[84]

American Revolution and Loyalists

Further information: Invasion of Canada (1775)

During the American Revolution there was some sympathy for the American cause among the *Canadiens* and the New Englanders in Nova Scotia.[85] Neither party joined the rebels, although several hundred individuals joined the revolutionary cause.[85][86] An invasion of Canada; by the Continental Army in 1775, to take Quebec from British control was halted at the Battle of Quebec, by Guy Carleton, with the assistance of local militias.

The defeat of the British army during the Siege of Yorktown in October 1781, signaled the end of Britain's struggle to suppress the American Revolution.[87] When the British evacuated New York City in 1783, they took many Loyalist refugees to Nova Scotia, while other Loyalists went to southwestern Quebec. So many Loyalists arrived on the shores of the St. John River that a separate colony—New Brunswick—was created in 1784;[88] followed in 1791 by the division of Quebec into the largely French-speaking Lower Canada (French Canada) along the St. Lawrence River and Gaspé Peninsula and an anglophone Loyalist Upper Canada, with its capital settled by 1796 in York, in present-day Toronto.[89] After 1790 most of the new settlers were American farmers searching for new lands; although generally favorable to republicanism, they were relatively non-political and stayed neutral in the War of 1812.[90]

The signing of the Treaty of Paris 1783, formally ended the war. Britain made several concessions to the Americans at the expense of the North American colonies.[91] Notably, the borders between Canada and the United States were officially demarkated.[91] All land south of the Great Lakes, which was formerly a part of the Province of Quebec and included modern day Michigan, Illinois and Ohio, was ceded to the Americans. Fishing rights were also granted to the United States in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and on the coast of Newfoundland and the Grand Banks.[91] The British ignored part of the treaty and maintained their military outposts in the Great Lakes areas it ceded to the U.S., and continued to supply the Indians there with munitions. The British evacuated the outposts with the Jay Treaty of 1795, but the continued supply of munitions irritated the Americans in the run-up to the war of 1812.[92]

War of 1812

Main article: War of 1812

The War of 1812 was fought between the United States and the British with the British North American colonies being heavily involved.[93] Greatly outgunned by the British Royal Navy, the American war plans focused on an invasion of Canada (especially what is today eastern and western Ontario). The American frontier states voted for war to suppress the First Nations raids that frustrated settlement of the frontier.[93] The war on the border with the U.S. was characterized by a series of multiple failed invasions and fiascos on both sides. American forces took control of Lake Erie in 1813, driving the British out of western Ontario, killing the Native American leader Tecumseh, and breaking the military power of his confederacy.[94] The war was overseen by Isaac Brock, with the assistance of First Nations and loyalist informants like Laura Secord.[95]



Loyalist Laura Secord warning the British (Lieutenant – James FitzGibbon) and First Nations of an impending American attack at Beaver Dams June 1813. – by Lorne Kidd Smith, c. 1920

The War ended with the Treaty of Ghent of 1814, and the Rush–Bagot Treaty of 1817.[93] A demographic result was the shifting of American migration from Upper Canada to Ohio, Indiana and Michigan.[93] After the war, supporters of Britain tried to repress the republicanism in Canada, that was common among American immigrants to Canada.[93] The troubling memory of the war and the American invasions etched itself into the consciousness of Canadians as distrust of the intentions of the United States towards the British presence in North America.[96]pp. 254–255

Rebellions and the Durham Report

Further information: Rebellions of 1837

The rebellions of 1837 against the British colonial government took place in both Upper and Lower Canada. In Upper Canada, a band of Reformers under the leadership of William Lyon Mackenzie took up arms in a disorganized and ultimately unsuccessful series of small-scale skirmishes around Toronto, London, and Hamilton.[97]



The Burning of the Parliament Buildings in Montreal −1849, Joseph Légaré, c.1849

In Lower Canada, a more substantial rebellion occurred against British rule. Both English- and French-Canadian rebels, sometimes using bases in the neutral United States, fought several skirmishes against the authorities. The towns of Chambly and Sorel were taken by the rebels, and Quebec City was isolated from the rest of the colony. Montreal rebel leader Robert Nelson read the "Declaration of Independence of Lower Canada" to a crowd assembled at the town of Napierville in 1838.[98] The rebellion of the *Patriote movement* were defeated after battles across Quebec. Hundreds were arrested, and several villages were burnt in reprisal.[98]

British Government then sent Lord Durham to examine the situation, he stayed in Canada only five months before returning to Britain, and brought with him, his Durham Report which strongly recommended responsible government.[99] A less well received recommendation was the amalgamation of Upper and Lower Canada for the deliberate assimilation of the French-speaking population. The Canadas were merged into a single colony, United Province of Canada, by the 1840 Act of Union, with responsible government achieved in 1848, a few months after it was granted to Nova Scotia.[99] The parliament of United Canada in Montreal was set on fire by a mob of Tories in 1849 after the passing of an indemnity bill for the people who suffered losses during the rebellion in Lower Canada.[100]

Between the Napoleonic Wars and 1850 some 800,000 immigrants came to the colonies of British North America, mainly from the British Isles as part of the great migration of Canada.[101] These included Gaelic-speaking Highland Scots displaced by the Highland Clearances to Nova Scotia and Scottish and English settlers to the Canadas, particularly Upper Canada. The Irish Famine of the 1840s significantly increased the pace of Irish Catholic immigration to British North America, with over 35,000 distressed Irish landing in Toronto alone in 1847 and 1848.[102]

Pacific colonies

Further information: History of British Columbia

Spanish explorers had taken the lead in the Pacific Northwest coast, with the voyages of Juan José Pérez Hernández in 1774 and 1775.[103] By the time the Spanish determined to build a fort on Vancouver Island, the British navigator James Cook had visited Nootka Sound and charted the coast as far as Alaska, while British and American maritime fur traders had begun a busy era of commerce with the coastal peoples to satisfy the brisk market for sea otter pelts in China, thereby launching what became known as the China Trade.[104]

In 1789 war threatened between Britain and Spain on their respective rights; the Nootka Crisis was resolved peacefully largely in favor of Britain, the much stronger naval power. In 1793 Alexander MacKenzie, a Canadian working for the North West Company, crossed the continent and with his Aboriginal guides and French-Canadian crew, reached the mouth of the Bella Coola River, completing the first continental crossing north of Mexico, missing George Vancouver's charting expedition to the region by only a few weeks.[105] In

1821, the North West Company and Hudson's Bay Company merged, with a combined trading territory that was extended by a licence to the North-Western Territory and the Columbia and New Caledonia fur districts, which reached the Arctic Ocean on the north and the Pacific Ocean on the west.[106]

The Colony of Vancouver Island was chartered in 1849, with the trading post at Fort Victoria as the capital. This was followed by the Colony of the Queen Charlotte Islands in 1853, and by the creation of the Colony of British Columbia in 1858 and the Stikine Territory in 1861, with the latter three being founded expressly to keep those regions from being overrun and annexed by American gold miners.[107] The Colony of the Queen Charlotte Islands and most of the Stikine Territory were merged into the Colony of British Columbia in 1863 (the remainder, north of the 60th Parallel, became part of the North-Western Territory).[107]



Map of the Columbia District, also referred to as Oregon Country.

Confederation

Main article: Canadian Confederation


1885 photo of Robert Harris' 1884 painting, *Conference at Quebec in 1864*, also known as **The Fathers of Confederation**. The scene is an amalgamation of the Charlottetown and Quebec City conference sites and attendees.

The Seventy-Two Resolutions from the 1864 Quebec Conference and Charlottetown Conference laid out the framework for uniting British colonies in North America into a federation.[108] They had been adopted by the majority of the provinces of Canada and became the basis for the London Conference of 1866, which led to the formation of the Dominion of Canada on July 1, 1867.[108] The term *dominion* was chosen to indicate Canada's status as a self-governing colony of the British Empire, the first time it was used about a country.[109] With the coming into force of the British North America Act (enacted by the British Parliament), the Province of Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia became a federated kingdom in its own right.[110][111][112]

Federation emerged from multiple impulses: the British wanted Canada to defend itself; the Maritimes needed railroad connections, which were promised in 1867; British-Canadian nationalism sought to unite the lands into one country, dominated by the English language and British culture; many French-Canadians saw an opportunity to exert political control within a new largely French-speaking Quebec[96]pp. 323–324 and fears of possible U.S. expansion northward.[109] On a political level, there was a desire for the expansion of responsible government and elimination of the legislative deadlock between Upper and Lower Canada, and their replacement with provincial legislatures in a federation.[109] This was especially pushed by the liberal Reform movement of Upper Canada and the French-Canadian *Parti rouge* in Lower Canada who favored a decentralized union in comparison to the Upper Canadian Conservative party and to some degree the French-Canadian *Parti bleu*, which favored a centralized union.[109][113]

Post-Confederation Canada 1867–1914

Main article: Post-Confederation Canada (1867–1914)

Further information: Territorial evolution of Canada



The Battle of Fish Creek, fought April 24, 1885, at Fish Creek, Saskatchewan, was a major Métis victory over the Dominion of Canada forces attempting to quell Louis Riel's North-West Rebellion.

In 1866, the Colony of British Columbia and the Colony of Vancouver Island merged into a single Colony of British Columbia, until their incorporation into the Canadian Confederation in 1871.[114] In 1873, Prince Edward Island, the Maritime colony that had opted not to join Confederation in 1867, was admitted into the country.[114] That year, John A. Macdonald (First Prime Minister of Canada) created the North-West Mounted Police (now the Royal Canadian Mounted Police) to help police the Northwest Territories.[115] Specifically the Mounties were to assert Canadian sovereignty over possible American encroachments into the sparsely populated land.[115]

The Mounties first large scale mission was to suppress the second independence movement by Manitoba's Métis, a mixed blood people of joint First Nations and European descent, who originated in the mid-17th century.[116] The desire for independence erupted in the Red River Rebellion in 1869 and the later North-West Rebellion in 1885 led by Louis Riel.[115][117] In 1905 when Saskatchewan and Alberta were admitted as provinces, they were growing rapidly thanks to abundant wheat crops that attracted immigration to the plains by Ukrainians and Northern and Central Europeans and by settlers from the United States, Britain and eastern Canada.[118][119]



A photochrome postcard showing downtown Montreal, circa 1910. Canada's population became urbanized during the 20th century.

The Alaska boundary dispute, simmering since the Alaska purchase of 1867, became critical when gold was discovered in the Yukon during the late 1890s, with the U.S. controlling all the possible ports of entry. Canada argued its boundary included the port of Skagway. The dispute went to arbitration in 1903, but the British delegate sided with the Americans, angering Canadians who felt the British had betrayed Canadian interests to curry favour with the U.S.[120]

In 1893, legal experts codified a framework of civil and criminal law, culminating in the Criminal Code of Canada. This solidified the liberal ideal of "equality before the law" in a way that made an abstract principle into a tangible reality for every adult Canadian.[121] Wilfrid Laurier who served 1896–1911 as the Seventh Prime Minister of Canada felt Canada was on the verge of becoming a world power, and declared that the 20th century would "belong to Canada"[122]

Laurier signed a reciprocity treaty with the U.S. that would lower tariffs in both directions. Conservatives under Robert Borden denounced it, saying it would integrate Canada's economy into that of the U.S. and loosen ties with Britain. Conservatives win the Canadian federal election, 1911.[123]

World Wars and Interwar Years 1914–1945

Main article: Canada in the World Wars and Interwar Years

First World War



World War I poster for 1918–Canadian victory bond drive, depicts three French women pulling a plow.

The Canadian Forces and civilian participation in the First World War helped to foster a sense of British-Canadian nationhood. The highpoints of Canadian military achievement during the First World War came during the Somme, Vimy, Passchendaele battles and what later became known as "Canada's Hundred Days".[124] The reputation Canadian troops earned, along with the success of Canadian flying aces including William George Barker and Billy Bishop, helped to give the nation a new sense of identity.[125] The War Office in 1922 reported approximately 67,000 killed and 173,000 wounded during the war.[126] This excludes civilian deaths in war time incidents like the Halifax Explosion.[126]

Support for Great Britain during the First World War caused a major political crisis over conscription, with Francophones, mainly from Quebec, rejecting national policies.[127] During the crisis large numbers of enemy aliens (especially Ukrainians and Germans) were put under government controls.[128] The Liberal party was deeply split, with most of its Anglophone leaders joining the unionist government headed by Prime Minister Robert Borden, the leader of the Conservative party.[129] The Liberals regained their influence after the war under the leadership of William Lyon Mackenzie King, who served as prime minister with three separate terms between 1921 and 1949.[130]

Interwar

As a result of the First World War, Canada became more assertive and less deferential to British authority; it became an independent member of the League of Nations. In 1923 British Prime Minister, David Lloyd George, appealed repeatedly for Canadian support in the Chanak crisis, in which a war threatened between Britain and Turkey. Canada refused.[131] The Department of External Affairs, which had been founded in 1909, was expanded and promoted Canadian autonomy as Canada reduced its reliance on British diplomats and used its own foreign service.[132] Thus began the careers of such important diplomats as Norman Robertson and Hume Wrong, and future prime minister Lester Pearson.[133]

In 1921 to 1926, William Lyon Mackenzie King's Liberal government pursued a conservative domestic policy with the object of lowering wartime taxes and, especially, cooling wartime ethnic tensions, as well as defusing postwar labour conflicts. The Progressives refused to join the government, but did help the Liberals defeat non-confidence motions. King faced a delicate balancing act of reducing tariffs enough to please the Prairie-based Progressives, but not too much to alienate his vital support in industrial Ontario and Quebec, which needed tariffs to compete with American imports. King and Conservative leader Arthur Meighen sparred constantly and bitterly in Commons debates.[134] The Progressives gradually weakened. Their effective and passionate leader, Thomas Crerar, resigned to return to his grain business, and was replaced by the more placid Robert Forke. The socialist reformer J.S. Woodsworth gradually gained influence and power among the Progressives, and he reached an accommodation with King on policy matters.[135]

In 1926 Prime Minister Mackenzie King advised the Governor General, Lord Byng, to dissolve Parliament and call another election, but Byng refused, the first and only time that the Governor General has exercised such a power. Instead Byng called upon Meighan, the Conservative Party leader, to form a government. Meighen attempted to do so, but was unable to obtain a majority in the Commons and he, too, advised dissolution, which this time was accepted. The episode, the King-Byng Affair, marks a constitutional crisis that was resolved by a new tradition of complete non-interference in Canadian political affairs on the part of the British government.

In 1931 the Statute of Westminster gave each dominion (which included Canada and Newfoundland) the opportunity for almost complete legislative independence from the Parliament of the United Kingdom.[136] While Newfoundland never adopted the statute, for Canada the Statute of Westminster has been called its declaration of independence.[137]

Great Depression

Main article: Great Depression in Canada



Unemployed men march in Toronto

Canada was hard hit by the worldwide Great Depression that began in 1929. Between 1929 and 1933, the gross national product dropped 40% (compared to 37% in the US). Unemployment reached 27% at the depth of the Depression in 1933. Many businesses closed, as corporate profits of $396 million in 1929 turned into losses of $98 million in 1933. Canadian exports shrank by 50% from 1929 to 1933. Construction all but stopped (down 82%, 1929-33), and wholesale prices dropped 30%. Wheat prices plunged from 78c per bushel (1928 crop) to 29c in 1932.[138]

Urban unemployment nationwide was 19%; Toronto's rate was 17%, according to the census of 1931. Farmers who stayed on their farms were not considered unemployed.[139] By 1933, 30% of the labour force was out of work, and one fifth of the population became dependent on government assistance. Wages fell as did prices. Worst hit were areas dependent on primary industries such as farming, mining and logging, as prices fell and there were few alternative jobs. Most families had moderate losses and little hardship, though they too became pessimistic and their debts become heavier as prices fell. Some families saw most or all of their assets disappear, and suffered severely.[140][141]

In 1930 in the first stage of the long depression, Prime Minister Mackenzie King believed that the crisis was a temporary swing of the business cycle and that the economy would soon recovery without government intervention. He refused to provide unemployment relief or federal aid to the provinces, saying that if Conservative provincial governments demanded federal dollars he would not give them "a five cent piece."[142] His blunt wisecrack was used to defeat the Liberals in the 1930 election. The main issue was the rapid deterioration in the economy and whether the prime minister was out of touch with the hardships of ordinary people.[143][144] The winner of the 1930 election was Richard Bedford Bennett and the Conservatives. Bennett had promised high tariffs and large scale spending, but as deficits increased he became wary and cut back severely on Federal spending. With falling support and the depression only getting worse Bennett attempted to introduce policies based on the New Deal of President Franklin D. Roosevelt (FDR) in the United States, but he got little passed. Bennett's government became a focus of popular discontent. For example, auto owners saved on gasoline by using horses to pull their cars, dubbing them Bennett Buggies. The Conservative failure to restore prosperity led to the return of Mackenzie King's Liberals in the 1935 election. [145]

In 1935 the Liberals used the slogan "King or Chaos" to win a landslide in the 1935 election.[146] Promising a much-desired trade treaty with the U.S., the Mackenzie King government passed the 1935 Reciprocal Trade Agreement. It marked the turning point in Canadian-American economic relations, reversing the disastrous trade war of 1930-31, lowering tariffs, and yielding a dramatic increase in trade.[147]

The worst of the Depression had passed by 1935, as Ottawa launched relief programs such as the National Housing Act and National Employment Commission. The Canadian Broadcasting Corporation became a crown

corporation in 1936. Trans-Canada Airlines (the precursor to Air Canada) was formed in 1937, as was the National Film Board of Canada in 1939. In 1938, Parliament transformed the Bank of Canada from a private entity to a crown corporation.[148]

One political response was a highly restrictive immigration policy and a rise in natvism.[149]

Times were especially hard in western Canada, where a full recovery did not occur until the Second World War began in 1939. One response was the creation of new political parties such as the Social Credit movement and the Cooperative Commonwealth Federation, as well as popular protest in the form of the On-to-Ottawa Trek.[150]



Strikers from unemployment relief camps climbing on boxcars in Kamloops, British Columbia

Second World War



Canadian crew of a Sherman tank in Vaucelles, France, after D-day south of Juno Beach, June 1944

Mobilisation

Canada's involvement in the Second World War began when Canada declared war on Nazi Germany on September 10, 1939, delaying it one week after Britain acted to symbolically demonstrate independence. The war restored Canada's economic health and its self-confidence, as it played a major role in the Atlantic and in Europe. During the war Canada became more closely linked to the U.S. The Americans took virtual control of the Yukon in order to build the Alaska Highway, and was a major presence in the British colony of Newfoundland with major airbases.[151]

Mackenzie King — and Canada — were largely ignored by Winston Churchill and the British government despite Canada's major role in supplying food, raw materials, munitions and money to the hard-pressed British economy, training airmen for the Commonwealth, guarding the western half of the North Atlantic Ocean against German U-boats, and providing combat troops for the invasions of Italy, France and Germany in 1943-45. The government successfully mobilized the economy for war, with impressive results in industrial and agricultural output. The depression ended, prosperity returned, and Canada's economy expanded significantly. On the political side, Mackenzie King rejected any notion of a government of national unity.[152] The Canadian federal election, 1940 was held as normally scheduled, producing another majority for the Liberals.

Building up the Royal Canadian Air Force was a high priority; it was kept separate from Britain's Royal Air Force. The British Commonwealth Air Training Plan Agreement, signed in December, 1939, bound Canada, Britain, New Zealand, and Australia to a program that eventually trained half the airmen from those four nations in the Second World War.[153]

After the start of war with Japan in December 1941 the government, in cooperation with the U.S., began the Japanese-Canadian internment, which sent 22,000 British Columbia residents of Japanese descent to relocation camps far from the coast. The reason was intense public demand for removal and fears of espionage or sabotage.[154] The government ignored reports from the RCMP and Canadian military that most of the Japanese were law-abiding and not a threat.[155]

Combat

The Battle of the Atlantic began immediately, and from 1943 to 1945 was led by Leonard W. Murray, from Nova Scotia. German U-boats operated in Canadian and Newfoundland waters throughout the war, sinking many naval and merchant vessels, as Canada took charge of the defenses of the western Atlantic.[156] The Canadian army was involved in the failed defence of Hong Kong, the unsuccessful Dieppe Raid in August 1942, the Allied invasion of Italy, and the highly successful invasion of France and the Netherlands in 1944-45.[157]



William Mackenzie King voting in the plebiscite on the introduction of conscription for overseas military service

Conscription

The Conscription Crisis of 1944 greatly affected unity between French and English-speaking Canadians, though was not as politically intrusive as that of the First World War.[158] Of a population of approximately 11.5 million, 1.1 million Canadians served in the armed forces in the Second World War. Many thousands more served with the Canadian Merchant Navy.[159] In all, more than 45,000 died, and another 55,000 were wounded.[160][161]

Post-war Era 1945–1960

Main article: History of Canada (1945–1960)

Prosperity returned to Canada during the Second World War and continued in the proceeding years, with the development of universal health care, old-age pensions, and veterans' pensions.[162][163] The financial crisis of the Great Depression had led the Dominion of Newfoundland to relinquish responsible government in 1934 and become a crown colony ruled by a British governor.[164] In 1948, the British government gave voters three Newfoundland Referendum choices: remaining a crown colony, returning to Dominion status (that is, independence), or joining Canada. Joining the United States was not made an option. After bitter debate Newfoundlanders voted to join Canada in 1949 as a province.[165]



The Avro Canada CF-105 Arrow (Recreation).

The foreign policy of Canada during the Cold War was closely tied to that of the United States. Canada was a founding member of NATO (which Canada wanted to be a transatlantic economic and political union as well[166]). In 1950 Canada sent combat troops to Korea during the Korean War as part of the United Nations forces. The federal government's desire to assert its territorial claims in the Arctic during the Cold War manifested with the High Arctic relocation, in which Inuit were moved from Nunavik (the northern third of Quebec) to barren Cornwallis Island;[167] this project was later the subject of a long investigation by the Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples.[168]

In 1956, the United Nations responded to the Suez Crisis by convening a United Nations Emergency Force to supervise the withdrawal of invading forces. The peacekeeping force was initially conceptualized by Secretary of External Affairs and future Prime Minister Lester B. Pearson.[169] Pearson was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1957 for his work in establishing the peacekeeping operation.[169] Throughout the mid-1950s Louis St. Laurent (12th Prime Minister of Canada) and his successor John Diefenbaker attempted to create a new, highly advanced jet fighter, the Avro Arrow.[170] The controversial

aircraft was cancelled by Diefenbaker in 1959. Diefenbaker instead purchased the BOMARC missile defense system and American aircraft. In 1958 Canada established (with the United States) the North American Aerospace Defense Command (NORAD).[171]

1960–1981

Main article: History of Canada (1960–1981)

In the 1960s, what became known as the Quiet Revolution took place in Quebec, overthrowing the old establishment which centered on the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Quebec and led to modernizing of the economy and society.[172] Québécois nationalists demanded independence, and tensions rose until violence erupted during the 1970 October Crisis.[173] In 1976 the Parti Québécois was elected to power in Quebec, with a nationalist vision that included securing French linguistic rights in the province and the pursuit of some form of sovereignty for Quebec. This culminated in the 1980 referendum in Quebec on the question of sovereignty-association, which was turned down by 59% of the voters.[173]

In 1965, Canada adopted the maple leaf flag, although not without considerable debate and misgivings among large number of English Canadians.[174] The World's Fair titled Expo 67 came to Montreal, coinciding with the Canadian Centennial that year. The fair opened April 28, 1967, with the theme "Man and his World" and became the best attended of all BIE-sanctioned world expositions until that time.[175]



The Canadian flag, flying in Vanier Park, near downtown Vancouver

Legislative restrictions on Canadian immigration that had favoured British and other European immigrants were amended in the 1960s, opening the doors to immigrants from all parts of the world.[176] While the 1950s had seen high levels of immigration from Britain, Ireland, Italy, and northern continental Europe, by the 1970s immigrants increasingly came from India, China, Vietnam, Jamaica and Haiti.[177] Immigrants of all backgrounds tended to settle in the major urban centres, particularly Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver.[177]

During his long tenure in the office (1968–79, 1980–84), Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau made social and cultural change his political goals, including the pursuit of official bilingualism in Canada and plans for significant constitutional change.[178] The west, particularly the petroleum-producing provinces like Alberta, opposed many of the policies emanating from central Canada, with the National Energy Program creating considerable antagonism and growing western alienation.[179] Multiculturalism in Canada was adopted as the official policy of the Canadian government during the prime ministership of Pierre Trudeau.[180]

1982–1992

Main article: History of Canada (1982–1992)

In 1982, the Canada Act was passed by the British parliament and granted Royal Assent by Queen Elizabeth II on March 29, while the Constitution Act was passed by the Canadian parliament and granted Royal Assent by the Queen on April 17, thus patriating the Constitution of Canada.[181] Previously, the constitution has existed only as an act passed of the British parliament, and was not even physically located in Canada, though it could not be altered without Canadian consent.[182] At the same time, the Charter of Rights and Freedoms was added

in place of the previous Bill of Rights.[183] The patriation of the constitution was Trudeau's last major act as Prime Minister; he resigned in 1984.

On June 23, 1985, Air India Flight 182 was destroyed above the Atlantic Ocean by a bomb on board exploding; all 329 on board were killed, of whom 280 were Canadian citizens.[185] The Air India attack is the largest mass murder in Canadian history.[186]



Pte. Patrick Cloutier, a 'Van Doo' perimeter sentry, and Mohawk Warrior Brad Larocque, a University of Saskatchewan economics student, face off during the Oka Crisis (Image: Shaney Komulainen of Canadian Press, September 1, 1990)[184]

The Progressive Conservative (PC) government of Brian Mulroney began efforts to gain Quebec's support for the Constitution Act 1982 and end western alienation. In 1987 the Meech Lake Accord talks began between the provincial and federal governments, seeking constitutional changes favourable to Quebec.[187] The constitutional reform process under Prime Minister Mulroney culminated in the failure of the Charlottetown Accord which would have recognized Quebec as a "distinct society" but was rejected in 1992 by a narrow margin.[188]

Under Brian Mulroney, relations with the United States began to grow more closely integrated. In 1986, Canada and the U.S. signed the "Acid Rain Treaty" to reduce acid rain. In 1989, the federal government adopted the Free Trade Agreement with the United States despite significant animosity from the Canadian public who were concerned about the economic and cultural impacts of close integration with the United States.[189] On July 11, 1990, the Oka Crisis land dispute began between the Mohawk people of Kanesatake and the adjoining town of Oka, Quebec.[190] The dispute was the first of a number of well-publicized conflicts between First Nations and the Canadian government in the late 20th century. In August 1990, Canada was one of the first nations to condemn Iraq's invasion of Kuwait, and it quickly agreed to join the U.S.-led coalition. Canada deployed destroyers and later a CF-18 Hornet squadron with support personnel, as well as a field hospital to deal with casualties.[191]

Recent history: 1992–present

Main article: History of Canada (1992–present)

Following Mulroney's resignation as prime minister in 1993, Kim Campbell took office and became Canada's first female prime minister.[192] Campbell remained in office only for a few months: the 1993 election saw the collapse of the Progressive Conservative Party from government to two seats, while the Quebec-based sovereigntist Bloc Québécois became the official opposition.[193] Prime Minister Jean Chrétien of the Liberals took office in November 1993 with a majority government and was re-elected with further majorities during the 1997 and 2000 elections.[194]

In 1995, the government of Quebec held a second referendum on sovereignty that was rejected by a margin of 50.6% to 49.4%.[195] In 1998, the Canadian Supreme Court ruled unilateral secession by a province to be unconstitutional, and Parliament passed the Clarity Act outlining the terms of a negotiated departure.[195] Environmental issues increased in importance in Canada during this period, resulting in the signing of the Kyoto Accord on climate change by Canada's Liberal government in 2002. The accord was in 2007 nullified by the present government, which has proposed a "made-in-Canada" solution to climate change.[196]

Canada became the fourth country in the world and the first country in the Americas to legalize same-sex

marriage nationwide with the enactment of the Civil Marriage Act.[197] Court decisions, starting in 2003, had already legalized same-sex marriage in eight out of ten provinces and one of three territories. Before the passage of the Act, more than 3,000 same-sex couples had married in these areas.[198]



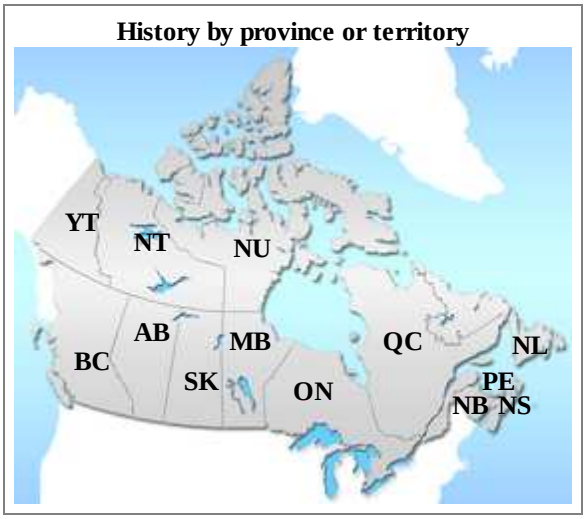
Political shift in Canada in the first decade of the 21st century

The Canadian Alliance and PC Party merged into the Conservative Party of Canada in 2003, ending a 13-year division of the conservative vote. The party was elected twice as a minority government under the leadership of Stephen Harper in the 2006 federal election and 2008 federal election.[194] Harper's Conservative Party won a majority in the 2011 federal election with the New Democratic Party forming the Official Opposition for the first time.[199]

Under Harper, Canada and the United States continue to integrate state and provincial agencies to strengthen security along the Canada-United States border through the Western Hemisphere Travel Initiative.[200] From 2002 to 2011, Canada was involved in the Afghanistan War as part of the U.S. stabilization force and the NATO-commanded International Security Assistance Force. In July 2010 the largest purchase in Canadian military history, totalling C$9 billion for the acquisition of 65 F-35 fighters, was announced by the federal government.[201] Canada is one of several nations that assisted in the development of the F-35 and has invested over C$168 million in the program.[202]

See also

- Events of National Historic Significance (Canada)
- History of the Americas
- History of Montreal
- History of North America
- History of Ottawa
- History of Quebec City
- History of Toronto
- History of Vancouver
- History of Winnipeg
- National Historic Sites of Canada
- Persons of National Historic Significance



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Monarchy of Canada

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Canada** is the core of both Canada's federalism and its Westminster-style parliamentary democracy,[1] being the foundation of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of the Canadian government and each provincial government.[2][3][4] The monarchy has been headed since 6 February 1952 by Queen Elizabeth II, who as sovereign is shared equally with fifteen other countries within the Commonwealth of Nations, all being independent and the monarchy of each legally distinct. For Canada, the monarch is officially titled *Queen of Canada* (French: *Reine du Canada*), and she, her consort, and other members of the Canadian Royal Family undertake various public and private functions across the country and on its behalf abroad. However, the Queen is the only member of the Royal Family with any constitutional role. While several powers are the sovereign's alone, because she lives predominantly in the United Kingdom, most of the royal governmental and ceremonial duties in Canada are carried out by the Queen's representative, the governor general. In each of Canada's provinces, the monarch is represented by a lieutenant governor, while the territories are not sovereign and thus do not have a viceroy.

Queen of Canada

MONARCHY
FEDERAL



Royal coat of arms of Canada



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II
since 6 February 1952

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Victoria
Formation:	1 July 1867
Residence:	Rideau Hall, Ottawa
Website:	www.pch.gc.ca/pgm/ceem-cced/ (http://www.pch.gc.ca/pgm/ceem-cced/fr-rf/index-eng.cfm)

Per the Canadian constitution, the responsibilities of the sovereign and/or governor general include summoning and dismissing parliament, calling elections, and appointing governments. Further, Royal Assent and the royal sign-manual are required to enact laws, letters patent, and orders in council. But the authority for these acts stems from the Canadian populace and,[5][6][7] within the conventional stipulations of constitutional monarchy, the sovereign's direct participation in any of these areas of governance is limited, with most related powers entrusted for exercise by the elected and appointed parliamentarians, the ministers of the Crown generally drawn from amongst them, and the judges and justices of the peace.[5] The Crown today primarily functions as a guarantor of continuous and stable governance and a nonpartisan safeguard against the abuse of power,[5][8][9] the sovereign acting as a custodian of the Crown's democratic powers and a representation of the "power of the people above government and political parties."[10][11]

The historical roots of the Canadian monarchy date back to approximately the turn of the 16th century,[n 1][19][20][21][22] when European kingdoms made the first claims to what is now Canadian territory. Monarchical

governance thenceforth evolved under a continuous succession of French and British sovereigns, and eventually the legally distinct Canadian monarchy,[12][15][16][18][23][24] which is sometimes colloquially referred to as the *Maple Crown*.[n 2][15][26]

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International and domestic aspects

Further information: Commonwealth realm > Relationship of the realms

Canada shares equally the same sovereign with fifteen other monarchies in the fifty-four-member Commonwealth of Nations, a grouping known informally as the Commonwealth realms, with the monarch residing predominantly in the oldest and most populous realm, the United Kingdom, and viceroys acting as the sovereign's representatives in Canada. The emergence of this arrangement paralleled the fruition of Canadian nationalism following the end of the First World War and culminated in the passage of the Statute of Westminster in 1931. Since then, the pan-national Crown has had both a shared and separate character and the sovereign's role as monarch of Canada has been distinct to his or her position as monarch of any other realm,[n 3][27] including the United Kingdom.[n 4][29][30][31] Only Canadian federal ministers of the Crown may advise the sovereign on all matters of the Canadian state,[n 5][31][32][33][34][35] of which the sovereign, when not in Canada, is kept abreast by weekly communications with the federal viceroy.[36] The monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution and in Canada became a Canadian,[16][37][38][39] or "domesticated",[40]

establishment, though it is still often denoted as "British" in both legal and common language,[16] for reasons historical, political, and of convenience.



The personal Canadian royal standard of Prince William, Duke of Cambridge, for use in Canada and when representing Canada abroad

This division is illustrated in a number of ways: The sovereign, for example, holds a unique Canadian title and, when she and other members of the Royal Family are acting in public specifically as representatives of Canada, they will use,[41] where possible, Canadian symbols, including the country's national flag, unique royal symbols, armed forces uniforms,[42][43][44][45] and the like, as well as Canadian Forces aircraft or other Canadian-owned vehicles for travel.[46] Once in Canadian airspace, or arrived at a Canadian event taking place abroad, the Canadian Secretary to the Queen, officers of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, and other Canadian officials will take over from whichever of their other realms' counterparts were previously escorting the Queen or other member of the Royal Family.[46][47]

The sovereign similarly only draws from Canadian coffers for support in the performance of her duties when in Canada or acting as Queen of Canada abroad; Canadians do not pay any money to the Queen or any other member of the Royal Family, either towards personal income or to support royal residences outside of Canada.[48][49] Normally, tax dollars pay only for the costs associated with the governor general and ten lieutenant governors as instruments of the Queen's authority, including travel, security, residences, offices, ceremonies, and the like.[49] In the absence of official reports on the full cost of the monarchy, the Monarchist League of Canada regularly issues a survey based on various federal and provincial budgets, expenditures, and estimates; the 2009 edition found that the institution cost Canadians roughly $50 million in 2008.[50]

Succession and regency

Succession is by male-preference primogeniture governed by both the Act of Settlement, 1701, and Bill of Rights, 1689, legislation that limits the succession to the natural (i.e. non-adopted), legitimate descendants of Sophia of Hanover and stipulates that the monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne; these particular clauses have prompted legal challenge. Though, via adopting the Statute of Westminster, these constitutional laws as they apply to Canada now lie within the full control of the Canadian parliament,[51][52] Canada also agreed not to change its rules of succession without the unanimous consent of, and a parallel change of succession in, the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship; a situation that applies symmetrically in all the other realms and has been likened to a treaty amongst these countries.[53][54] Thus, Canada's line of succession remains identical to that of the United Kingdom. However, there is no provision in Canadian law requiring that the king or queen of Canada must be the same person as the king or queen of the United Kingdom; if the UK were to breach the convention set out in the preamble to the Statute of Westminster and unilaterally change the line of succession to the British throne, the alteration would have no effect on the reigning sovereign of Canada or his or her heirs and successors.[52][55] As such, the rules for succession are not fixed, but may be changed by a constitutional amendment. In 2011, the Prime Minister of Canada, along with the prime ministers of the other Commonwealth realms, gave support to a proposed change of primogeniture governing the line of succession from agnatic to absolute cognatic.[56]

Upon a *demise of the Crown* (the death or abdication of a sovereign), the late sovereign's heir immediately and automatically succeeds, without any need for confirmation or further ceremony — hence arises the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!".[57][58] It is customary, though, for the accession of the new monarch to be


Charles, Prince of Wales, is the heir apparent to the Canadian throne

publicly proclaimed by the governor general on behalf of the Queen's Privy Council for Canada, which meets at Rideau Hall after the accession.[n 6] Following an appropriate period of mourning, the monarch is also crowned in the United Kingdom in an ancient ritual, but one not necessary for a sovereign to reign.[n 7] By the Interpretation Act of 2005, no incumbent appointee of the Crown is affected by the death of the monarch, nor are they required to take the Oath of Allegiance again,[61] and all references in legislation to previous monarchs, whether in the masculine (e.g. *His Majesty*) or feminine (e.g. *the Queen*), continue to mean the reigning sovereign of Canada, regardless of his or her gender.[61] After an individual ascends the throne, he or she typically continues to reign until death, being unable to unilaterally abdicate per the tenets of constitutional monarchy.[n 8]

Canada has no laws allowing for a regency, should the sovereign be a minor or debilitated;[36] none have been passed by the Canadian parliament and it was made clear by successive Cabinets since 1937 that the United Kingdom's Regency Act had no applicability to Canada,[36] as the Canadian Cabinet had not requested otherwise when the act was passed that year and again in 1943 and 1953. As the 1947 Letters Patent issued by King George VI permit the Governor General of Canada to exercise almost all of the monarch's powers in respect of Canada, the viceroy is expected to continue to act as the personal representative of the monarch, and not any regent, even if the monarch is a child or incapacitated.[36][62][63] It is unclear, however, how those duties that are the sole domain of the monarch would be carried out at such a time.

Federal and provincial aspects

Further information: Monarchy in the Canadian provinces

Conceived by the Fathers of Confederation as a bulwark against any potential fracturing of the Canadian federation,[64] the Canadian monarchy is a federal one in which the Crown is unitary throughout all jurisdictions in the country,[65] the sovereignty of the different administrations being passed on through the overreaching Crown itself as a part of the executive, legislative, and judicial operations in each of the federal and provincial spheres and the headship of state being a part of all equally.[65] However, though the singular Crown links the various governments into a federal state,[3] it is also "divided" into eleven legal jurisdictions, or eleven "crowns" — one federal and ten provincial[66] — with the monarch taking on a distinct legal persona in each.[n 9][n 10] As such, the constitution instructs that any change to the position of the monarch or his or her representatives in Canada requires the consent of the Senate, the House of Commons, and the legislative assemblies of all the provinces.[70]

The monarch is personally represented in each area by a viceroy who carries out the majority of the Queen's duties on her behalf: that in the federal sphere being titled *Governor General of Canada* and appointed by the Queen on the advice of her federal prime minister, and those in the provincial spheres being called *Lieutenant Governor* and appointed by the governor general on the advice of the federal prime minister, with input from the relevant provincial premier. The commissioners of Canada's territories are appointed by the federal Governor-in-Council, at the recommendation of the Minister of Indian Affairs and Northern Development; but, as the territories are not sovereign entities, the commissioners are not personal representatives of the sovereign.

Personification of the Canadian state

As the living embodiment of the Crown,[61] the sovereign is regarded as the personification of the Canadian state,[n 11][10][34][77][78][79][80] the body of the reigning sovereign thus holding two distinct personas in constant coexistence: that of a natural-born human being and that of the state as accorded to him or her through law;[n 12] even in private, the monarch is always "on duty".[82] The state is therefore referred to as *Her Majesty The Queen in Right of Canada* (French: *Sa Majesté la Reine du chef du Canada*),[83] or *The Crown in Right of Canada*, and the monarch's legal personality is sometimes referred to simply as *Canada*.[79][84]



Queen Elizabeth II wearing the Vladimir Tiara, as well as the Sovereign's insignia of the Order of Canada and the Order of Military Merit

As such, the king or queen of Canada is the employer of all government staff (including the viceroys, judges, members of the Canadian Forces, police officers, and parliamentarians),[n 13] the guardian of foster children (*Crown wards*), as well as the owner of all state lands (*Crown land*), buildings and equipment (*Crown held property*),[86] state owned companies (*Crown corporations*), and the copyright for all government publications (*Crown copyright*).[87] This is all in his or her position as sovereign, and not as an individual; all such property is held by the Crown in perpetuity and cannot be sold by the sovereign without the proper advice and consent of his or her ministers.

> *The Crown is an integral part of a practical form of government, and as such it has a direct and substantive part to play in the lives of all Canadians.*[71]
>
> David E. Smith, *The Invisible Crown*, 1995

As the embodiment of the state, the monarch tops the Canadian order of precedence, and is also the locus of oaths of allegiance,[n 14][73][79][89][90] required of many employees of the Crown, as well as by new citizens, as per the Oath of Citizenship laid out in the Citizenship Act. This is done in reciprocation to the sovereign's Coronation Oath,[91] wherein he or she promises "to govern the Peoples of... Canada... according to their respective laws and customs."[92]

Head of state

Though it has been argued that the term *head of state* is a republican one inapplicable in a constitutional monarchy such as Canada, where the monarch is the embodiment of the state and thus cannot be head of it,[82] the sovereign is regarded by official government sources,[14][93][94] judges,[95] constitutional scholars,[79][96] and pollsters as the head of state,[97] while the governor general and lieutenant governors are all only representatives of, and thus equally subordinate to, that figure.[98] Some governors general, their staff, government publications,[79] and constitutional scholars like Edward McWhinney and C. E. S. Franks have,[99][100] however, referred to the position of governor general as that of Canada's head of state,[101][102] though sometimes qualilfying the assertion with *de facto* or *effective*;[103][104][105] Franks has hence recommended that the governor general be named officially as the head of state.[100] Since 1927, governors general have been received on state visits abroad as though they were heads of state.[106]

Officials at Rideau Hall have pointed to the Letters Patent of 1947 as justification for describing the governor general as head of state, but others countered that the document makes no such distinction, either literally or

implicitly,[107] nor does it effect an abdication of the sovereign's powers in favour of the viceroy.[36] Michael D. Jackson, former protocol officer for Saskatchewan, pointed out that Rideau Hall had been attempting to "recast" the governor general as head of state since the 1970s and that doing so preempted both the Queen and all of the lieutenant governors,[98] the latter causing not only "precedence wars" at provincial events (where the governor general usurped the lieutenant governor's proper spot as most senior official in attendance),[108][109] but also constitutional issues by "unbalancing[...] the federalist symmetry."[65][110] This has been regarded as both a natural evolution and as a dishonest effort to alter the constitution without public scrutiny.[107][111] Still others view the role of head of state as being shared by both the sovereign and her viceroys.[112][113][114]

In a poll conducted by Ipsos-Reid following the first prorogation of the 40th parliament on 4 December 2008, it was found that 42% of the sample group thought the prime minister was head of state, while 33% felt it was the governor general. Only 24% named the Queen as head of state,[97] a number up from 2002, when the results of an EKOS Research Associates survey showed only 5% of those polled knew the Queen was head of state (69% answered that it was the prime minister).[115]

Federal constitutional role

Canada's constitution is based on the Westminster parliamentary model, wherein the role of the Queen is both legal and practical, but not political.[39] The sovereign is vested with all the powers of state, collectively known as the Royal Prerogative,[116] which stems from the people,[6][117] who are thus considered subjects of the Crown.[118] However, as the monarch is a constitutional one, he or she does not rule alone, as in an absolute monarchy. Instead, the Crown is regarded as a corporation, with the monarch being the centre of a construct in which the power of the whole is shared by multiple institutions of government — the executive, legislative, and judicial[4] — acting under the sovereign's authority,[79][119] which is entrusted for exercise by the politicians (the elected and appointed parliamentarians and the ministers of the Crown generally drawn from amongst them) and the judges and justices of the peace.[5] The monarchy has thus been described as the underlying principle of Canada's institutional unity and the monarch as a "guardian of constitutional freedoms"[18][89] whose "job is to ensure that the political process remains intact and is allowed to function."[39]



King George VI, king of Canada (left), and William Lyon Mackenzie King, Prime Minister of Canada (right), share a moment of levity, 11 May 1937

The Crown also sits at the pinnacle of the Canadian Forces, with the constitution placing the monarch in the position of commander-in-chief of the entire force, though the governor general carries out the duties attached to the position and also bears the title of *Commander-in-Chief in and over Canada*.[120] Further, included in Canada's constitution are the various treaties between the Crown and Canadian First Nations, Inuit, and Métis peoples, who view these documents as agreements directly and only between themselves and the reigning monarch, illustrating the relationship between sovereign and aboriginals.[121][122][123]

Executive (Queen-in-Council)

The government of Canada — formally termed *Her Majesty's Government*[124] — is defined by the constitution

as the Queen acting on the advice of her Privy Council;[124][125][126][127] what is technically known as the *Queen-in-Council*,[3] or sometimes the *Governor-in-Council*,[61] referring to the governor general as the Queen's stand-in. One of the main duties of the Crown is to "ensure that a democratically elected government is always in place,"[114] which means appointing a prime minister to thereafter head the Cabinet[128] — a committee of the Privy Council charged with advising the Crown on the exercise of the Royal Prerogative.[127] The Queen is informed by her viceroy of the swearing-in and resignation of prime ministers and other members of the ministry,[128] remains fully briefed through regular communications from her Canadian ministers, and holds audience with them whenever possible.[93]



Governor General Michaëlle Jean with Her Majesty's Cabinet, 30 October 2008

In the construct of constitutional monarchy and responsible government, the ministerial advice tendered is typically binding,[129] meaning the monarch *reigns* but does not *rule*, the Cabinet ruling "in trust" for the monarch.[130] This has been the case in Canada since the Treaty of Paris ended the reign of the territory's last absolute monarch, King Louis XV. However, the Royal Prerogative belongs to the Crown and not to any of the ministers,[5][119][131] and the royal and viceroyal figures may unilaterally use these powers in exceptional constitutional crisis situations,[n 15][59][119][132][133][134][135] thereby allowing the monarch to make sure "that the government conducts itself in compliance with the constitution."[114] There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by, the Queen; these include applying the royal sign-manual and Great Seal of Canada to the appointment papers of governors general, the issuance of Letters Patent,[36] the confirmation of awards of Canadian honours, the approval of any change in her Canadian title,[136] and the creation of new senate seats.[137]

The Royal Prerogative also extends to foreign affairs: the sovereign or governor general negotiates and ratifies treaties, alliances, and international agreements, all on the advice of the Cabinet, and the governor general, on behalf of the Queen, both accredits Canadian high commissioners and ambassadors and receives similar diplomats from foreign states. These tasks were solely in the domain of the monarch until the 1970s,[138] when Queen Elizabeth II, on the advice of Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau, allowed the governor general to perform these duties on her behalf.[139] In 2005, the letters of credence and recall were altered so as to run in the name of the incumbent governor general, instead of following the usual international process of the letters being from one head of state to another.[139] In addition, the issuance of passports falls under the Royal Prerogative and,[140] as such, all Canadian passports are issued in the monarch's name and remain her property.[141]

Parliament (Queen-in-Parliament)

All laws in Canada are the monarch's and the sovereign is one of the three components of parliament[142][143] — formally called the *Queen-in-Parliament*[3] — but the monarch and viceroy do not participate in the legislative process save for the granting of Royal Assent, which is necessary for a bill to be enacted as law. Either figure or a delegate may perform this task, and the viceroy has the option of deferring assent to the sovereign, as per the constitution.[144] The governor general is further responsible for summoning the House of Commons, while either the viceroy or monarch can prorogue and dissolve the legislature, after which the governor general usually calls for a general election. The new parliamentary session is marked by either the monarch, governor general, or some other representative reading the Speech from the Throne; as the sovereign is traditionally barred from the House of Commons, this ceremony, as well as the bestowing of Royal Assent, takes place in the Senate

chamber.[145] Despite this exclusion, members of the commons must still express their loyalty to the monarch and defer to her authority, as the Oath of Allegiance must be recited by all new parliamentarians before they may take their seat, and the official opposition is traditionally dubbed as *Her Majesty's Loyal Opposition*.[89][146][147]

The monarch does not have the prerogative to impose and collect new taxes without the authorization of an Act of Parliament. The consent of the Crown must, however, be obtained before either of the houses of parliament may even debate a bill affecting the sovereign's prerogatives or interests, and no act of parliament binds the Queen or her rights unless the act states that it does.[148]



King George VI, with Queen Elizabeth, grants Royal Assent to bills in the Canadian Senate, 1939

Courts (Queen-on-the-Bench)

The sovereign is responsible for rendering justice for all her subjects, and is thus traditionally deemed the *fount of justice*,[149] her position in the Canadian courts formally dubbed the *Queen on the Bench*.[3] Though the monarch does not personally rule in judicial cases, this function of the Royal Prerogative instead performed in trust and in the Queen's name by officers of Her Majesty's court,[149] common law holds the notion that the sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in her own courts, judged by herself, for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the Queen-in-Council) are permitted, but lawsuits against the monarch personally are not cognizable. In international cases, as a sovereign and under established principles of international law, the Queen of Canada is not subject to suit in foreign courts without her express consent.[125] The monarch, and by extension the governor general, also grants immunity from prosecution,[150] exercises the *Royal Prerogative of Mercy* and may pardon offences against the Crown,[151][152] either before, during, or after a trial.

An image of the Queen and/or the Arms of Her Majesty in Right of Canada is always displayed in Canadian federal courtrooms. Itinerant judges will display an image of the Queen and the Canadian flag when holding a session away from established courtrooms; such situations occur in parts of Canada where the stakeholders in a given court case are too isolated geographically to be able to travel for regular proceedings.

Cultural role

Royal presence and duties

Further information: List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II

Members of the Royal Family have been present in Canada since the late 18th century, their reasons including participating in military manoeuvres, serving as the federal viceroy, or undertaking official royal tours. A prominent feature of the latter are numerous royal walkabouts, the tradition of which was initiated in 1939 by Queen Elizabeth when she was in Ottawa and broke from the royal party to speak directly to gathered veterans.[153][154] Usually important milestones, anniversaries, or celebrations of Canadian culture will warrant the presence of the monarch,[153] while other royals will be asked to participate in lesser occasions. A household to assist and tend to the monarch forms part of the royal party.

Official duties involve the sovereign representing the Canadian state at home or abroad, or her relations as



Prince Charles and Camilla, Duchess of Cornwall, arrive at The Carlu in Toronto, Ontario, November 2009

members of the Royal Family participating in government organized ceremonies either in Canada or elsewhere.[n 16][171][172][173][174] The advice of the Canadian Cabinet is the impetus for royal participation in any Canadian event, though, at present, the Chief of Protocol and his staff in the Department of Canadian Heritage are, as part of the State Ceremonial and Canadian Symbols Program,[175][176] responsible for orchestrating any official events in or for Canada that involve the Royal Family.[177] Conversely, *unofficial duties* are performed by Royal Family members on behalf of Canadian organizations of which they may be patrons, through their attendance at charity events, visiting with members of the Canadian Forces as colonel-in-chief, or marking certain key anniversaries.[171][174] The invitation and expenses associated with these undertakings are usually borne by the associated organization.[171] In 2005 members of the Royal Family were present at a total of 76 Canadian engagements, as well as several more through 2006 and 2007.[178]

Apart from Canada, the Queen and other members of the Royal Family regularly perform public duties in the other fifteen nations of the Commonwealth in which the Queen is head of state. This situation, however, can mean the monarch and/or members of the Royal Family will be promoting one nation and not another; a situation that has been met with criticism.[n 17]

Symbols, associations, and awards

Main article: Canadian royal symbols

The main symbol of the monarchy is the sovereign herself, described as "the personal expression of the Crown in Canada,"[180] and her image is thus used to signify Canadian sovereignty and government authority — her effigy, for instance, appearing on currency, and her portrait in government buildings.[89] The sovereign is further both mentioned in and the subject of songs, loyal toasts, and salutes.[181] A royal cypher, appearing on buildings and official seals, or a crown, seen on provincial and national coats of arms, as well as police force and Canadian Forces regimental and maritime badges and rank insignia, is also used to illustrate the monarchy as the locus of authority,[182] the latter without referring to any specific monarch.



The badge of the Royal Canadian Navy, bearing at its apex a St. Edward's Crown, indicating the sovereign as the navy's source of authority

Since the days of King Louis XIV,[183] the monarch is the fount of all honours in Canada and new orders,[183][184] decorations, and medals, which form "an integral element of the Crown,"[183] may only be created with the approval of the sovereign through letters patent. Hence, the insignia and medallions for these awards bear a crown, cypher, and/or effigy of the monarch. Similarly, the country's heraldic authority was created by the Queen and, operating under the authority of the governor general, grants new coats of arms, flags, and badges in Canada. Use of the royal crown in such symbols is a gift from the monarch showing royal support and/or association, and requires her approval before being added.[182]



An equestrian statue of Edward VII in Queen's Park, Toronto

Members of the Royal Family also act as ceremonial Colonels-in-Chief of various military regiments, reflecting the Crown's relationship with the armed forces through participation in events both at home and abroad.[n 18] The monarch also serves as the Honorary Commissioner of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police.[185]

A number of Canadian civilian organizations have association with the monarchy, either through their being founded via a royal charter, having been granted the right to use the prefix *royal* before their name, or because at least one member of the Royal Family serves as a patron. Some charities and volunteer organizations have also been founded as gifts to, or in honour of, some of Canada's monarchs or members of the Royal Family, such as the Victorian Order of Nurses (a gift to Queen Victoria for her Diamond Jubilee in 1897), the Canadian Cancer Fund (set up in honour of King George V's Silver Jubilee in 1935), and the Queen Elizabeth II Fund to Aid in Research on the Diseases of Children. A number of awards in Canada are likewise issued in the name of previous or present members of the Royal Family. Further, organizations will give commemorative gifts to members of the Royal Family to mark a visit or other important occasion.

Canadian Royal Family

The **Canadian Royal Family** is a group of people related to the monarch of Canada.[186] There is no strict legal or formal definition of who is or is not a member of the group, though the Department of Canadian Heritage maintains a list of immediate members and the Department of National Defence stipulates that those in the direct line of succession who bear the style of *Royal Highness* (*Altesse Royale*) are subjects of,[187][188] and owe their allegiance to, the reigning sovereign specifically as king or queen of Canada.[189] This entitles them to Canadian consular assistance and to the protection of the Queen's armed forces of Canada when they are outside of the Commonwealth realms and in need of protection or aid.[189]



The Canadian Royal Family gathers in Brome Lake, Quebec, 1976 (left to right: the Duke of Edinburgh, Princess Anne, Mark Phillips, Prince Edward, the Queen, Prince Andrew, and Charles, Prince of Wales

Given the shared nature of the Canadian monarch, most members of the Canadian Royal Family are also members of the British Royal Family, and thus the House of Windsor. As such, they are the distant relations of the Belgian, Danish, Greek, Norwegian, Spanish, and Swedish Royal Families, and bear lineage from, amongst others, Arab, Armenian, Cuman, French, German, Hungarian, Italian, Mongolian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Serbian, and Swedish ethnicities,[190] as well as, according to Moroccan and Chinese officials, respectively, being directly descended from the Prophet Muhammad and Tang Dynasty Chinese Emperors.[191] However, because Canada and the UK are independent of one another, it is incorrect to refer in the Canadian context to the family of the monarch as the "British Royal Family"[192] — as is frequently done by Canadian and other media[193][194] — and there exist some differences between the official lists of each: for instance, while he never held the style *His Royal Highness*, Angus Ogilvy was included in the Department of Canadian Heritage's royal family list, but was not considered a member of the British Royal Family.[195] Additionally, unlike in the United Kingdom, the monarch is the only member of the Royal Family in Canada with

a title established through law; it would be possible for others to be granted distinctly Canadian titles (as is the case for the Duke of Rothesay in Scotland), but they have always been, and continue to only be, accorded the use of a courtesy title, which is that they have been granted via letters patent in the United Kingdom, though they are also in Canada translated to French.[n 19]



Prince William, Duke of Cambridge, and Catherine, Duchess of Cambridge, at the Canada Day celebrations in Ottawa, 1 July 2011

Though the group is predominantly based in the United Kingdom, the sovereign and those amongst her relations who do not meet the requirements of Canadian citizenship law are still considered Canadian;[196][197] as early as 1959, it was recognized that the Queen was "equally at home in all her realms."[198] Rather, as legal subjects of the country's monarch,[189] the Royal Family holds a unique position reflected in the confusion that sometimes arises around the awarding of honours to them.[n 20] There are three Canadian citizens within the Canadian Royal Family: Two married into it: In 1988, Sylvana Jones (née Tomaselli in Placentia, Newfoundland) wed the Earl of St. Andrews, a great-grandson of King George V, and, on 18 May 2008, Autumn Kelly, originally from Montreal, married Queen Elizabeth II's eldest grandson, Peter Phillips.[202] In December 2010, Autumn Phillips gave birth to a daughter who held dual Canadian and British citizenship and was, at the time, 12th in line to the throne.[203] Beyond legalities, members of the Royal Family have also, on occasion, declared themselves to be Canadian,[n 20][n 21] and some past members have lived in Canada for extended periods as viceroy or for other reasons.[n 22] Still, the existence of a Canadian Royal Family is contested, mostly by individuals in Canada's republican movement, but also by former Lieutenant Governor of British Columbia Iona Campagnolo.[211] Poet George Elliott Clarke publicly mused about a fully First Nations royal family for Canada.[212]

According to the Canadian Royal Heritage Trust, Prince Edward Augustus, Duke of Kent and Strathearn — due to his having lived in Canada between 1791 and 1800, and fathering Queen Victoria — is the "ancestor of the modern Canadian Royal Family."[208] Nonetheless, the concept of the Canadian Royal Family did not emerge until after the passage of the Statute of Westminster in 1931, when Canadian officials only began to overtly consider putting the principles of Canada's new status as an independent kingdom into effect.[213] At first, the monarch was the only member of the Royal Family to carry out public ceremonial duties solely on the advice of Canadian ministers; King Edward VIII became the first to do so when in July 1936 he dedicated the Canadian National Vimy Memorial in France — one of his few obligations performed during his short reign.[n 16] Over the decades, however, the monarch's children, grandchildren, cousins, and their respective spouses began to also perform functions at the direction of the Canadian Crown-in-Council, representing the monarch within Canada or abroad. By the 1960s, loyal societies in Canada recognized the Queen's cousin, Princess Alexandra, The Honourable Lady Ogilvy, as a "Canadian princess";[214] but, it was not until October 2002 when the term *Canadian Royal Family* was first used publicly and officially by one of its members: in a speech to the Nunavut legislature at its opening, Queen Elizabeth II stated: "I am proud to be the first member of the Canadian Royal Family to be greeted in Canada's newest territory."[215] At the time of the 2011 royal tour of Prince William, Duke of Cambridge, and Catherine, Duchess of Cambridge, both Michael Valpy, writing for the CBC, and *The Globe and Mail* referred to William as "a prince of Canada"[216][217] and both Canadian and British media were referring to "Canada's royal family" or the "Canadian royal family".[218][219][220]

The press frequently follows the movements of the Royal Family, and can, at times, affect the group's popularity,

which has fluctuated over the years. Mirroring the mood in the United Kingdom, the family's lowest approval was during the mid-1980s to 1990s, when the children of the monarch were enduring their divorces and were the targets of negative tabloid reporting.[n 23]

Federal residences and royal household

Main article: Government Houses of Canada

A number of buildings across Canada are reserved by the Crown for the use of the monarch and her viceroys. The sovereign's principal official residence, as well as that primarily used by the governor general, is Rideau Hall,[222][223][224][225][226][227] located in Ottawa, Ontario,[228] and another residence of the governor general is the Citadelle, in Quebec City. Each of these royal seats holds pieces from the Crown Collection.[229] Further, though neither was ever used for their intended purpose, Hatley Castle in British Columbia was purchased in 1940 by King George VI in Right of Canada to use as his home during the course of World War II,[230] and the Emergency Government Headquarters, built in 1959 at CFS Carp and decommissioned in 1994, included a residential apartment for the sovereign or governor general in the case of a nuclear attack on Ottawa.[231][232]



Rideau Hall, the monarch's principal Canadian residence, though foremostly that of the governor general



The governor general's residence at La Citadelle

Monarchs and members of their family have also owned in a private capacity homes and land in Canada: King Edward VIII owned Bedingfield Ranch, near Pekisko, Alberta;[233] The Marquess of Lorne and Princess Louise owned a cottage on the Cascapédia River in Quebec;[234] and Princess Margaret owned Portland Island between its gifting to her by the Crown in Right of British Columbia in 1958 and her death in 2002, though she offered it back to the Crown on permanent loan in 1966 and the island and surrounding waters eventually became Princess Margaret Marine Park.[235][236]

To assist the Queen in carrying out her official duties on behalf of Canada, she appoints various people to her Canadian household. Along with the Canadian Secretary to the Queen,[177] the monarch's entourage includes two ladies-in-waiting, the Canadian Equerry-in-Waiting to the Queen, the Queen's Police Officer, the Duke of Edinburgh's Police Officer,[237] the Queen's Honorary Physician, the Queen's Honorary Dental Surgeon, and the Queen's Honorary Nursing Officer[238] — the latter three being drawn from the Canadian Forces.[67] There are also three household regiments specifically attached to the Royal Household (the Governor General's Foot Guards, the Governor General's Horse Guards, and the Canadian Grenadier Guards), as well as two chapels royal in Ontario.[239]

History

Main article: History of monarchy in Canada

The Canadian monarchy can trace its ancestral lineage back to the kings of the Angles and the early Scottish

kings, through centuries since parts of the territories that today comprise Canada were claimed by King Henry VII in 1497 and others by King Francis I in 1534; both being blood relatives of the current Canadian monarch. Prime Minister Stephen Harper said of the Crown that it "links us all together with the majestic past that takes us back to the Tudors, the Plantagenets, the Magna Carta, *habeas corpus*, petition of rights, and English common law."[240] Though the first French and British colonizers of Canada interpreted the hereditary nature of some indigenous North American chieftainships as a form of monarchy,[241][242][243] it is generally accepted that Canada has been a territory of a monarch or a monarchy in its own right only since the establishment of New France in the early 17th century;[17] according to historian Jacques Monet, the Canadian Crown is one of the few that have survived through uninterrupted succession since before its inception.[24]


Francis I of France; established colonies in Acadia and Canada, 1534

After the Canadian colonies of France were, via war and treaties, ceded to the British Crown, and the population was greatly expanded by those loyal to George III fleeing north from persecution during and following the American Revolution, British North America was in 1867 confederated by Queen Victoria to form Canada as a kingdom in its own right.[30][93][244] By the end of the First World War, the increased fortitude of Canadian nationalism inspired the country's leaders to push for greater independence from the King in his British Council, resulting in the creation of the uniquely Canadian monarchy through the Statute of Westminster, which was granted Royal Assent in 1931.[245][246] Only five years later, Canada had three successive kings in the space of one year, with the death of George V, the accession and abdication of Edward VIII, and his replacement by George VI.

The latter became in 1939 the first reigning monarch of Canada to tour the country (though previous kings had done so before their accession). As the ease of travel increased, visits by the sovereign and other Royal Family members became more frequent and involved, seeing Queen Elizabeth II officiate at various moments of importance in the nation's history, one being when she proclaimed the country to be fully independent, via constitutional patriation, in 1982.[205] That act is said to have entrenched the monarchy in Canada,[247] due to the stringent requirements, as laid out in the amending formula, that must be met in order to alter the monarchy in any way.[70]

Through the 1960s and 1970s, the rise of Quebec nationalism and changes in Canadian identity created an atmosphere where the purpose and role of the monarchy came into question. Some references to the monarch and the monarchy were removed from the public eye and moves were made by the federal government to constitutionally alter the Crown's place and role in Canada, first by explicit legal amendments and later by subtle attrition impelled by elements of the public service, the Cabinet, and governors general and their staff alike.[110][248] But, provincial and federal ministers, along with loyal national citizen's organizations, ensured that the system remained the same in essence.[249] By 2002, the royal tour and associated fêtes for the Queen's Golden Jubilee proved popular with Canadians across the country,[250][251][252] though Canada's first republican organization since the 1830s was also founded that year. Planning began in 2010 for the celebrations to mark Queen Elizabeth II's Diamond Jubilee in 2012,[253][254] the first such event in Canada since 1897, when Victoria marked her 60th year on the throne.

Debate

To date, outside of academic circles, there has been little national debate on the Canadian monarchy, a subject of which most Canadians are generally unaware.[255] Out of Canada's three most prominent political parties, neither the Liberal Party nor the Conservative Party is officially in favour of abolishing the monarchy (though the latter makes support for constitutional monarchy a founding principle in its policy declaration[256]) and the New Democratic Party (NDP) has no official position on the role of the Crown. Only some Members of Parliament belonging to these parties and the leaders of the Bloc Québécois have made any statements suggesting abolition of the monarchy.[257][258][259] Canada has two special-interest groups representing the debate, who frequently argue the issue in the media: the Monarchist League of Canada and Citizens for a Canadian Republic.[260][261] There are also other organizations that support and advocate for the monarchy, such as the United Empire Loyalists' Association of Canada,[262] the Canadian Royal Heritage Trust,[263] the Orange Order in Canada,[264] and the Friends of the Canadian Crown.[265]

The idea of a uniquely Canadian monarch has been proffered as an alternative,[266] either one descended from the present queen or coming from a First Nations royal house;[22][212][267][268] however, there has been no popular or official support for such a change.

See also

- List of Canadian monarchs
- Current Commonwealth realms
- States headed by Elizabeth II
- Monarchies in the Americas
- List of monarchies

Notes

1. ^ The date of the first establishment a monarchical form of government in parts of the territory which now forms Canada varies: some sources give the year as 1497, when King Henry VII claimed parts of Newfoundland,[12][13] while others put it at 1534, when New France was founded in the name of King Francis I.[14][15][16][17][18]
2. ^ The term was first coined by Governor General The Lord Grey in 1905, when he stated in a telegram to King Edward VII regarding the inauguration of Alberta and Saskatchewan into Confederation: "[each one] a new leaf in Your Majesty's Maple Crown".[25]
3. ^ ***a*** ***b*** On a number of occasions, the sovereign has carried out foreign relations as the representative uniquely of Canada, such as the visits to the United States by King George VI in 1939 and Queen Elizabeth II in 1957.
4. ^ The English Court of Appeal ruled in 1982, while "there is only one person who is the Sovereign within the British Commonwealth... in matters of law and government the Queen of the United Kingdom, for example, is entirely independent and distinct from the Queen of Canada."[28]
5. ^ In 1997, then Prime Minister of the United Kingdom Tony Blair intended to offer a life peerage to Canadian businessman Conrad Black. However, citing the 1919 Nickle Resolution, the Canadian Cabinet advised the Queen not to grant Black such an honour. If Blair had not yielded, the Queen would have been in the situation of having to grant an honour on the advice of her British prime minister and to object to the same as Queen of Canada on the advice of then Canadian Prime Minister Jean Chrétien.
6. ^ Ted McWhinney theorized that failure to make this proclamation would result in an empty throne for Canada, leaving the governor general as full head of state.[59] The proposal was met with criticism from legal experts.[60]
7. ^ For example, Edward VIII was never crowned, yet was undoubtedly king during his short time on the throne.
8. ^ The only Canadian monarch to abdicate, Edward

Grenada

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Grenada (/ɡrɨˈneɪdə/) is an island country and Commonwealth realm consisting of the island of Grenada and six smaller islands at the southern end of the Grenadines in the southeastern Caribbean Sea. Grenada is located northwest of Trinidad and Tobago, northeast of Venezuela, and southwest of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

Grenada is also known as the "Island of Spice" because of the production of nutmeg and mace crops of which Grenada is one of the world's largest exporters. Its size is 344 square kilometres (133 sq mi), with an estimated population of 110,000. Its capital is St. George's. The national bird of Grenada is the critically endangered Grenada Dove.

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History

Main article: History of Grenada

Pre-history and early European contacts

Grenada



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: "Ever Conscious of God We Aspire, Build and Advance as One People"[1]

Anthem: *Hail Grenada*
Royal anthem: *God Save the Queen*



Capital (and largest city)	St. George's 12°03′N 61°45′W
Official language(s)	English
Ethnic groups	82% black, 13% mixed black and European, 5% European and East Indian, and trace of Arawak/Carib[2]
Demonym	Grenadian
Government	Parliamentary democracy under constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor General	Carlyle Glean
- Prime Minister	Tillman Thomas
Legislature	Parliament
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	House of Representatives
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	February 7, 1974
Area	

Grenada was first sighted by Europeans in 1498 during the third voyage of Christopher Columbus to the new world. At the time the indigenous Island Caribs (Kalinago) who lived there called it Camahogne. The Spaniards did not permanently settle on Camahogne. The English failed in their attempt at settlement in 1609.

French colony (1649–1763)

On March 17, 1649, a French expedition of 203 men from Martinique led by Jacques du Parquet founded a permanent settlement on Grenada. Within months this led to conflict with the local islanders which lasted until 1654 when the island was completely subjugated by the French.[4] Those indigenous islanders who survived either left for neighboring islands or retreated to remoter parts of Grenada where they were marginalised—the last distinct communities disappeared during the eighteenth century. Warfare continued during the seventeenth century between the French on Grenada and the Caribs of present day Dominica and St. Vincent and the Grenadines. The French named the new French colony La Grenade, and the economy was initially based on sugar cane and indigo. The French established a capital known as Fort Royal (later St. George). To shelter from hurricanes the French navy would often take refuge in the capital's natural harbour, as no nearby French islands had a natural harbour to compare with that of Fort Royal. The British captured Grenada during the Seven Years' War in 1762.

- Total	344 km^2 (203rd) 132.8 sq mi
- Water (%)	1.6
Population	
- July 12, 2005 estimate	110,000 (185th)
- Density	319.8/km^2 (45th) 828.3/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate
- Total	$1.098 billion[3]
- Per capita	$10,657[3]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$674 million[3]
- Per capita	$6,542[3]
HDI (2007)	▲ 0.813 (high) (74th)
Currency	East Caribbean dollar (XCD)
Time zone	(UTC−4)
- Summer (DST)	(UTC−4)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	GD
Internet TLD	.gd
Calling code	+1-473
[a] 2002 estimate.	

British colony (1763–1950)

Grenada was formally ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. The French re-captured the island during the American War of Independence, after Comte d'Estaing won the bloody land and naval Battle of Grenada in July 1779. However the island was restored to Britain with the Treaty of Versailles in 1783. Britain was hard pressed to overcome a pro-French revolt in 1795–1796 led by Julien Fedon.

Nutmeg was introduced to Grenada in 1843 when a merchant ship called in on its way to England from the East Indies. The ship had a small quantity of nutmeg trees on board which they left in Grenada, and this was the beginning of Grenada's nutmeg industry that now supplies nearly forty percent of the world's annual crop.[5]

In 1877 Grenada was made a Crown colony. Theophilus A. Marryshow founded the Representative Government Association (RGA) in 1917 to agitate for a new and participative constitutional dispensation for the Grenadian people. Partly as a result of Marryshow`s lobbying, the Wood Commission of 1921–1922 concluded that Grenada was ready for constitutional reform in the form of a 'modified' Crown colony government. This modification granted Grenadians the right to elect 5 of the 15 members of the Legislative Council, on a restricted property franchise enabling the wealthiest 4% of adult Grenadians to vote.[6]

Towards independence (1950–1974)


The capital St. George's.

In 1950 Eric Gairy founded the Grenada United Labour Party, initially as a trades union, which led the 1951 general strike for better working conditions. This sparked great unrest—so many buildings were set ablaze that the disturbances became known as the 'red sky' days—and the British authorities had to call in military reinforcements to help regain control of the situation. On October 10, 1951, Grenada held its first general elections on the basis of universal adult suffrage [7]- Eric Gairy's Grenada United Labour Party won 6 of the 8 seats contested.[7] From 1958 to 1962 Grenada was part of the Federation of the West Indies.

On March 3, 1967, Grenada was granted full autonomy over its internal affairs as an Associated State. Herbert Blaize was the first Premier of the Associated State of Grenada from March to August 1967. Eric Gairy served as Premier from August 1967 until February 1974.

Independence and revolution (1974–1983)

Independence was granted in 1974 under the leadership of the Premier, Sir Eric Matthew Gairy, who became the first Prime Minister of Grenada.

Civil conflict gradually broke out between Eric Gairy's government and some opposition parties including the New Jewel Movement (NJM). Gairy's party won elections in 1976, but the opposition did not accept the result, accusing it of fraud. In 1979 the New Jewel Movement under Maurice Bishop launched a paramilitary attack on the government resulting in its overthrow.

The constitution was suspended and Bishop's "People's Revolutionary Government" ruled subsequently by decree. Cuban doctors, teachers, and technicians were invited in to help develop health, literacy, and agriculture over the next few years. Agrarian reforms started by the Gairy government were continued and greatly expanded under the revolutionary government of Maurice Bishop.

Invasion by the United States

Main article: Invasion of Grenada


Members of the Eastern Caribbean Defence Force during the Invasion of Grenada

Some years later a dispute developed between Bishop and certain high-ranking members of the NJM. Though Bishop cooperated with Cuba and the USSR on various trade and foreign policy issues, he sought to maintain a "non-aligned" status. Bishop had been taking his time making Grenada wholly socialist, encouraging private-sector development in an attempt to make the island a popular tourist destination. Hardline Marxist party members, including Communist Deputy Prime Minister Bernard Coard, deemed Bishop insufficiently revolutionary and demanded that he either step down or enter into a power-sharing arrangement.

On October 19, 1983, Bernard Coard and his wife Phyllis, backed by the Grenadian Army, led a coup against the government of Maurice Bishop and placed Bishop under house arrest. These actions led to street demonstrations in various parts of the island. Bishop had enough support from the population that he was eventually freed after a demonstration in the capital. When Bishop attempted to resume power, he was captured and executed by soldiers along with seven others, including government cabinet ministers. The Coard regime then put the island under martial law.

After the execution of Bishop, the People's Revolutionary Army formed a military government with General Hudson Austin as chairman. The army declared a four-day total curfew, during which (it said) anyone leaving their home without approval would be shot on sight.[8]

The overthrow of a moderate government by one which was strongly pro-communist worried U.S. President Ronald Reagan. Particularly concerning was the presence of Cuban construction workers and military personnel who were building a 10,000-foot (3,000 m) airstrip on Grenada. Bishop had stated the purpose of the airstrip was to allow commercial jets to land, but U.S. military analysts argued that the only reason for constructing such a long and reinforced runway was so that it could be used by heavy military transport planes. The contractors, American and European companies, and the EEC, which provided partial funding, all claimed the airstrip did not have military capabilities.[9] Reagan was worried that Cuba – under the direction of the Soviet Union – would use Grenada as a refueling stop for Cuban and Soviet airplanes loaded with weapons destined for Central American communist insurgents.[10]

On October 25 combined forces from the United States and from the Regional Security System (RSS) based in Barbados invaded Grenada in an operation codenamed *Operation Urgent Fury*. The U.S. stated this was done at the behest of Dame Eugenia Charles of Dominica. While the Governor-General Sir Paul Scoon later stated that he had also requested the invasion, it was highly criticised by head of state HM Queen Elizabeth II[*citation needed*] and the governments of Britain, Trinidad and Tobago and Canada. The United Nations General Assembly condemned it as "a flagrant violation of international law" by a vote of 108 in favor to 9, with 27 abstentions.[11][12] The United Nations Security Council considered a similar resolution, which failed to pass when vetoed by the United States.[*citation needed*]

After the invasion of the island nation, the pre-revolutionary Grenadian constitution came into operation once again. Eighteen members of the PRG and the PRA (army) were arrested after the invasion on charges related to the murder of Maurice Bishop and seven others. The eighteen included the top political leadership of Grenada at the time of the execution as well as the entire military chain of command directly responsible for the operation that led to the executions. Fourteen were sentenced to death, one was found not guilty and three were sentenced to forty-five years in prison. The death sentences were eventually commuted to terms of imprisonment. Those in prison have become known as the Grenada 17.

Grenada since 1983

When U.S. troops withdrew from Grenada in December 1983, Nicholas Brathwaite of the National Democratic Congress was appointed prime minister of an interim administration by the Scoon until elections could be organized. The first democratic elections since 1976 were held in December 1984 and were won by the Grenada National Party under Herbert Blaize who served as prime minister until his death in December 1989. Ben Jones succeeded Blaize as prime minister and served until the March 1990 election, which was won by the National Democratic Congress under Nicholas Brathwaite who returned as prime minister for a second time until he resigned in February 1995. He was succeeded by George Brizan who served until the June 1995 election which was won by the New National Party under Keith Mitchell who went on to win the 1999 and 2003 elections and served for a record 13 years until 2008.

In 2000–2002, much of the controversy of the late 1970s and early 1980s was once again brought into the public consciousness with the opening of the truth and reconciliation commission. The commission was chaired by a Roman Catholic priest, Father Mark Haynes, and was tasked with uncovering injustices arising from the PRA, Bishop's regime, and before. It held a number of hearings around the country. Brother Robert Fanovich, head of Presentation Brothers' College (PBC) in St. George's tasked some of his senior students with conducting a research project into the era and specifically into the fact that Maurice Bishop's body was never discovered.[13]

Paterson also uncovered that there was still a lot of resentment in Grenadian society resulting from the era and a feeling that there were many injustices still unaddressed.

On September 7, 2004, after being hurricane-free for forty-nine years, the island was directly hit by Hurricane Ivan. Ivan struck as a Category 3 hurricane and caused 90% of the homes to be damaged or destroyed. On July 14, 2005, Hurricane Emily, a Category 1 hurricane at the time, struck the northern part of the island with 80-knot (150 km/h; 92 mph) winds, causing an estimated USD $110 million (EC$ 297 million) worth of damage. By December 2005, 96% of all hotel rooms were to be open for business and to have been upgraded in facilities and strengthened to an improved building code.[*citation needed*] The agricultural industry and in particular the nutmeg industry suffered serious losses, but that event has begun changes in crop management and it is hoped that as new nutmeg trees gradually mature, the industry will return to its pre-Ivan position as a major supplier in the Western world.[*citation needed*]

In April 2007, Grenada jointly hosted (along with several other Caribbean nations) the 2007 Cricket World Cup. The island's prime minister was CARICOM Representative on cricket and was instrumental in having the World Cup Games brought to the region. After Hurricane Ivan, the government of the People's Republic of China (PRC) paid for the new $40 million national stadium and provided the aid of over 300 laborers to build and repair it.[14] During the opening ceremony, the anthem of the Republic of China (ROC, Taiwan) was accidentally played instead of the PRC's anthem, leading to the firing of top officials.[15][16]

The 2008 election was won by the National Democratic Congress under Tillman Thomas.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Grenada



A view of Carriacou. Other Grenadine islands in distance

The island Grenada is the largest island in the Grenadines; smaller islands are Carriacou, Petit Martinique, Ronde Island, Caille Island, Diamond Island, Large Island, Saline Island, and Frigate Island. Most of the population lives on Grenada, and major towns there include the capital, St. George's, Grenville and Gouyave. The largest settlement on the other islands is Hillsborough on Carriacou.



Map of Grenada

The islands are of volcanic origin with extremely rich soil. Grenada's interior is very mountainous with Mount St. Catherine being the highest at 840 m. Several small rivers with beautiful waterfalls flow into the sea from these mountains. The climate is tropical: hot and humid in the rainy season and cooled by the trade winds in the dry season. Grenada, being on the southern edge of the hurricane belt, has suffered only three hurricanes in fifty years.

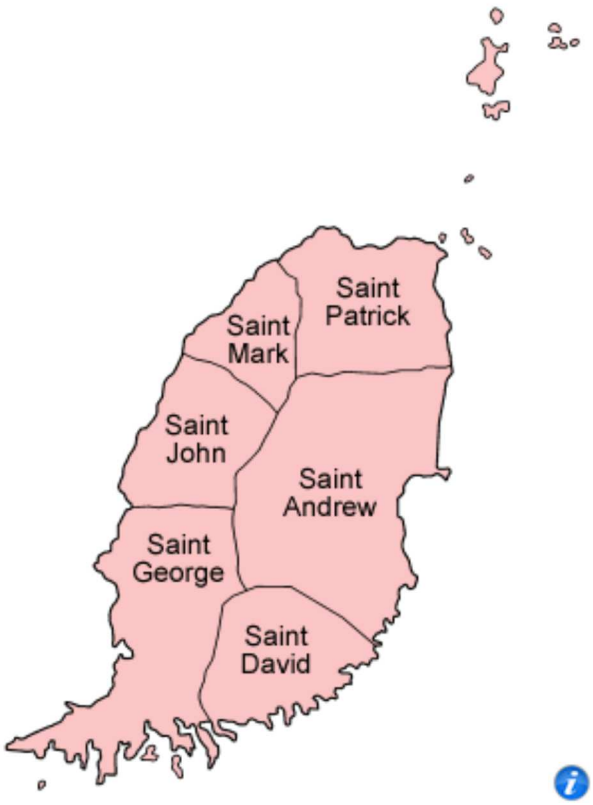
Hurricane Janet passed over Grenada on September 23, 1955, with winds of 185 km/h, causing severe damage. The most recent storms to hit have been Hurricane Ivan on September 7, 2004, causing severe damage and

thirty-nine deaths and Hurricane Emily on July 14, 2005, causing serious damage in Carriacou and in the north of Grenada which had been relatively lightly affected by Hurricane Ivan.

Parishes

Main article: Parishes of Grenada

Grenada is divided into 6 parishes:



Carriacou and Petite Martinique, two of the Grenadines, have the status of dependency.

Politics

Main article: Politics of Grenada

As a Commonwealth realm, Queen Elizabeth II is Queen of Grenada and Head of State. The Crown is represented by a Governor-General, who is currently Carlyle Glean. Day-to-day executive power lies with the Head of Government, the Prime Minister. Although appointed by the Governor-General, the Prime Minister is usually the leader of the largest party in the Parliament.

The Parliament consists of a Senate (thirteen members) and a House of Representatives (fifteen members). The senators are appointed by the government and the opposition, while the representatives are elected by the population for five-year terms. With 51% of the votes and eleven seats in the 2008 election, the National Democratic Congress won the July 8, 2008 election. The opposition New National Party won the remaining four seats.

Grenada is a full and participating member of both the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) and the Organisation

of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS).

The military of Grenada comprises two branches:

- Royal Grenada Police Force, which includes a Special Service Unit
- Coast Guard

Economy and tourism


Nutmeg fruit in mace.

Main article: Economy of Grenada

Economic progress in fiscal reforms and prudent macroeconomic management have boosted annual growth to 5%–6% in 1998–99; the increase in economic activity has been led by construction and trade. Tourist facilities are being expanded; tourism is the leading foreign exchange earner. Major short-term concerns are the rising fiscal deficit and the deterioration in the external account balance. Grenada shares a common central bank and a common currency (the East Caribbean dollar) with seven other members of the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS)[17]

Grenada is a leading producer of several different spices. Cinnamon, cloves, ginger, mace, allspice, orange/citrus peels, wild coffee used by the locals, and especially nutmeg, providing 20% of the world supply, are all important exports. The nutmeg on the nation's flag represents the economic crop of Grenada; the nation is the world's second largest producer of nutmeg (after Indonesia).

Tourism is Grenada's main economic force. Conventional beach and water-sports tourism is largely focused in the southwest region around St George, the airport and the coastal strip; however, ecotourism is growing in significance. Most of these small ecofriendly guesthouses are located in the Saint David and Saint John parishes. You will find a lot of different accommodations from luxury like the Spice Island Beach Resort (http://www.spiceislandbeachresort.com) to small cottages resorts like Mango Bay Cottages (http://www.mangobaygrenada.com) .The tourism industry is increasing dramatically with the construction of a large cruise ship pier and esplanade. Up to 4 cruise ships per day were visiting St. Georges in 2007–2008 during the cruise ship season.


Devastation caused by Hurricane Ivan in Grenada.


Grand Anse Beach, St. George

The island has also pioneered the cultivation of organic cocoa which is also processed into finished bars by the Grenada Chocolate Company.

Tourism is concentrated in the southwest of the island, around St. George, Grand Anse, Lance Aux Epines, and Point Salines. Grenada has many idyllic beaches around its coastline including the 3 km (1.9 mi) long Grand Anse Beach in St George which is considered to be one of the finest beaches in the world and often appears in countdowns of the world's top 10 beaches.[18]

Flights at the Maurice Bishop International Airport connect with other Caribbean islands, the United States, and Europe. There is also a daily fast ferry service between St. George and Hillsborough. Beginning in October 2009 new passenger ferry service between Grenada, Barbados, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, and Trinidad provided by Grenada-based BEDY Ocean Line is scheduled to begin.

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Grenada

A majority of the citizens are descendants of the African slaves brought by the English and French; few of the indigenous Carib and Arawak population survived the French purge at Sauteurs. A small percentage of descendants of indentured workers from India were brought to Grenada mainly from the North Indian states of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh between May 1, 1857 – January 10, 1885. Today, Grenadians of Indian descent comprise the second largest ethnic group (i.e. after Afro-Grenadians). There is also a small community of French and English descendants. The rest of the population is of mixed descent.

Grenada, like many of the Caribbean islands is subject to a large amount of migration, with a large number of young people wanting to leave the island to seek life elsewhere. With 110,000 people living in Grenada, estimates and census data suggest that there are at least that number of Grenadian-born people in other parts of the Caribbean (such as Barbados and Trinidad) and at least that number again in First World countries. Popular migration points for Grenadians further north include New York City, Toronto, the United Kingdom (London and Yorkshire predominantly — see Grenadians in the UK) and sometimes Montreal, or as far south as Australia. This means that probably around a third of those born in Grenada still live there.



A school on Grand Anse beach

The official language, English, is used in the government, but Grenadian Creole is considered the lingua franca of the island. French Patois (Antillean Creole) is also spoken by about 10%–20% the population. Some Hindi/Bhojpuri terms are still spoken amongst the Indian descendants, mostly those pertaining to the kitchen; such as *aloo, geera, karela, seim, chownkay, and baylay.* The term *bhai*, which means 'brother' in Urdu and Hindi, is a common form of greeting amongst Indo-Grenadians males of equal status.

Religion

Religion	Percentage [*citation needed*]
Roman Catholic	53
Anglican	14
Other Protestant	33
Rastafari/Spiritist	1.3
Hindu	0.7
Muslim	0.3
Buddhist	0.2
Baha'i	0.2

Including a small community of Rastafarians living in Grenada, most of the population belong to Christian churches. About half of the population are Roman Catholic; while the largest Protestant denomination is Anglican, with Presbyterian and Seventh Day Adventist taking up much of the remainder. Most churches have denomination-based schools but are open to all. There are a small Hindu and Muslim populations descended mostly from Gujarati Indian immigrants who came during the colonial period and set up merchant shops.

Culture

Main articles: Culture of Grenada and Music of Grenada

See also: Cricket in the West Indies


1965 carnival

Although French influence on Grenadian culture is much less visible than on other Caribbean islands, surnames and place names in French remain, and the every day language is laced with French words and the local dialect or Patois. Stronger French influence is found in the well seasoned spicy food and styles of cooking similar to those found in New Orleans, and some French architecture has survived from the 18th century. Island culture is heavily influenced by the African roots of most of the Grenadians, but Indian and Carib Amerindian influence is also seen with dhal puri, rotis, Indian sweets, cassava and curries in the cuisine.

The "oildown" is considered to be the national dish. The phrase "oil-down" refers to a dish cooked in coconut milk until all the milk is absorbed, leaving a bit of coconut oil in the bottom of the pot. Early recipes call for a mixture of salted pigtail, pigs feet (trotters), salt beef and chicken, dumplings made from flour, provision: breadfruit, green banana, yam and potatoes. Callaloo leaves are some times used to retain the steam and for extra flavour.[19]

Soca, calypso, and reggae set the mood for Grenada's annual Carnival activities. Over the years rap music became famous among Grenadian youths, and there have been numerous young rappers emerging in the islands underground rap scene. Zouk is also being slowly introduced onto the island. The islanders' African and Carib Amerindian heritage plays an influential role in many aspects of Grenada's culture.

As with other islands from the Caribbean, cricket is the national and most popular sport and is an intrinsic part of Grenadian culture.

An important aspect of Grenadian culture is the tradition of story telling, with folk tales bearing both African and French influences. The character, *Anancy*, a spider god who is a trickster, originated in West Africa and is prevalent on other Caribbean islands as well. French influence can be seen in *La Diablesse*, a well-dressed she-devil, and *Ligaroo* (from Loup Garoux), a werewolf.

See also

- Outline of Grenada
- Index of Grenada-related articles
- Caribbean Sea
- International rankings of Grenada
- Windward Islands

Member of

- Commonwealth of Nations
- United Nations

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History of Grenada

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The recorded history of the Caribbean island of Grenada begins in the early 17th century. First settled by indigenous peoples, by the time of European contact it was inhabited by the Caribs. French colonists drove most of the Caribs off the island and established plantations on the island, eventually importing African slaves to work on sugar plantations.

Control of the island was disputed by Great Britain and France in the 18th century, with the British ultimately prevailing. A 1795 slave rebellion inspired by the Haitian Revolution very nearly succeeded, and was crushed with significant military intervention. Slavery was abolished in the 1830s. In 1885 the island became the capital of the British Windward Islands.

Grenada achieved independence from Britain in 1974. Following a leftist coup in 1983, the island was invaded by U. S. troops and a democratic government was reinstated. The island's major crop, nutmeg, was significantly damaged by Hurrican Ivan in 2004.

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Early history

About 2 million years ago Grenada was formed as an underwater volcano. Before the arrival of Europeans, Grenada, was inhabited by Carib Indians who had driven the more peaceful Arawaks from the island. Columbus sighted Grenada in 1498 during his third voyage to the new world. He named the island "Concepcion." The origin of the name "Grenada" is obscure, but it is likely that Spanish sailors renamed the island for the city of Granada. By the beginning of the 18th century, the name "Grenada", or "la Grenade" in French, was in common use. Partly because of the Caribs, Grenada remained uncolonized for more than one hundred years after its discovery.

17th century

English attempted settlement

In April 1609 the first attempt at settlement by Europeans was made by an English expedition of 204 adventurers led by Messrs Godfrey, Hall, Lull, and Robinson, who arrived in the ships *Diana*, the *Penelope*, and the *Endeavour*. The settlement was attacked and destroyed by the indigenous islanders and many killed. The few survivors were evacuated when the ships returned on 15 December 1609.[1]

French settlement and conquest

On 17 March 1649 a French expedition of 203 men from Martinique, led by Jacques Dyel du Parquet who had been the Governor of Martinique on behalf of the Compagnie des Iles de l'Amerique (Company of the Isles of America) since 1637, landed at St. Georges Harbour and constructed a fortified settlement, which they named Fort Annunciation.[2] A treaty was swiftly agreed between du Parquet and the indigenous Chief Kairouane to peacefully partition the island between the two communities.[3] Du Parquet returned to Martinique leaving his cousin Jean Le Comte as Governor of Grenada.[4] Conflict broke out between the French and the indigenous islanders in November 1649 and fighting lasted for five years until 1654, when the last opposition to the French on Grenada was crushed - although the island continued for some time after to suffer raids by war canoe parties from St. Vincent, who had aided the local Grenadan islanders in their struggle and continued to oppose the French.[5]

French administration

On 27th Sep 1650 du Parquet bought Grenada, Martinique, and St. Lucia from the Compagnie des Iles de l'Amerique (Company of the Isles of America), as it was dissolved, for the equivalent of £1160.[4] In 1657 du Parquet sold Grenada to the Comte de Cerrillac for the equivalent of £1890.[6] In 1664 King Louis XIV bought out the independent island owners and established the French West India Company.[7] In 1674 the French West India Company was dissolved and Grenada became a French Colony rather than a piece of private property in the hands of Companies of Frenchmen.[7]

In 1675 Grenada was captured by Dutch Privateers, but luckily for the French, a French man-of-war arrived unexpectedly, and the island was recaptured.[8]

18th century

French colony

In 1700 Grenada had a population of 257 whites, 53 coloureds, and 525 slaves. There were 3 sugar estates, 52 indigo plantations, 64 horses, and 569 head of cattle.[9] Between 1705 and 1710 the French built Fort Royal at St. George's which is now know as Fort George.[10] The collapse of the sugar estates and the introduction of cocoa and coffee in 1714 encouraged the development of smaller land holdings, and the island developed a land-owning yeoman farmer class.[11] In 1738 the first hospital was constructed[11]

British colony

Grenada was captured by the British during the Seven Years' War on 4 March 1762 by Commodore Swanton without a shot being fired. Grenada was formally ceded to the Britain by the Treaty of Paris on 10 February 1763. In 1766 the island was rocked by a severe earthquake. In 1767 a slave uprising had to be put down. In 1771 and again in 1775 the town of St. George, which was constructed solely of wood, was burnt to the ground - after which it was sensibly rebuilt using stone and brick.[12] France recaptured Grenada during the American War of Independence, after Comte d'Estaing stormed Hospital Hill, and held off British relief in the naval Battle of Grenada from 2–6 July 1779. However the island was restored to Britain with the Treaty of Versailles four years later on 3 September 1783. In 1784 the first newspaper, the *Grenada Chronicle*, began publication.[11]

Fedons Rebellion

Julien Fedon, a mixed race owner of the Belvedere estate in the St. John Parish, launched a rebellion against British rule on the night of 2nd March 1795, with coordinated attacks on the towns of Grenville, La Baye and Gouyave. Fedon was clearly influenced by the ideas emerging from the French Revolution especially the Convention's abolition of slavery in 1794 - he stated that he intended to make Grenada a "Black Republic just like Haiti". Fedon and his troops controlled all of Grenada except the parish of St George's, the seat of government, between March 1795 and June 1796. During those insurgent months 14,000 of Grenada's 28,000 slaves joined the revolutionary forces in order to write their own emancipation and transform themselves into "citizens"; some 7,000 of these self-liberated slaves would perish in the name of freedom.[13] Fedon's forces were defeated by the British in late 1796, but Fedon himself was never caught and his fate is unknown.

19th century

Early 19th century

In 1833, Grenada became part of the British Windward Islands Administration and remained so until 1958. Slavery was abolished in 1834. Nutmeg was introduced in 1843, when a merchant ship called in on its way to England from the East Indies.[14]



ST. GEORGE, GRENADA.

Late 19th century

In 1857 the first East Indian immigrants

St. George, Grenada. 1890s

arrived.[11] In 1871 Grenada was connected to the telegraph. In 1872 the first secondary school was built.On 3 December 1877 Grenada's old representative system of government was replaced by the pure Crown Colony model.[15] On the 3rd of December 1882, the largest wooden jetty ever built in Grenada was opened in Gouyave. In 1885, after Barbados left the British Windward Islands, the capital of the colonial confederation was moved from Bridgetown to St. George on Grenada. From 1889-1894 the 340 foot Sendall Tunnel was built for horse carriages.

Last colonial years 1900-1974

Early 20th century

Theophilus A. Marryshow founded the Representative Government Association (RGA) in 1917 to agitate for a new and participative constitutional dispensation for the Grenadian people. Partly as a result of Marryshow's lobbying the Wood Commission of 1921-1922 concluded that Grenada was ready for constitutional reform in the form of a 'modified' Crown Colony government. This modification granted Grenadians from 1925 the right to elect 5 of the 15 members of the Legislative Council, on a restricted property franchise enabling the wealthiest 4% of Grenadian adults to vote.[15] In 1928 electricity was installed in St. George's.[11] In 1943 Pearls Airport was opened.[11] On 5 August 1944 the *Island Queen* schooner disappeared with the loss of all 56 passengers and 11 crew.[11]

Towards independence:1950-1974

In 1950 Grenada had its constitution amended to increase the number of elected seats on the Legislative Council from 5 to 8, to be elected by full adult franchise at the 1951 election. In 1950 Eric Gairy founded the Grenada United Labour Party, initially as a trades union, which led the 1951 general strike for better working conditions, this sparked great unrest - so many buildings were set ablaze that the disturbances became known as the 'red sky' days - and the British authorities had to call in military reinforcements to help regain control of the situation. On 10 October 1951 Grenada held its first general elections on the basis of universal adult suffrage[16]- United Labour won 6 of the 8 elected seats on the Legislative Council in both the 1951 and 1954 elections.[16] However the Legislative Council had few powers at this time, with government remaining fully in the hands of the colonial authorities.

On 22 September 1955 Hurricane Janet hit Grenada killing 500 people and destroying 75% of the nutmeg trees. A new political party, the Grenada National Party led by Herbert Blaize, contested the 1957 general election and with the cooperation of elected independent members took control of the Legislative Council from the Grenada United Labour Party. In 1958, the Windward Islands Administration was dissolved, and Grenada joined the Federation of the West Indies.

In 1960 another constitutional evolution established the post of Chief Minister, making the leader of the majority party in the Legislative Council, which at that time was Herbert Blaize, effective head of government. In March 1961 the Grenada United Labour Party won the general election and George E.D. Clyne became chief minister until Eric Gairy was elected in a by-election and took the role in August 1961. Also in 1961 the cruise liner MV *Bianca C* (2) sank off Point Salines, although thankfully there was only a single fatality. In April 1962 Grenada's Administrator, the Queens representative on the island, James Lloyd suspended the constitution, dissolved the Legislative Council, and removed Eric Gairy as Chief Minister, following allegations concerning the Gairy's financial impropriety. At the 1962 general election the Grenada National Party won a majority and

Herbert Blaize became Chief Minister for the second time.

After the Federation of the West Indies collapsed in 1962, the British government tried to form a small federation out of its remaining dependencies in the Eastern Caribbean. Following the failure of this second effort, the British and the islanders developed the concept of "associated statehood". Under the Associated Statehood Act on 3 March 1967 Grenada was granted full autonomy over its internal affairs. Herbert Blaize was the first Premier of the Associated State of Grenada from March to August 1967. Eric Gairy served as Premier from August 1967 until February 1974, as the Grenada United Labour Party party won majorities in both the 1967 and 1972 general elections.

Independence, Revolution and US invasion: 1974-1983

Independence

On 7 February 1974 Grenada became a fully independent state. Grenada continued to practise a modified Westminster parliamentary system based on the British model with a governor general appointed by and representing the British monarch (head of state) and a prime minister who is both leader of the majority party and the head of government. Eric Gairy was independent Grenada's first prime minister serving from 1974 until his overthrow in 1979. Gairy won re-election in Grenada's first general election as an independent state in 1976; however, the opposition New Jewel Movement refused to recognize the result, claiming the poll was fraudulent, and so began working towards the overthrow of the Gairy regime by revolutionary means.

The 1979 coup and revolutionary government

On March 13, 1979, the New Jewel Movement launched an armed revolution which removed Gairy, suspended the constitution, and established a People's Revolutionary Government (PRG), headed by Maurice Bishop who declared himself prime minister. His Marxist-Leninist government established close ties with Cuba, Nicaragua, and other communist bloc countries. All political parties except for the New Jewel Movement were banned and no elections were held during the four years of PRG rule.

The 1983 coups

On 14 October 1983, a power struggle within the government resulted in the house arrest of Bishop at the order of his Deputy Prime Minister, Bernard Coard who became Head of Government. This coup resulted in demonstrations in various parts of the island which eventually led to Bishop being freed from arrest briefly, before being recaptured by the army and executed along with seven others, including members of the cabinet on 19 October 1983.

On 19 October 1983 the military under Hudson Austin took power in a second coup and formed a military government to run the country. A four-day total curfew was declared under which any civilian outside their home was subject to summary execution.

Invasion

Main article: Invasion of Grenada

A U.S.-Caribbean force landed on Grenada on October 25, 1983 in an action called *Operation Urgent Fury*. This action was taken in response to an appeal obtained from the governor general and to a request for assistance from the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States, without consulting the island's head of state, Queen Elizabeth

II, Commonwealth institutions or other usual diplomatic channels (as had been done in Anguilla). Furthermore, United States government military strategists feared that Soviet use of the island would enable the Soviet Union to project tactical power over the entire Caribbean region. U.S. citizens were evacuated, and constitutional government was resumed.

Seventeen members of the PRG and the PRA (army) were convicted by a court. Fourteen were sentenced to death for actions related to the overthrow of the Bishop government and the murder of several persons including Bishop. The sentences were eventually commuted to life imprisonment after an international campaign. Another three were sentenced to forty five years in prison. These seventeen have become known as the Grenada 17, and are the subject of an ongoing international campaign for their release. In October 2003 Amnesty International issued a report which stated that their trial had been a miscarriage of justice. The seventeen have protested their sentences consistently since 1983. After the invasion, United States gave $48.4 million in economic assistance to Grenada in 1984.

Democracy restored: 1983 to present day

Post liberation politics

When US troops withdew from Grenada in December 1983 Nicholas Braithwaite of the National Democratic Congress was appointed Prime Minister of an interim administration by the Governor General Sir Paul Scoon until elections could be organised.

The first democratic elections since 1976 were held in December 1984 and were won by the Grenada National Party under Herbert Blaize who won 14 out of 15 seats in elections and served as Prime Minister until his death in December 1989. The NNP continued in power until 1989 but with a reduced majority. Five NNP parliamentary members, including two cabinet ministers, left the party in 1986-87 and formed the National Democratic Congress (NDC) which became the official opposition. In August 1989, Prime Minister Blaize broke with the GNP to form another new party, The National Party (TNP), from the ranks of the NNP. This split in the NNP resulted in the formation of a minority government until constitutionally scheduled elections in March 1990. Prime Minister Blaize died in December 1989 and was succeeded as prime minister by Ben Jones until after the 1990 elections.

The National Democratic Congress emerged from the 1990 elections as the strongest party, winning 7 of the fifteen available seats. Nicholas Brathwaite added 2 TNP members and 1 member of the Grenada United Labor Party (GULP) to create a 10-seat majority coalition. The governor general appointed him to be prime minister for a second time. Braithwaite resigned in Feb 1995 and was succeeded as Prime Minister by George Brizan who served until the Jun 1995 election.

In parliamentary elections on 20 June 1995 the NNP won 8 of the 15 seats and formed a government headed by Keith Mitchell. The NNP maintained and affirmed its hold on power when it took all 15 parliamentary seats in the January 1999 elections. Mitchell went on to win the 2003 elections with a reduced majority of 8 of the 15 seats and served as Prime Minister for a record 13 years until his defeat in 2008.

The 2008 election was won by the National Democratic Congress under Tillman Thomas with 11 of the 15 seats.[17]

Truth and reconciliation commission

In 2000–02 much of the controversy of the late 1970s and early 1980s was once again brought into the public consciousness with the opening of the truth and reconciliation commission. The commission was chaired by a

Catholic priest, Father Mark Haynes, and was tasked with uncovering injustices arising from the PRA, Bishop's regime, and before. It held a number of hearings around the country. The commission was formed, bizarrely, because of a school project. Brother Robert Fanovich, head of Presentation Brothers' College (PBC) in St. George's tasked some of his senior students with conducting a research project into the era and specifically into the fact that Maurice Bishop's body was never discovered. Their project attracted a great deal of attention, including from the *Miami Herald* and the final report was published in a book written by the boys called *Big Sky, Little Bullet*. It also uncovered that there was still a lot of resentment in Grenadian society resulting from the era, and a feeling that there were many injustices still unaddressed. The commission began shortly after the boys concluded their project.

Hurricane Ivan

On September 7, 2004, Grenada was hit directly by category four Hurricane Ivan. The hurricane destroyed about 85% of the structures on the island, including the prison and the prime minister's residence, killed thirty nine people, and destroyed most of the nutmeg crop, Grenada's main economic mainstay. Grenada's economy was set back several years by Hurricane Ivan's impact. Hurricane Emily ravaged the island's north end in June 2005.

See also

- British colonization of the Americas
- French colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of the British West Indies
- History of North America
- History of the Caribbean
- List of heads of government of Grenada
- List of Governors of the British Windward Islands
- Politics of Grenada
- Spanish colonization of the Americas
- West Indies Federation

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Notes

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3. ^ Steele, page 39
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9. ^ Steele, page 59
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12. ^ Steele, page 72
13. ^ [3] (http://bigdrumnation.org/notes/fedonrebellion.html)
14. ^ [4] (http://www.travelgrenada.com/gcna.htm)
15. ^ ***a*** ***b*** [5] (http://www.bigdrumnation.org/comments/crowncolony.html)
16. ^ ***a*** ***b*** http://www.bigdrumnation.org/comments/1stgeneralelection.html
17. ^ "New Grenada prime minister vows to boost economy, lower cost of living" (http://web.archive.org/web/20080804055052/http://www.iht.com/articles/ap/2008/07/09/news/CB-POL-Grenada-Elections.php) . Associated Press via *International Herald Tribune*. July 9, 2008. Archived from the original (http://www.iht.com/articles/ap/2008/07/09/news/CB-POL-Grenada-Elections.php) on 2008-08-04. http://web.archive.org/web/20080804055052/http://www.iht.com/articles/ap/2008/07/09/news/CB-POL-Grenada-Elections.php. Retrieved 2011-07-31.

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Monarchy of Grenada

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Grenada** (the **Grenadian monarchy**) is a system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign of the Grenadas. The present monarch of Grenada is Queen Elizabeth II[1]. Grenada share the Sovereign with a number of Commonwealth realms[1] The Queen's constitutional roles are mostly delegated to the Governor-General of Grenada. Royal succession is governed by the English Act of Settlement of 1701, which is part of constitutional law.

Queen of Grenada

MONARCHY



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	February 7, 1974

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  - 5.2 Other
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International and domestic role

One of the most complicated features of the Grenadian Monarchy is that it is a shared monarchy.

54 states are members of the Commonwealth of Nations. Sixteen of these countries are specifically Commonwealth realms who recognise, individually, the same person as their Monarch and Head of State; Grenada is one of these.[2] Despite sharing the same person as their respective national monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms — including Grenada — is sovereign and independent of the others.

Development of shared monarchy

The Balfour Declaration of 1926 provided the dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of, in theory, a shared Crown that operates independently in each realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the dominions were secondary. The Monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, legal, and of convenience. The Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act 1927 was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the Statute of Westminster 1931.

Under the Statute of Westminster, Grenada has a common monarchy with Britain and the other Commonwealth realms, and though laws governing the line of succession to the Grenadian throne lie within the control of the Grenadian Parliament, Grenada cannot change the rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship by means of a constitutional amendment. This situation applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the UK.

On all matters of the Grenadian State, the Monarch is advised solely by Grenadian ministers.

Title

In Grenada, the Queen's official title is: *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Grenada and Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*.

This style communicates Grenada's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the Monarch's role specifically as Queen of Grenada, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms. Typically, the Sovereign is styled "Queen of Grenada," and is addressed as such when in Grenada, or performing duties on behalf of Grenada abroad.

Constitutional role

The role of the Sovereign's representative, the Governor-general, is determined by the Constitution of Grenada (1973) and the constitutional conventions of the Westminster system of parliamentary government.[3] The Governor-general is appointed by the Monarch upon the advice of the Prime Minister of Grenada. The Monarch is informed of the Prime Minister's decision before the Governor General gives Royal Assent. The power to appoint the Prime Minister and other constitutional powers are exclusively vested in the Governor General and not the Queen herself. As such, the Queen herself does not excerise reserve powers.

Duties

Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by the Governor General. The Governor-General represents the Queen on ceremonial occasions such as the opening of Parliament, the presentation of honours and military parades. Under the Constitution, he is given authority to act in some matters, for example in appointing and disciplining officers of the civil service, in proroguing Parliament. As in the other Commonwealth realms, however, the Monarch's role, and thereby the vice-regent's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments operate, and the powers that are constitutionally hers are exercised almost wholly upon the advice of the Cabinet, made up of Ministers of the Crown. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". In exceptional circumstances, however, the Monarch or vice-regal can act against such advice based upon his or her reserve powers.

There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by the Queen. These include: signing the appointment papers of Governors General, the confirmation of awards of honours, and approving any change in her title.

It is also possible that if the Governor General decided to go against the Prime Minister's or the government's advice, the Prime Minister could appeal directly to the Monarch, or even recommend that the Monarch dismiss the Governor General.

Succession



Charles, Prince of Wales, the current heir to the throne of Grenada

Succession to the throne is by male-preference primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, as well as the English Bill of Rights. These documents, though originally passed by the Parliament of England, are now part of the Grenadian constitutional law, under control of the Grenadian parliament only.

This legislation lays out the rules that the Monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As Grenada's laws governing succession are currently identical to those of the United Kingdom (by the *Statute of Westminster*) see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, who has no official title outside of the UK, but is accorded his UK title, Prince of Wales, as a courtesy title.

Legal role

All laws in Grenada are enacted with the sovereign's, or the vice-regal's signature. The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it and proclamation are required for all acts of Parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor General. The Vice-Regals may reserve a bill for the Monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the Monarch to make a personal decision on the bill. The Monarch has the power to disallow a bill (within a time limit specified by the constitution).

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects. The Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the Monarch personally are not cognizable. The Sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In Grenada the legal personality of the State is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Grenada." For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Grenada. The monarch as an individual takes no more role in such an affair than in any other business of government.

1983 invasion of Grenada

Sir Paul Scoon was Governor General of Grenada from 1978 until 1992, a period which included the 1979 Grenadian Revolution and the subsequent People's Revolutionary Government led by Maurice Bishop's New Jewel Movement from 1979 to 1983 which culminated in the 1983 American led invasion of Grenada. Operation Urgent Fury was launched by US forces in 1983 and deposed the radical elements of the New Jewel Movement which had detained and then killed Prime Minister Bishop and assumed control of the government under the leadership of Bernard Coard. Prior to the invasion Scoon communicated with the leaders of several other Caribbean nations, who had been encouraging the US to invade Grenada and depose Coard. Endorsing the move, Scoon also communicated with the British and American governments, though he was later criticized for having insufficient communication with the Margaret Thatcher administration in London, and Queen Elizabeth II, Grenada's head of state.

Jamaica

Coordinates: 18°10′57″N 77°19′18″W

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Jamaica /dʒəˈmeɪkə/ is an island nation of the Greater Antilles, 234 kilometres (145 mi) in length, up to 80 kilometres (50 mi) in width and 10,990 square kilometres (4,243 sq mi) in area. It is situated in the Caribbean Sea, about 145 kilometres (90 mi) south of Cuba, and 191 kilometres (119 mi) west of Hispaniola, the island harbouring the nation-states of Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Its indigenous Arawakan-speaking Taíno inhabitants named the island *Xaymaca*, meaning the "Land of Wood and Water", or the "Land of Springs".[4]

Once a Spanish possession known as *Santiago*, in 1655 it became an English, and later a British, colony, known as "Jamaica". It achieved full independence on August 6, 1962.[5] With 2.8 million people, it is the third most populous anglophone country in the Americas, after the United States and Canada. It remains a Commonwealth realm in concert with the Monarchy of Jamaica holding ultimate executive power, where Queen Elizabeth II is the current head of state and Queen of Jamaica.[6][7][8] Kingston is the country's largest city and the capital.[9]

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- 2 Government and politics
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- 3 Geography and environment
  - 3.1 Flora and fauna
- 4 Demographics
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  - 4.2 Language
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- 5 Religion
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- 7 Sport
- 8 Education
- 9 Economy
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    - 10.1.1 Roadways

Commonwealth of Jamaica	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: "Out of Many, One People"	
Anthem: "Jamaica, Land We Love" **Royal anthem:** "God Save the Queen"	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Kingston 17°59′N 76°48′W
Official language(s)	English / Patois
Demonym	Jamaican
Government	Parliamentary democracy and Constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor-General	Patrick Allen
- Prime Minister	Portia Simpson-Miller
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	6 August 1962
Area	
- Total	10,991 km^2 (166th) 4,244 sq mi
- Water (%)	1.5
Population	
- July 2010 estimate	2,847,232[1] (133rd)
- Density	252/km^2 (49th) 656/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate

- 10.1.2 Railways
- 10.2 Air transport
  - 10.2.1 Ports, shipping and lighthouses
- 10.3 Energy
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- Total	$23.716 billion[2]
- Per capita	$8,727[2]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$13.694 billion[2]
- Per capita	$5,039[2]
Gini (2000)	37.9 (medium)
HDI (2010)	▲ 0.688[3] (high) (80th)
Currency	Jamaican dollar (JMD)
Time zone	(UTC-5)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	JM
Internet TLD	.jm
Calling code	+1-876

History

Main articles: History of Jamaica and Spanish occupation of Santiago (Jamaica)

The Arawak and Taino indigenous people, originating in South America, settled on the island between 4000 and 1000 BC.[10] When Christopher Columbus arrived in 1494, there were over 200 villages ruled by *caciques* (chiefs of villages). The south coast of Jamaica was the most populated, especially around the area now known as Old Harbour.[10] The Tainos were still inhabiting Jamaica when the English took control of the island.[10] The Jamaican National Heritage Trust is attempting to locate and document any evidence of the Taino/Arawaks.[11]

Christopher Columbus claimed Jamaica for Spain after landing there in 1494 and his probable landing point was Dry Harbour, now called Discovery Bay.[12] There is some debate as to whether he landed in St. Ann's Bay or in Discovery Bay. St. Ann's Bay was the "Saint Gloria" of Columbus who first sighted Jamaica at this point. One mile west of St. Ann's Bay is the site of the first Spanish settlement on the island, Sevilla, which was established in 1509 and abandoned around 1524 because it was deemed unhealthy.[13] The capital was moved to Spanish Town, then called "St. Jago de la Vega", around 1534 and is located in present day St. Catherine.[14]

Out of all the British colonies in the Caribbean, Spanish Town has the oldest cathedral.[14] The Spanish were forcibly evicted by the English at Ocho Rios in St. Ann. In 1655 the English, led by William Penn and General Robert Venables, took over the last Spanish fort in Jamaica.[15] The name of Montego Bay, the capital of the parish of St. James, was derived from the Spanish name *manteca bahía* (or Bay of Lard) for the large quantity of boar used for the lard-making industry.[16]

In 1660, the population of Jamaica was about 4,500 whites and 1,500 blacks,[18] but as early as the 1670s, blacks would form a majority of the population.[19]



When the English captured Jamaica in 1655 the Spanish colonists fled after freeing their slaves.[15] The slaves fled into the mountains, joining those who had previously escaped from the Spanish to live with the Taínos.[20] These runaway slaves, who became known as the Jamaican Maroons, fought the British during the 18th century.[20] The name is still used today for their modern descendants. During the long years of slavery Maroons established free communities in the mountainous interior of Jamaica, maintaining their freedom and independence for

generations.

Henry Morgan was a famous Caribbean pirate and privateer who had arrived in the West Indies as an indentured servant, like many of the early settlers.[17]

During its first 200 years of British rule, Jamaica became one of the world's leading sugar-exporting, slave-dependent nations, producing more than 77,000 tons of sugar annually between 1820 and 1824. After the abolition of the slave trade in 1807,[21] the British imported Indian and Chinese workers as indentured servants to supplement the labour pool. Descendants of indentured servants of Indian and Chinese origin continue to reside in Jamaica today.

By the beginning of the 19th century, Jamaica's heavy reliance on slavery resulted in blacks outnumbering whites by a ratio of almost 20 to 1. Even though England had outlawed the importation of slaves, some were still smuggled into the colonies. The British government drew up laws regimenting the abolition of slavery, but they also included instructions for the improvement of the slaves' way of life. These instructions included a ban of the use of whips in the field, a ban on the flogging of women, notification that slaves were to be allowed religious instruction, a requirement that slaves be given an extra free day during the week when they could sell their produce as well as a ban on Sunday markets.



Map of Jamaica

In Jamaica these measures were resisted by the House of Assembly. The Assembly claimed that the slaves were content and objected to Parliament's interference in island affairs, although many slave owners feared possible revolts. Following a series of rebellions and changing attitudes in Great Britain, the nation formally abolished slavery in 1834, with full emancipation from chattel slavery declared in 1838. The population in 1834 was 371,070 of whom 15,000 were white, 5,000 free black, 40,000 ‘coloured’ or mixed race, and 311,070 slaves.[18]

In the 19th century, the British established a number of botanical gardens. These included the Castleton Garden, set up in 1862 to replace the Bath Garden (created in 1779) which was subject to flooding. Bath Garden was the site for planting breadfruit brought to Jamaica from the Pacific by Captain William Bligh. Other gardens were the Cinchona Plantation founded in 1868 and the Hope Garden founded in 1874. In 1872, Kingston became the island's capital.

In 1945, Sir Horace Hector Hearne became Chief Justice and Keeper of the Records in Jamaica. He headed the Supreme Court, Kingston between 1945 and 1950/1951. He then moved to Kenya where he was appointed Chief Justice.

Jamaica slowly gained increasing independence from the United Kingdom and in 1958, it became a province in the Federation of the West Indies, a federation among the British West Indies. Jamaica attained full independence by leaving the federation in 1962.



Jamaican Prime Minister Michael Manley and his wife with US president Jimmy Carter in 1977.

Strong economic growth, averaging approximately 6% per annum, marked the first ten years of independence under conservative governments which were led successively by Prime Ministers Alexander Bustamante, Donald Sangster and Hugh Shearer. The growth was fuelled by strong investments in bauxite/alumina, tourism, manufacturing industry and, to a lesser extent, the agricultural sector.

The optimism of the first decade was accompanied by a growing sense of inequality, and a sense that the benefits of growth were not being experienced by the urban poor. This, combined with the effects of a slowdown in the global economy in 1970, prompted the electorate to change government, electing the

PNP (People's National Party) in 1972. Despite efforts to create more socially equitable policies in education and health, Jamaica continued to lag economically, with its gross national product having fallen in 1980 to some 25% below the 1972 level. Rising foreign and local debt, accompanied by large fiscal deficits, resulted in the invitation of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) financing from the United States and others, and the imposition of IMF austerity measures (with a greater than 25% interest rate per year).

Economic deterioration continued into the mid-1980s, exacerbated by a number of factors; the first and third largest alumina producers, Alpart and Alcoa closed, and there was a significant reduction in production by the second largest producer, Alcan. In addition, tourism decreased and Reynolds Jamaica Mines, Ltd. left the Jamaican industry.

Government and politics

Main article: Politics of Jamaica

Further information: Foreign relations of Jamaica


Inside the Parliament of Jamaica

Jamaica is a parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy, with Queen Elizabeth II serving as the Jamaican monarch.[22] However, as Elizabeth II is shared as head of state of fifteen other countries and resides mostly in the United Kingdom, she is thus often represented as Queen of Jamaica in Jamaica and abroad by the Governor-General of Jamaica.[23] The governor-general is nominated by the Prime Minister of Jamaica and the entire Cabinet and appointed by the monarch. All the members of the Cabinet are appointed by the governor-general on the advice of the prime minister. The monarch and the governor-general serve largely ceremonial roles, apart from their potent reserve power to dismiss the prime minister or parliament.

Jamaica's current constitution was drafted in 1962 by a bipartisan joint committee of the Jamaican legislature. It came into force with the Jamaica Independence Act, 1962 of the United Kingdom parliament, which gave Jamaica independence.

The Parliament of Jamaica is bicameral, consisting of the House of Representatives (Lower House) and the Senate (Upper House). Members of the House (known as Members of Parliament or *MPs*) are directly elected, and the member of the House of Representatives who, in the governor-general's best judgement, is best able to command the confidence of a majority of the members of that House, is appointed by the governor-general to be the prime minister. Senators are nominated jointly by the prime minister and the parliamentary Leader of the Opposition and are then appointed by the governor-general.

In February 2006, Portia Simpson-Miller was elected by delegates of the ruling People's National Party (PNP) to replace P. J. Patterson as president of the party. At the end of March 2006, when Patterson demitted office, Simpson-Miller became the first female Prime Minister of Jamaica. Former Prime Minister Patterson had held office since the 1992 resignation of Michael Manley. Patterson was re-elected three times, the last being in 2002.

On 3 September 2007, Bruce Golding of the Jamaica Labour Party was voted in as Prime Minister-Designate after achieving a 33 – 27 seat victory over Portia Simpson-Miller and the PNP in the 2007 Jamaican general election. Portia Simpson-Miller conceded defeat on 5 September 2007.[24] On 11 September 2007, after being sworn in by Governor-General Kenneth Hall, The Hon. Bruce Golding assumed office as Prime Minister of Jamaica.

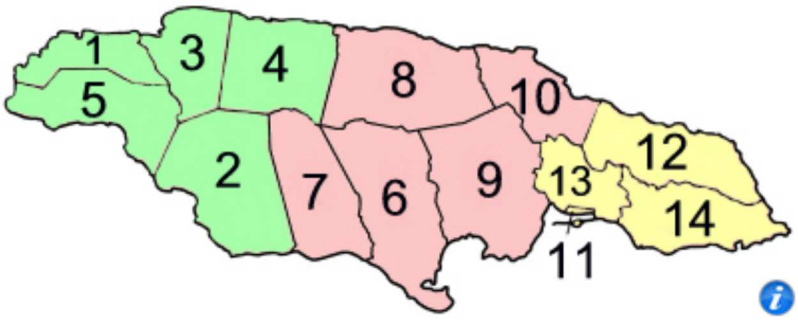
Jamaica has traditionally had a two-party system, with power often alternating between the People's National Party and Jamaica Labour Party (JLP). Over the past decade a new political party called the National Democratic Movement (NDM) emerged in an attempt to challenge the two-party system, though it has become largely irrelevant in this system, as it garnered only 540 votes of the over 800,000 votes cast in the 3 September elections. Jamaica is a full and participating member of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM).



Embassy of Jamaica in Washington, D.C.

Parishes

Main article: Parishes of Jamaica



Jamaica is divided into 14 parishes, which are grouped into three historic counties that have no administrative relevance.

	Cornwall County	Capital	km²		Middlesex County	Capital	km²		Surrey County	Capital	km²
1	Hanover	Lucea	450	6	Clarendon	May Pen	1,196	11	Kingston	Kingston	25
2	Saint Elizabeth	Black River	1,212	7	Manchester	Mandeville	830	12	Portland	Port Antonio	814
3	Saint James	Montego Bay	595	8	Saint Ann	St. Ann's Bay	1,213	13	Saint Andrew	Half Way Tree	453
4	Trelawny	Falmouth	875	9	Saint Catherine	Spanish Town	1,192	14	Saint Thomas	Morant Bay	743
5	Westmoreland	Savanna-la-Mar	807	10	Saint Mary	Port Maria	611				

Military

Main article: Jamaica Defence Force

The Jamaica Defence Force (JDF) is the small but professional military force of Jamaica. The JDF is based on the British military model with organisation, training, weapons and traditions closely aligned with Commonwealth realms. Once chosen, officer candidates are sent to one of several British or Canadian basic officer courses depending on which arm of service they are selected for. Enlisted soldiers are given basic training at JDF Training Depot, Newcastle or Up Park Camp, both in St. Andrew. As with the British model, NCOs are given several levels of professional training as they rise up the ranks. Additional military schools are available for speciality training in Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom.

The JDF is directly descended from the British West India Regiment formed during the colonial era.[25] The

West India Regiment was used extensively by the British Empire in policing the empire from 1795 to 1926. Other units in the JDF heritage include the early colonial Jamaica Militia, the Kingston Infantry Volunteers of WWI and reorganised into the Jamaican Infantry Volunteers in World War II. The West Indies Regiment was reformed in 1958 as part of the West Indies Federation, after dissolution of the Federation the JDF was established.

The Jamaica Defence Force (JDF) comprises an infantry Regiment and Reserve Corps, an Air Wing, a Coast Guard fleet and a supporting Engineering Unit.[26] The infantry regiment contains the 1st, 2nd and 3rd (National Reserve) battalions. The JDF Air Wing is divided into three flight units, a training unit, a support unit and the JDF Air Wing (National Reserve). The Coast Guard is divided between seagoing crews and support crews who conduct maritime safety and maritime law enforcement as well as defence-related operations.[27] The role of the support battalion is to provide support to boost numbers in combat and issue competency training in order to allow for the readiness of the force.[28] The 1st Engineer Regiment was formed due to an increased demand for military engineers and their role is to provide engineering services whenever and wherever they are needed.[29] The Headquarters JDF contains the JDF Commander, Command Staff as well as Intelligence, Judge Advocate office, Administrative and Procurement sections.[30]

In recent years the JDF has been called on to assist the nation's police, the Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF), in fighting drug smuggling and a rising crime rate which includes one of the highest murder rates in the world. JDF units actively conduct armed patrols with the JCF in high-crime areas and known gang neighbourhoods. There has been vocal controversy as well as support of this JDF role. In early 2005, an Opposition leader, Edward Seaga, called for the merger of the JDF and JCF. This has not garnered support in either organisation nor among the majority of citizens.

Geography and environment

Main article: Geography of Jamaica

Jamaica is the third largest island in the Caribbean.[31] It lies between latitudes 17° and 19°N, and longitudes 76° and 79°W. Mountains, including the Blue Mountains, dominate the inland. They are surrounded by a narrow coastal plain.[32] Chief towns and cities include the capital Kingston, Portmore, Spanish Town, Mandeville, Ocho Ríos, Port Antonio, Negril, and Montego Bay.[33] Jamaica has the seventh largest natural harbour in the world, Kingston Harbour.[34] Tourist attractions include Dunn's River Falls in St. Ann, YS Falls in St. Elizabeth, the Blue Lagoon in Portland, and Port Royal, which was the site of an earthquake that helped form the island's Palisadoes.[35][36][37][38]



Doctor's Cave Beach Club is a popular destination in Montego Bay.



The picturesque Dunn's River Falls in Ocho Ríos.

The climate in Jamaica is tropical, with hot and humid weather, although higher inland regions are more temperate.[39] Some regions on the south coast, such as the Liguanea Plain and the Pedro Plains, are relatively dry rain-shadow areas.[40] Jamaica lies in the hurricane belt of the Atlantic Ocean and because of this, the island sometimes experiences significant storm damage.[41] Hurricanes Charlie and Gilbert hit Jamaica directly in 1951 and 1988, respectively, causing major damage and many deaths. In the 2000s (decade), hurricanes Ivan, Dean, and Gustav also brought severe weather to the island.

Flora and fauna


Jamaican Boa


Jamaican Hutia

Jamaica's climate is tropical, supporting diverse ecosystems with a wealth of plants and animals.

Jamaica's plant life has changed considerably over the centuries. When the Spanish arrived in 1494, except for small agricultural clearings, the country was deeply forested. The European settlers cut down the great timber trees for building purposes and cleared the plains, savannas, and mountain slopes for cultivation. Many new plants were introduced including sugarcane, bananas, and citrus trees.

Areas of heavy rainfall contain stands of bamboo, ferns, ebony, mahogany, and rosewood. Cactus and similar dry-area plants are found along the south and southwest coastal area. Parts of the west and southwest consist of large grasslands, with scattered stands of trees.

The Jamaican animal life, typical of the Caribbean, includes highly diversified wildlife with many endemic species found nowhere else on earth. As with other oceanic islands, land mammals are made up almost entirely of Bats. The only non-bat native mammal extant in Jamaica is the Jamaican Hutia, locally known as the coney. Introduced mammals such as Wild Boar and the Small Asian Mongoose are also common. Jamaica is also home to many reptiles, the largest of which is the American Crocodile, however it is only present within the Black River and a few other areas. Lizards such as Anoles, Iguanas and snakes such as racers and the Jamaican Boa (the largest snake on the island) are common. None of Jamaica's native snakes are dangerously venomous to humans.[42] One species of freshwater turtle is native to Jamaica, the Jamaican Slider. It is found only on Jamaica, Cat Island, and a few other islands in The Bahamas. In addition, many types of frogs are common on the island, especially Treefrogs. Birds are abundant, and make up the bulk of the endemic and native vertebrate species. Beautiful and exotic birds such as the Jamaican Tody and the Doctor Bird (the national bird) can be found among a large number of others. Insects and other invertebrates are abundant, including the world's largest centipede, the Amazonian Giant Centipede, and the Homerus Swallowtail, the Western Hemisphere's largest butterfly.

Jamaican waters contain considerable resources of fresh-and saltwater fish.[43] The chief varieties of saltwater fish are Kingfish, Jack, Mackerel, Whiting, Bonito, and Tuna. Fish that occasionally enter freshwater and estuarine environments include Snook, Jewfish, Mangrove snapper, and Mullets. Fish that spend the majority of their lives in Jamaica's fresh waters include many species of Livebearers, Killifish, freshwater Gobies, the Mountain Mullet, and the American Eel. Tilapia have been introduced from Africa for aquaculture, and are very common.

Among the variety of terrestrial, aquatic and marine ecosystems are dry and wet limestone forests, rainforest, riparian woodland, wetlands, caves, rivers, seagrass beds and coral reefs.

The authorities had recognized the tremendous significance and potential of this aspect of their heritage and designated some of the more 'fertile' areas 'protected'. Among the island's protected areas are the Cockpit Country, Hellshire Hills, and Litchfield forest reserves. In 1992, Jamaica's first marine park, covering nearly 6 square miles (about 15 km^2), was established in Montego Bay.

The following year Blue and John Crow Mountains National Park was created on roughly 300 square miles

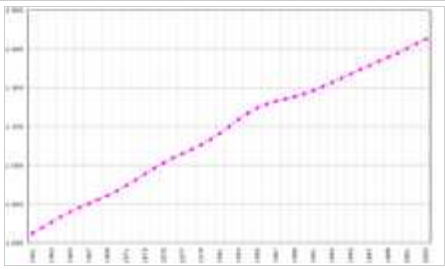
(780 km^2) of wilderness that supports thousands of tree and fern species and rare animals.

Demographics

Further information: Demographics of Jamaica and Jamaican peoples

Ethnic origins

According to the 2001 census, the majority of Jamaica's population is of African descent (referring to those who have origins *mainly* in Africa). The most common ethnic groups among all Africans taken to Jamaica were the Akan (known as the "Coromantee") and the Igbo.[44] Multiracial Jamaicans form the second largest racial group many of whom also have some Irish ancestry although most mixed-race people on the island self-report simply as "Jamaican".[45][46][47][48] Jamaicans of Indian and Chinese ancestry, form the next largest racial groups after multiracial Jamaicans. Lebanese, Syrian, English, Scottish, Irish, and German Jamaicans make up a smaller racial minority but are still very influential both socially and economically.[1] In recent years, immigration has increased, coming mainly from China, Haiti, Cuba, Colombia, and other Latin American countries; 20,000 Latin Americans currently reside in Jamaica. About 7,000 Americans also reside in Jamaica, as well as many first generation American, British and Canadian of Jamaican descendant.[49]



Population of Jamaica (in thousands) from 1961–2003



Streets of Kingston, the capital of Jamaica

Language

Main articles: Jamaican Patois and Jamaican English

The official language of Jamaica is English. Jamaicans primarily speak an English-African Creole language known as Jamaican Patois, which has become known widely through the spread of Reggae music. Jamaican Patois was formed from a base of mainly English words with elements of re-formed grammar, together with a little vocabulary from African languages and Native American words. Some archaic features are reminiscent of Irish English.

Emigration

Main article: Jamaican diaspora

Many Jamaicans have emigrated to other countries, especially to the United Kingdom, the United States, and Canada. In the case of the United States, about 20,000 Jamaicans per year are granted permanent residence.[50] The great number of Jamaicans living abroad has become known as the Jamaican diaspora. There has also been emigration of Jamaicans to Cuba.[51] The scale of emigration has been widespread and similar to other Caribbean entities such as Puerto Rico, Guyana, and The Bahamas. It is estimated that up to 2.5 million Jamaicans and Jamaican descendants live abroad.[52] An estimated 60% of the highly educated people of Jamaica now live abroad.[53]

Concentrations of expatriate Jamaicans are quite considerable in numberous cities in the United States, including

New York City, Buffalo, the Miami metro area, Atlanta, Chicago, Orlando, Tampa, Washington, D.C., Philadelphia, Hartford, Providence and Los Angeles. Jamaicans in the United Kingdom number an estimated 800,000 making them by far the country's largest African-Caribbean group. Large scale migration from Jamaica to the UK occurred primarily in the 1950s and 1960s (when the country was still under British rule). Jamaican communities exist in most large UK cities.[54] In Canada, the Jamaican population is centred in Toronto, and there are smaller communities in cities such as Hamilton, Montreal, Vancouver and Ottawa.

Crime

Main article: Crime in Jamaica

See also: Prisons in Jamaica and LGBT rights in Jamaica

Jamaica has had one of the highest murder rates in the world for many years, according to UN estimates.[55][56] Some areas of Jamaica, particularly cities such as Kingston, experience high levels of crime and violence.[57] Many Jamaicans are hostile toward LGBT and intersex people.[57] Various mob attacks against gay people have been reported,[58][59][60] prompting human-rights groups to call Jamaica "the most homophobic place on earth."[61]

Religion

Main article: Religion in Jamaica



Mandeville Church in Manchester Parish. Founded in 1816.

Christianity is the largest religion practised in Jamaica. According to the 2001 census, the country's largest denominations are the Church of God of Prophecy (24% of the population), Seventh-day Adventist Church (11%), Pentecostal (10%), Baptist (7%), Anglican (4%), Roman Catholic (2%), United Church (2%), Methodist (2%), Moravian (1%) and Plymouth Brethren (1%)[62] The Christian faith gained credibility as British Christian abolitionists and Baptist missionaries joined educated former slaves in the struggle against slavery.[63]

The Rastafari movement had 24,020 adherents, according to the 2001 census.[62] Other religions in Jamaica include Jehovah's Witnesses (2% population), the Bahá'í faith, which counts perhaps 8,000 adherents[64] and 21 Local Spiritual Assemblies,[65] Buddhism, and Hinduism.[66] There is a small population of Jews, about 200, who describe themselves as Liberal-Conservative.[67] The first Jews in Jamaica trace their roots back to early 15th century Spain and Portugal.[68] Muslim groups in Jamaica claim 5,000 adherents.[62]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Jamaica

Further information: Music of Jamaica, Jamaican cuisine, and Jamaican literature

Though a small nation, Jamaican culture has a strong global presence. The musical genres reggae, ska, mento, rocksteady, dub, and, more recently, dancehall and ragga all originated in the island's vibrant, popular urban recording industry. Jamaica also played an important role in the development of punk rock, through reggae and

ska. Reggae has also influenced American rap music, as they both share their roots as rhythmic, African styles of music. Some rappers, such as The Notorious B.I.G. and Heavy D, are of Jamaican descent. Internationally known reggae musician Bob Marley was also Jamaican.



Marcus Garvey, Father of the Back to Africa Movement and Jamaica's first National Hero.

Many other internationally known artists were born in Jamaica including Millie Small, Lee "Scratch" Perry, Peter Tosh, Bunny Wailer, Big Youth, Jimmy Cliff, Dennis Brown, Desmond Dekker, Beres Hammond, Beenie Man, Shaggy, Grace Jones, Shabba Ranks, Super Cat, Buju Banton, Sean Paul, I Wayne, Bounty Killer and many others. Band artist groups that came from Jamaica include Black Uhuru, Third World Band, Inner Circle, Chalice Reggae Band, Culture, Fab Five and Morgan Heritage. The genre jungle emerged from London's Jamaican diaspora. The birth of hip-hop in New York City, New York also owed much to the city's Jamaican community.

Ian Fleming, who lived in Jamaica, repeatedly used the island as a setting in the James Bond novels, including *Live and Let Die*, *Doctor No*, *For Your Eyes Only*, *The Man with the Golden Gun* and *Octopussy and The Living Daylights*. In addition, James Bond uses a Jamaica-based cover in *Casino Royale*. So far, the only James Bond film adaptation to have been set in Jamaica is *Doctor No*. Filming for the fictional island of San Monique in *Live and Let Die* took place in Jamaica.



Bob Marley, the most famous reggae artist from Jamaica.

Journalist and author H. G. de Lisser (1878–1944) used his native country as the setting for his many novels. Born at Falmouth, de Lisser worked as a reporter for the Jamaica Times at a young age and in 1920 began publishing the magazine Planters' Punch. *The White Witch of Rosehall* is one of his better known novels. He was named Honourary President of the Jamaican Press Association, and worked throughout his professional career to promote the Jamaican sugar industry.

The American film *Cocktail*, starring Tom Cruise, is one of the more popular films to depict Jamaica. A look at delinquent youth in Jamaica is presented in the 1970s musical crime film *The Harder They Come*, starring Jimmy Cliff as a frustrated (and psychopathic) reggae musician who descends into a murderous crime spree. Another popular Jamaican-based film is the 1993 comedy *Cool Runnings* which is loosely based on the true story of Jamaica's first bobsled team trying to make it in the Winter Olympics.

Errol Flynn lived with his third wife Patrice Wymore in Port Antonio in the 1950s. He was responsible for developing tourism to this area, popularising raft trips down rivers on bamboo rafts.[69]

The island is famous for its Jamaican jerk spice which forms a popular part of Jamaican cuisine. Jamaica is also home to Red Stripe beer and Jamaican Blue Mountain Coffee.

National symbols

(*From the Jamaica Information Service*)[70]

- National Bird — Red-billed Streamertail (aka Doctor Bird) (a Hummingbird, *Trochilus polytmus*)
- National Flower – Lignum vitae (*Guiacum officinale*)
- National Tree — Blue Mahoe (*Hibiscus taliparitiv elatum*)

- National Fruit — Ackee (*Blighia sapida*)
- National Motto — "Out of Many, One People."

Sport

Main article: Sport in Jamaica

See also: Cricket in the West Indies and Athletics in Jamaica



Usain Bolt at the Berlin World Championships 2009

Sport is an integral part of national life in Jamaica and the island's athletes tend to perform to a standard well above what might ordinarily be expected of such a small country.[71] While the most popular local sport is cricket, on the international stage Jamaicans have tended to do particularly well at Track and Field.[71][72]

The country was one the venues of 2007 Cricket World Cup and West Indies cricket team is one of the only 10 ICC full member teams who participate in international Test Cricket.[73] The Jamaica national cricket team competes regionally, and also provides players for the West Indies. Sabina Park is the only test venue in the island, but the Greenfield Stadium (Trelawny) is also used for cricket.[74][75]

Since independence Jamaica has consistently produced world class athletes in track and field.[71] In Jamaica involvement in athletics begins at a very young age and most high schools maintain rigorous athletics programs with their top athletes competing in national competitions (most notably the VMBS Girls and Boys Athletics Championships) and international meets (most notably the Penn Relays). In Jamaica it is not uncommon for young athletes to attain press coverage and national fame long before they arrive on the international athletics stage.

Over the past six decades Jamaica has produced dozens of world class sprinters including Olympic and World Champion Usain Bolt, world record holder in the 100m for men at 9.58s, and 200m for men at 19.19s. Other noteworthy Jamaican sprinters include Arthur Wint – the first Jamaican Olympic Gold Medalist, Donald Quarrie – Olympic Champion and former 200m world record holder, Merlene Ottey, Delloreen Ennis-London, Shelly-Ann Fraser-Pryce – the current World and Olympic 100m Champion, Kerron Stewart, Aleen Bailey, Juliet Cuthbert, Veronica Campbell-Brown, Sherone Simpson, Brigitte Foster-Hylton, Yohan Blake, Herb McKenley, George Rhoden--Olympic Gold Medalist, Deon Hemmings – Olympic Gold Medalist as well as former 100m world record holder and 2x 100m Olympic finalist and Gold medal winner in the men's 2008 Olympic 4x100m Asafa Powell.

Jamaica has also produced several world class amateur and professional boxers including Trevor Berbick and Mike McCallum. First generation Jamaican athletes have continued to make a significant impact on the sport internationally, especially in the United Kingdom where the list of top British boxers born in Jamaica or of Jamaican parents includes Lloyd Honeyghan, Chris Eubank, Audley Harrison, David Haye, Lennox Lewis and Frank Bruno.

Association football and horse-racing are other popular sports in Jamaica. The national football team qualified for the 1998 FIFA World Cup.

The Jamaica national bobsled team was once a serious contender in the Winter Olympics, beating many

well-established teams. Chess, and Basketball are widely played in Jamaica which are supported by the Jamaica Chess Federation (JCF), and the Jamaica Basketball Federation (JBF). Netball is also very popular on the island, with the Jamaica national netball team called *The Sunshine Girls* consistently ranking in the top five in the world.[*citation needed*]

The Jamaica national rugby league team is made up of players who play in Jamaica, and UK-players from professional and semi professional teams in the UK.[76] Their first international was a 37–22 loss to the United States national rugby league team in November 2009.[77] Rugby league in Jamaica is growing with universities and high schools taking up the sport.[78][79] The JRLA Championship is the main rugby league competition in the country.[80] The Hurricanes Rugby League are a professional rugby league team who are hoping to compete in either the USA Rugby League or the AMNRL by 2013 during that time they will be training young players aged 14–19 who will be part of the Hurricanes RL Academy in the hope of developing into full time professional players.

Education

Main article: Education in Jamaica

The emancipation of the slaves heralded in the establishment of the Jamaican education system for the masses. Prior to emancipation there were few schools for educating locals. Many sent their children off to England to access quality education.

After emancipation the West Indian Commission granted a sum of money to establish Elementary Schools, now known as *All Age Schools*. Most of these schools were established by the churches.[81] This was the genesis of the modern Jamaican school system.

Presently the following categories of schools exist:

- **Early childhood** – Basic, Infant and privately operated pre- school. Age cohort – 2 – 5 years.
- **Primary** – Publicly and privately owned (Privately owned being called Preparatory Schools). Ages 3 – 12 years.
- **Secondary** – Publicly and privately owned. Ages 10 – 19 years. The high schools in Jamaica may be either single-sex or co-educational institutions, and many schools follow the traditional English grammar school model used throughout the British West Indies.
- **Tertiary** – Community Colleges, Teachers' Colleges with The Mico Teachers' College (now The MICO University College) being the oldest founded in 1836,The Shortwood Teachers' College (which was once an all female teacher training institution), Vocational Training Centres, Colleges and Universities – Publicly and privately owned. There are five local universities namely: The University of the West Indies (Mona Campus); the University of Technology, Jamaica formerly The College of Art Science and Technology (CAST); the Northern Caribbean University formerly West Indies College; the University College of The Caribbean and the International University of the Caribbean.

Additionally, there are many community and teacher training colleges.

Education is free from the early childhood to secondary levels. There are also opportunities for those who cannot afford further education in the vocational arena through the Human Employment and Resource Training-National Training Agency (HEART Trust-NTA) programme[82] and through an extensive scholarship network for the various universities.

Students are taught Spanish in school from the primary level upwards; about 40–45% of educated people in

Jamaica knows some form of Spanish.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Jamaica



A beach in Negril with a hotel and restaurant

Jamaica is a mixed economy with both state enterprises and private sector businesses. Major sectors of the Jamaican economy include agriculture, mining, manufacturing, tourism, and financial and insurance services. Tourism and mining are the leading earners of foreign exchange. Half the Jamaican economy relies on services, with half of its income coming from services such as tourism. An estimated 1.3 million foreign tourists visit Jamaica every year.[83]

Supported by multilateral financial institutions, Jamaica has, since the early 1980s, sought to implement structural reforms aimed at fostering private sector activity and increasing the role of market forces in resource allocation. Since 1991, the government has followed a programme of economic liberalization and stabilization by removing exchange controls, floating the exchange rate, cutting tariffs, stabilising the Jamaican currency, reducing inflation and removing restrictions on foreign investment. Emphasis has been placed on maintaining strict fiscal discipline, greater openness to trade and financial flows, market liberalisation and reduction in the size of government. During this period, a large share of the economy was returned to private sector ownership through divestment and privatisation programmes.



James Bond Beach

The macroeconomic stabilisation programme introduced in 1991, which focused on tight fiscal and monetary policies, has contributed to a controlled reduction in the rate of inflation. The annual inflation rate decreased from a high of 80.2% in 1991 to 7.9% in 1998. Inflation for FY1998/99 was 6.2% compared to 7.2% in the corresponding period in CUU1997/98. The Government of Jamaica remains committed to lowering inflation, with a long-term objective of bringing it in line with that of its major trading partners.

After a period of steady growth from 1985 to 1995, real GDP decreased by 1.8% and 2.4% in 1996 and 1997, respectively. The decrease in GDP in 1996 and 1997 was largely due to significant problems in the financial sector and, in 1997, a severe island-wide drought (the worst in 70 years) that drastically reduced agricultural production. In 1997, nominal GDP was approximately J$220,556.2 million (US$6,198.9 million based on the average annual exchange rate of the period).



The economy in 1997 was marked by low levels of import growth, high levels of private capital inflows and relative stability in the foreign exchange market.

Recent economic performance shows the Jamaican economy is recovering. Agricultural production, an important engine of growth increased 15.3% in third quarter of 1998 compared to the corresponding period in 1997, signaling the first positive growth rate in the sector since January 1997. Bauxite and alumina production increased 5.5% from January to December, 1998 compared to the corresponding period in

Fishing boats and bauxite cargo ships share the waterways near Alligator Pond, Jamaica

1997. January's bauxite production recorded a 7.1% increase relative to January 1998 and continued expansion of alumina production through 2009 is planned by Alcoa.[84] Tourism, which is the largest foreign exchange earner, showed improvement as well. In the third quarter of 1998, growth in tourist arrivals accelerated with an overall increase of 8.5% in tourism earnings in 1998 when compared to the corresponding period in 1997. Jamaica's agricultural exports are sugar, bananas, coffee, rum,and yams.

Jamaica is the fifth largest exporter of bauxite in the world, after Australia, China, Brazil and Guinea.

Jamaica has a wide variety of industrial and commercial activities. The aviation industry is able to perform most routine aircraft maintenance, except for heavy structural repairs. There is a considerable amount of technical support for transport and agricultural aviation. Jamaica has a considerable amount of industrial engineering, light manufacturing, including metal fabrication, metal roofing, and furniture manufacturing. Food and beverage processing, glassware manufacturing, software and data processing, printing and publishing, insurance underwriting, music and recording, and advanced education activities can be found in the larger urban areas. The Jamaican construction industry is entirely self-sufficient, with professional technical standards and guidance.[85]

Since the first quarter of 2006, the economy of Jamaica has undergone a period of staunch growth. With inflation for the 2006 calendar year down to 6.0% and unemployment down to 8.9%, the nominal GDP grew by an unprecedented 2.9%.[86] An investment programme in island transportation and utility infrastructure and gains in the tourism, mining, and service sectors all contributed this figure. All projections for 2007 show an even higher potential for economic growth with all estimates over 3.0% and hampered only by urban crime and public policies.

In 2006, Jamaica became part of the CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME) as one of the pioneering members.

The global economic downturn had a significant impact on the Jamaican economy for the years 2007 to 2009, resulting in negative economic growth. The government implemented a new Debt Management Initiative, the Jamaica Debt Exchange (JDX) on January 14, 2010. The initiative would see holders of Government of Jamaica (GOJ) bonds returning the high interest earning instruments for bonds with lower yields and longer maturities.The offer was taken up by over 95% of local financial institutions and was deemed a success by the government. Owing to the success of the JDX program, the Bruce Golding-led government was successful in entering into a borrowing arrangement with the IMF on Ferbruary 4,2010 for the amount of US$1.27b. The loan agreement is for a period of three years. [87]

Infrastructure

Transport

Further information: Transport in Jamaica

The transport infrastructure in Jamaica consists of roadways, railways and air transport, with roadways forming the backbone of the island's internal transport system.

Roadways

Main article: Roads in Jamaica

The Jamaican road network consists of almost 13 049 miles (21,000 kilometres) of roads, of which over 9 321 miles (15,000 kilometres) is paved.[1] The Jamaican Government has, since the late 1990s and in cooperation with private investors, embarked on a campaign of infrastructural improvement projects, one of which includes the creation of a system of freeways, the first such access-controlled roadways of their kind on the island, connecting the main population centres of the island. This project has so far seen the completion of 21 miles (33 kilometres) of freeway.

Railways

Main article: Railways of Jamaica

Railways in Jamaica no longer enjoy the prominent position they once did, having been largely replaced by roadways as the primary means of transport. Of the 169 miles (272 kilometres) of railway found in Jamaica, only 35 miles (57 kilometres) remain in operation, currently used to transport bauxite.[1]

On April 13, 2011, limited passenger service was resumed between May Pen, Spanish Town and Linstead.

Air transport

There are three international airports in Jamaica with modern terminals, long runways, and the navigational equipment required to accommodate the large jet aircraft used in modern and air travel: Norman Manley International Airport in Kingston, Ian Fleming International Airport in Boscobel, Saint Mary Parish, and the island's largest and busiest airport, Sir Donald Sangster International Airport in the resort city of Montego Bay. Norman Manley and Sangster International airports are home to the country's national airline, Air Jamaica. In addition there are local commuter airports at Tinson Pen (Kingston), Port Antonio, and Negril which cater to internal flights only. Many other small, rural centres are served by private fields on sugar estates or bauxite mines.



Air Jamaica Airbus A340 landing at London Heathrow Airport, England. (2002)

Ports, shipping and lighthouses

See also: Lighthouses in Jamaica

Owing to its location in the Caribbean Sea in the shipping lane to the Panama Canal and relative proximity to large markets in North America and emerging markets in Latin America, Jamaica receives high container traffic. The container terminal at the Port of Kingston has undergone large expansion in capacity in recent years to handle growth both already realised as well as that which is projected in coming years.[88] Montego Freeport in Montego Bay also handles a variety of cargo like (though more limited than) the Port of Kingston, mainly agricultural products.

There are several other ports positioned around the island, including Port Esquivel in St. Catherine (WINDALCO), Rocky Point in Clarendon, Port Kaiser in St. Elizabeth, Port Rhoades in Discovery Bay, Reynolds Pier in Ocho Rios, and Boundbrook Port in Port Antonio.

To aid the navigation of shipping, Jamaica operates nine lighthouses.

Energy

Jamaica depends on petroleum imports to satisfy its national energy needs.[1] Many test sites have been explored for oil, but no commercially viable quantities have been found.[89] The most convenient sources of imported oil and motor fuels (diesel, gasoline, and jet fuel) are from Mexico and Venezuela.

Jamaica's electrical power is produced by diesel (bunker oil) generators located in Old Harbour. Other smaller power stations (most owned by the Jamaica Public Service Company – the island's electricity provider) support the island's electrical grid including the Hunts Bay Power Station, the Bogue Power Station, the Rockfort Power Station and small hydroelectric plants on the White River, Rio Bueno, Morant River, Black River (Maggotty) and Roaring River.[90] A wind farm, owned by the Petroleum Corporation of Jamaica, was established at Wigton, Manchester.[91]

Jamaica has successfully operated a SLOWPOKE-2 nuclear reactor of 20 kW capacity since the early 1980s, but there are no plans to expand nuclear power at present.[92]

Jamaica imports approximately 80,000 barrels (13,000 m^3) of oil energy products per day,[89] including asphalt and lubrication products. Just 20% of imported fuels are used for road transportation, the rest being used by the bauxite industry, electricity generation, and aviation.

Jamaica produces enormous quantities of hydrous ethanol (5% water content), most of which appears to be consumed as beverages, and none of it used as motor fuel. Facilities exist to refine hydrous ethanol feedstock into anhydrous ethanol (0% water content), but the process appears to be uneconomic at this time and the facility remains idle.[93]

Communication

Jamaica has a fully digital telephone communication system with a mobile penetration of over 95%.[94]

The country’s three mobile operators – Cable and Wireless (marketed as **LIME** – Landline, Internet, Mobile and Entertainment), Digicel, and Oceanic Digital (operating as MiPhone and now known as Claro since late 2008) – have spent millions in network upgrade and expansion.Both Digicel and Oceanic Digital were granted licences in 2001 to operate mobile services in the newly liberalised telecom market that had once been the sole domain of the incumbent Cable and Wireless monopoly. Digicel opted for the more widely used GSM wireless system, while Oceanic opted for the CDMA standard. Cable and Wireless, which had begun with TDMA standard, subsequently upgraded to GSM, and currently utilises both standards on its network.

With wireless usage increasing, landlines supplied by Cable and Wireless have declined from just over half a million to roughly about three hundred thousand as of 2006.[94] In a bid to grab more market share, Cable and Wireless recently launched a new land line service called HomeFone Prepaid that would allow customers to pay for minutes they use rather than pay a set monthly fee for service, much like prepaid wireless service.

A new entrant to the Jamaican communications market, Flow Jamaica, recently laid a new submarine cable connecting Jamaica to the United States. This new cable increases the total number of submarine cables connecting Jamaica to the rest of the world to four.

Two more licences were auctioned by the Jamaican government to provide mobile services on the island, including one that was previously owned by AT&T Wireless but never utilised, and one new licence.

See also

- Outline of Jamaica
- Index of Jamaica-related articles
- Commonwealth of Nations
- International rankings of Jamaica
- List of Jamaicans

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History of Jamaica

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Jamaica, the third largest Caribbean island, was inhabited by Arawak natives when it was first sighted by the second voyage of Christopher Columbus on May 5, 1494. Columbus himself was stranded on Jamaica from 1503 to 1504 during his fourth voyage. The Spanish settled in Jamaica in 1509 and held the island against many privateer raids from their main city, now called Spanish Town, which served as capital of Jamaica from its founding in 1534 until 1872. In 1655 Jamaica was conquered by the English, although the Spanish did not relinquish their claim to the island until 1670.



The aftermath of the 1882 Kingston fire.

Jamaica became a base of operations for privateers, including Captain Henry Morgan, operating from the main English settlement Port Royal. In return these privateers kept the other colonial powers from attacking the island. Following the destruction of Port Royal in the great earthquake of 1692 refugees settled across the bay in Kingston which by 1716 had become the biggest town in Jamaica and became the capital city in 1872. Until the early 19th century Africans were captured, kidnapped, and forced into slavery to work on plantations when sugarcane became the most important export of the island.

Many slaves had arrived in Jamaica via the Atlantic slave trade during the same time enslaved Africans arrived in North America. During this time there were many racial tensions, and Jamaica had one of the highest instances of slave uprisings of any Caribbean island.[1] After the British crown abolished slavery in 1834, the Jamaicans began working toward independence. Since independence in 1962 there have been political and economic disturbances, as well as a number of strong political leaders.

Contents

- 1 Spanish rule: 1509-1655
- 2 British rule: 1655-1962
- 3 Independent Jamaica
- 4 See also
- 5 References
- 6 Notes
- 7 Further reading
- 8 External links

Spanish rule: 1509-1655

The first Spanish settlement was founded in 1509 near St Anne's Bay and named Seville. In 1534 the settlers moved to a new healthier site they named Villa de la Vega, which the English renamed Spanish Town when they conquered the island in 1655. This settlement served as the capital of both Spanish and English Jamaica from its foundation in 1534 until 1872 after which the capital was moved to Kingston. In the 1640s many people were attracted to Jamaica, which had a reputation for stunning beauty, not only in reference to the island but also to the natives. In fact, pirates were known to desert their raiding parties and stay on the island. Spanish Jamaica was subject to many privateer attacks, before the final conquest of the island by the English in 1655. The English were subject to several unsuccessful Spanish counter-attacks after they occupied the island.

The 1907 *Catholic Encyclopedia* states, "A review of the period of Spanish occupation is one which reflects very little credit on Spanish colonial administration in those days. Their treatment of the aboriginal inhabitants, whom they are accused of having practically exterminated, Morales Padrón

British rule: 1655-1962

Spanish resistance continued for some years thereafter, in some cases with the help of the maroons, but Spain never succeeded in retaking the island. Under early English rule Jamaica became a haven of privateers, buccaneers, and occasionally outright pirates: Christopher Myngs, Edward Mansvelt, and most famously, Henry Morgan.



A depiction of daily life in Jamaica from the early 19th century. Watercolor, ink, and pencil. Created between 1808 and 1816.

The English established their main coastal town at Port Royal and by 1659, two hundred houses, shops, and warehouses surrounded the fort. The town was destroyed by an earthquake in 1692, after which Kingston became the main coastal settlement.

The cultivation of sugar cane and coffee by African slave labour made Jamaica one of the most valuable possessions in the world for more than 150 years. The colony's slaves, who outnumbered their white masters by a ratio of 20:1 in 1800, mounted over a dozen major slave conspiracies (the majority of which were organized by Coromantins), and uprisings during the 18th century, including Tacky's revolt in 1760. Escaped slaves known as Maroons established independent communities in the mountainous interior that the British were unable to suppress, despite major attempts in the 1730s and 1790s. One Maroon community was expelled from the island after the Second Maroon War in the 1790s, and those Maroons eventually became part of the core of the Creole community of Sierra Leone. The colonial government enlisted the Maroons in capturing escaped plantation slaves. The British also used Jamaica's free people of color, 10,000 strong by 1800, to keep the enslaved population in check. During the Christmas holiday of 1831, a large-scale slave revolt known as the Baptist War broke out. It was organised originally as a peaceful strike by Samuel Sharpe. The rebellion was suppressed by the militia of the Jamaican plantocracy and the British garrison ten days later in early 1832.

Because the loss of property and life in the 1831 rebellion, the British Parliament held two inquiries. The results of these inquiries contributed greatly to the abolition of slavery as of August 1, 1834 throughout the British Empire. However the Jamaican slaves bound to their former owners' service, albeit with a guarantee of rights, until 1838 under what was called the Apprenticeship System. The freed population still faced significant hardships, marked by the October 1865 Morant Bay rebellion led by and Paul Bogle. It was brutally repressed. George William Gordon, a friend of Paul Bogle, was hanged because he was thought to have contributed to the riot even though he was not a part of its organization or execution. The sugar crop was declining in importance in the late 19th century and the colony diversified into bananas.

In 1866 the Jamaican legislature renounced its powers, and the country became a crown colony.

In 1872 the capital was moved to Kingston, as the port city had far outstripped the inland Spanish Town in size and sophistication.

Some measure of self-government was restored in the 1880s, when islanders gained the right to elect nine members of a legislative council.

The establishment of Crown Colony rule resulted over the next few decades in the growth of a middle class of low-level public officials and police officers drawn from the mass of the population whose social and political advancement was blocked by the colonial authorities.

The Great Depression had a serious impact both on the emergent middle class and the working class of the 1930s. In the spring of 1938 sugar and dock workers around the island rose in revolt. Although the revolt was suppressed it led to significant changes including the emergence of an organized labour movement and a competitive party system.

Independent Jamaica

Jamaica gained a degree of local political control in the mid-1940s. The People's National Party (PNP) was founded in 1938. Its main rival, the Jamaica Labour Party (JLP) was established five years later. The first elections under universal adult suffrage were held in 1944. Jamaica joined nine other UK territories in the Federation of the West Indies in 1958 but withdrew after Jamaican voters rejected membership in 1961. Jamaica gained independence on August 6, 1962, remaining a member of the Commonwealth of Nations. The first prime minister was Alexander Bustamante of the Jamaica Labour Party.

Initially, power swapped between the People's National Party and the Jamaican Labour Party regularly. Michael Manley was the first PNP prime minister in 1972. He introduced socialist policies and relations with Cuba. His second-term elections marked the start of repeated political violence. When the PNP lost power in 1980 Edward Seaga immediately began to reverse the policies of his predecessor, bringing in privatization and seeking closer ties with the USA. When the PNP and Manley returned to power in 1989 they continued the more moderate policies and were returned in the elections of 1993 and 1998. Manley resigned for health reasons in 1992 and was succeeded as leader of the PNP by Percival Patterson.

Historically, Jamaican emigration has been heavy. In the late 19th century and early 20th century, many Jamaicans migrated to Central America, Cuba, and the Dominican Republic to work in the banana and canefields. In the 1950s the primary destination was to the United Kingdom; but since the United Kingdom restricted emigration in 1962, major flow has been to the United States and Canada. The heaviest flow of emigration, particularly to New York and Miami, occurred during the 1990s and continues to the present day due to high economical crisis. About 20,000 Jamaicans emigrate to the United States each year; another 200,000 visit annually. New York, Hartford, CT, Miami, and Fort Lauderdale are among the U.S. cities with the largest Jamaican population. In New York, over half the Jamaican expatriate population resides in Brooklyn. Remittances from the expatriate communities in the United States, United Kingdom, and Canada make increasingly significant contributions to Jamaica's economy.

See also

- British colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of the British West Indies

Monarchy of Jamaica

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Monarchy of Jamaica** is a constitutional system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign and head of state of Jamaica,[1] forming the core of the country's Westminster-style parliamentary democracy. The terms *Crown in Right of Jamaica*, *Her Majesty in Right of Jamaica*, or *The Queen in Right of Jamaica* may also be used to refer to the entire executive of the government of Jamaica. Though the Jamaican Crown has its roots in the British Crown, it has evolved to become a distinctly Jamaican institution, represented by it own unique symbols.

Queen of Jamaica

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Jamaica



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	6 August 1962

The present monarch is Elizabeth II – officially titled Queen of Jamaica – who has reigned as such since 6 August 1962. She, her consort, and other member of the Royal Family undertake various public and private functions across Jamaica and on behalf of the country abroad. However, the Queen is the only member of the Royal Family with any constitutional role, holding ultimate executive authority,[2] though her Royal Prerogative remains bound by laws enacted by her in parliament and by conventions and precedents, leaving the day-to-day exercise of executive power to her Cabinet. While several powers are the sovereign's alone, most of the royal constitutional and ceremonial duties in Jamaica are carried out by the Queen's representative, the Governor-General.

The Jamaican monarch, besides reigning in Jamaica, separately serves as monarch for each of fifteen other Commonwealth countries known as Commonwealth realms. This developed from the former colonial relationship of these countries to Britain, but they are now independent and the monarchy of each is legally distinct.

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International and domestic aspects

Further information: Commonwealth realm: The Crown in the Commonwealth realms

Jamaica has the same person as their monarch as other Commonwealth realms. Each country is sovereign and independent of the others,[3] meaning the Jamaican monarchy has both a separate and a shared character, and the monarchy has also thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called *British* since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, political, and of convenience. On all matters of the Jamaican state, the monarch is advised solely by Jamaican Ministers of the Crown.[4] and, effective with the Jamaica Independence Act, 1962, no British or other realm government can advise the monarch on matters pertinent to Jamaica.

Given these arrangements, it is considered impossible for the monarch of Jamaica to receive an ambassador from, or send an ambassador to, any country of which he or she is also monarch; essentially sending an ambassador to him or herself. Instead, the practice of sending High Commissioners developed, wherein an individual is sent to be a representative in one realm of the government in another.

Title and style

The shared and domestic aspects of the Crown are also highlighted in the sovereign's Jamaican title, currently *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Jamaica and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*. The sovereign's role specifically as Queen of Jamaica, as well as her status as monarch of other nations, is communicated by mentioning Jamaica separately from, but along with, the Queen's other lands. Typically, the sovereign is styled *Queen of Jamaica*, and is addressed as such when in Jamaica or performing duties on behalf of Jamaica abroad.

Finance

The sovereign only draws from Jamaican coffers for support in the performance of her duties when in Jamaica or acting as Queen of Jamaica abroad; Jamaicans do not pay any money to the Queen, either towards personal income or to support royal residences outside of Jamaica. This applies equally to other members of the Royal Family. Normally, tax dollars pay only for the costs associated with the Governor-General in the exercise of the powers of the Crown, including travel, security, residences, offices, ceremonies, and the like.

Succession

Succession is by male-preference primogeniture governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, 1701, and



Charles, Prince of Wales, is the heir apparent to the Jamaican throne.

the Bill of Rights, 1689. This legislation limits the succession to the natural (i.e. non-adopted), legitimate descendants of Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and stipulates that the monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. Though these constitutional laws, as they apply to Jamaica, still lie within the control of the British parliament, via adopting the Statute of Westminster both the United Kingdom and Jamaica agreed not to change the rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship; a situation that applies symmetrically in all the other realms, and which has been likened to a treaty amongst these countries.[5] Thus, Jamaica's line of succession remains identical to that of the United Kingdom.

Upon a *demise of the Crown* (the death or abdication of a sovereign) it is customary for the accession of the new monarch to be publicly proclaimed by the Governor-General. Regardless of any proclamations, the late sovereign's heir immediately and automatically succeeds, without any need for confirmation or further ceremony; hence arises the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!" Following an appropriate period of mourning, the monarch is also crowned in the United Kingdom, though this ritual is not necessary for a sovereign to reign; for example, Edward VIII was never crowned, yet was undoubtedly king during his short time on the throne. All incumbent viceroys, judges, civil servants, legislators, military officers, etc., are not affected by the death of the monarch. After an individual ascends the throne, he or she typically continues to reign until death. Monarchs are not allowed to unilaterally abdicate; the only monarch to abdicate, Edward VIII, did so before Jamaica was independent, and, even then, only with the authorization of specials Acts of Parliament in the Dominions.

Personification of the state

Further information: The Crown



Royal Standard of Jamaica

Since the independence of Jamaica, the sovereign's role as monarch of Jamaica has been recognised and promoted as separate to his or her position as monarch of the United Kingdom.[1] From the beginning of Queen Elizabeth II's reign onwards, royal symbols in Jamaica were altered or new ones created to make them distinctly Jamaican, such as the augmentation of the Royal Arms of Jamaica in 1962 and Queen's Royal Standard for Jamaica, created in 1962.[6] Today the sovereign is regarded as the personification, or legal personality, of the Jamaican state. Therefore, the state is referred to as *Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Jamaica*; for example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as *Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Jamaica*, or simply *Regina*. As such, the monarch is the owner of all state lands (called *Crown land*), buildings and equipment (called *Crown held property*), state owned companies (called *Crown Corporations*), and the copyright for all government publications (called *Crown copyright*), as well as guardianship of foster children (called *Crown wards*), in his or her position as sovereign, and not as an individual. Government staff are also employed by the monarch, as are the Governor-General, judges, members of the Jamaica Defence Force, police officers, and parliamentarians, who all technically work for the monarch. Many employees of the Crown were once required by law to recite an oath of allegiance to the monarch before taking their posts, in reciprocation to the sovereign's Coronation Oath, wherein he or she promises "to govern the Peoples of ... [Jamaica] ... according to their respective laws and customs".[7] Save for that taken by senators,[8] the oaths of allegiance were altered in 2002, removing mention

of the monarch.[*citation needed*]

Constitutional role

Jamaica's constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Jamaican in origin, which gives Jamaica a similar parliamentary system of government to the other Commonwealth realms, wherein the role of the Queen and the Governor-General is both legal and practical. The Crown is regarded as a corporation, in which several parts share the authority of the whole, with the Queen as the person at the centre of the constitutional construct,[9] meaning all powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the monarch, who is represented by the Governor-General – appointed by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister of Jamaica.[2] Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by this vice-regal representative, though she is briefed through regular communications from her Jamaican ministers, and holds audience with them whenever possible.[4]

All institutions of government are said to act under the sovereign's authority; the vast powers that belong to the Crown are collectively known as the Royal Prerogative. Parliamentary approval is not required for the exercise of the Royal Prerogative; moreover, the consent of the Crown must be obtained before either of the houses of parliament may even debate a bill affecting the sovereign's prerogatives or interests. While the Royal Prerogative is extensive, it is not unlimited; for example, the monarch does not have the prerogative to impose and collect new taxes – such an action requires the authorization of an Act of Parliament. The government of Jamaica is also thus formally referred to as *Her Majesty's Government*. Further, the constitution instructs that any change to the position of the monarch, or the monarch's representative in Jamaica, requires the consent of a two-thirds majority of each house of parliament.[10]

Executive (Queen-in-Council)

In Jamaica's constitutional system, one of the main duties of the Crown is to appoint a prime minister,[2] who thereafter heads the Cabinet and advises the monarch and Governor-General on how to execute their executive powers over all aspects of government operations and foreign affairs; this requirement is, unlike in other Commonwealth realms where it is a matter of convention, constitutionally enshrined in Jamaica.[2] Though the monarch's power is still a part of the executive process – the operation of the Cabinet is technically known as the *Queen-in-Council* (or *Governor-in-Council*) – the advice tendered is typically binding. Since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British Cabinet, the monarch *reigns* but does not *rule*. This means that the monarch's role, and thereby the viceroys' role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments and agencies operate, while the Cabinet directs the use of the Royal Prerogative, which includes the privilege to declare war, maintain the Queen's peace, and direct the actions of the Jamaica Defence Force, as well as to summon and prorogue parliament, and call elections. However, it is important to note that the Royal Prerogative belongs to the Crown, and not to any of the ministers, though it may sometimes appear that way,[9] and the royal figures may unilaterally use these powers in exceptional constitutional crisis situations. There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by, the Queen. These include signing the appointment papers of Governors-General, the confirmation of awards of Jamaican honours, and the approval of any change in her Jamaican title.

In accordance with convention, the monarch or Governor-General, to maintain the stability of government, must appoint as prime minister the individual most likely to maintain the support of the House of Representatives: usually the leader of the political party with a majority in that house, but also when no party or coalition holds a majority (referred to as a minority government situation), or other scenarios in which the Governor-General's judgement about the most suitable candidate for prime minister has to be brought into play. The Governor-

General also appointes to Cabinet the other ministers of the Crown, who are, in turn, accountable to the democratically elected House of Representatives, and through it, to the people. The Queen is informed by her viceroy of the acceptance of the resignation of a prime minister and the swearing-in of a new prime minister and other members of the ministry.

Members of various executive agencies, and other officials are appointed by the Crown. The commissioning of privy councillors, senators, the Speaker of the Senate, Supreme Court justices also falls under the Royal Prerogative, though these duties are specifically assigned to the Governor-General by the constitution.[2] Public inquiries are also commissioned by the Crown through a Royal Warrant, and are called Royal Commissions.

Foreign affairs

The Royal Prerogative also extends to foreign affairs: the sovereign or Governor-General negotiates and ratifies treaties, alliances, and international agreements. As with other uses of the Royal Prerogative, no parliamentary approval is required; however, a treaty cannot alter the domestic laws of Jamaica; an Act of Parliament is necessary in such cases. The Governor-General, on behalf of the Queen, also accredits Jamaican High Commissioners and ambassadors, and receives diplomats from foreign states. In addition, the issuance of passports falls under the Royal Prerogative, and, as such, all Jamaican passports are issued in the monarch's name.

Parliament (Queen-in-Parliament)

The sovereign, along with the Senate and the House of Representatives, is one of the three components of Parliament,[2] called the *Queen-in-Parliament*. The authority of the Crown therein is embodied in the mace for each house,[11] which both bear a crown at their apex. Per the constitution, the monarch does not, however, participate in the legislative process; the viceroy does, though only in the granting of Royal Assent.[2] Further, the constitution outlines that the Governor-General alone is responsible for summoning, proroguing, and dissolving parliament,[2] after which the writs for a general election are usually dropped by the Governor-General at Government House. The new parliamentary session is marked by the State Opening of Parliament, during which either the monarch or the Governor-General reads the Speech from the Throne. As the monarch and viceroy cannot enter the House of Representatives, this, as well as the bestowing of Royal Assent, takes place in the Senate chamber; Members of Parliament are summoned to these ceremonies from the Commons by the Crown's messenger, the Usher of the Black Rod, after he knocks on the doors of the lower house that have been slammed closed on him, to symbolise the barring of the monarch from the assembly.

All laws in Jamaica are enacted only with the viceroy's granting of Royal Assent; usually done by the Governor-General, with the Broad Seal of Jamaica. Thus, all bills begin with the phrase "BE IT ENACTED by The Queen's Most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Representatives of Jamaica, and by the authority of the same, as follows..."

Courts (Queen-on-the-Bench)

The sovereign is deemed the *fount of justice*, and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects, known in this role as the *Queen on the Bench*. However, he or she does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name by what are termed *Her Majesty's Justices of the Peace*.[12] Hence, the common law holds that the sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the monarch personally are not cognizable. In international cases, as a sovereign and under established principles of international law, the Queen of Jamaica is

not subject to suit in foreign courts without her express consent. The sovereign, and by extension the Governor-General, also exercises the *prerogative of mercy*,[2] and may pardon offences against the Crown, either before, during, or after a trial. In addition, the monarch also serves as a symbol of the legitimacy of courts of justice, and of their judicial authority. An image of the Queen or the Coat of arms of Jamaica is always displayed in Jamaican courtrooms.

History

In 1966 Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, accompanied by his son, Prince Charles, Prince of Wales, toured Jamaica as part of his visit there to open that year's Commonwealth Games.[13]

Popularity

Prior to the Queen's 2002 visit, the newspaper *Jamaica Gleaner* said "So as Jamaica looks back, let it also look forward. Let this visit not so much renew old ties as cement new ones."[14] The BBC reported that "despite republican sentiments in the country she was given an enthusiastic welcome."[15] A poll taken in 2002 showed that 57% of Jamaicans thought that the Queen's visit to Jamaica as part of Her Golden Jubilee tour was important.[16][17]

Republicanism

Individuals in both major political parties in Jamaica have voiced support for making Jamaica a republic in the last few years: In September 2003, then Prime Minister of Jamaica P.J. Patterson called for Jamaica to abolish the monarchy by 2007.[18] Bruce Golding, a former prime minister, also pledged that Jamaica shall "take steps to amend the constitution to replace the Queen with a Jamaican President who symbolises the unity of the nation".[19][20]

Current Prime Minister Portia Simpson-Miller has expressed her intention to make Jamaica a republic to coincide with the country's 50th anniversary of independence in August 2012.[21][22]

See also

Other realms

- Current Commonwealth realms

Other

- Figurehead
- Governor-General of Jamaica
- House of Windsor
- Royal descent
- Monarchies in the Americas
- List of monarchies

References

Realm of New Zealand

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Realm of New Zealand** is the entire area in which the Queen in right of New Zealand is head of state. The Realm comprises New Zealand, the Cook Islands, Niue, Tokelau and the Ross Dependency in Antarctica,[1] and is defined by a 1983 Letters Patent constituting the office of Governor-General of New Zealand.[2]

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- 1 Governor-General
- 2 Sovereignty within the Realm
  - 2.1 Cook Islands and Niue
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Governor-General

Main article: Governor-General of New Zealand

The Governor-General of New Zealand represents the head of state (Elizabeth II, in her capacity as Queen of New Zealand) in the area of the Realm. Essentially, Governors-General take on all the dignities and reserve powers of the head of state. As of 2011 the Governor-General is Rt Hon Sir Jerry Mateparae.

Sovereignty within the Realm

Cook Islands and Niue



Map of the Realm of New Zealand

Both the Cook Islands and Niue are said to be self-governing in *free association* with New Zealand. The New Zealand Parliament is not empowered to unilaterally pass legislation in respect of these countries. In foreign affairs and defence issues New Zealand acts on behalf of these countries but only with their advice and consent.

As the Governor-General is resident in New Zealand, the Cook Islands Constitution provides for the distinct position of Queen's Representative. This individual is not subordinate to the Governor-General and acts as the local representative of the Queen in right of New Zealand. As of 2005 Sir Frederick Tutu Goodwin is the Queen's Representative to the Cook Islands. This arrangement effectively allows for the de facto independent actions of

internal and most external areas of governance.

According to the Niue's Constitution of 1974, the Governor-General of New Zealand acts as the Queen's representative.

In the Cook Islands and Niue the New Zealand High Commissioner is the diplomatic representative from New Zealand. John Carter is the New Zealand High Commissioner to the Cook Islands. As of 2009, Anton Ojala is the New Zealand High Commissioner to Niue.

Despite their close relationship to New Zealand, both the Cook Islands and Niue maintain some diplomatic relations in their own name. Both countries maintain High Commissions in New Zealand and have New Zealand High Commissioners resident in their capitals. In Commonwealth practice, High Commissioners represent their governments, not the Head of State.

New Zealand

New Zealand proper consists of the following island groups:

- the North Island, South Island and neighbouring coastal islands, all contained within the 16 regions of New Zealand
- the Chatham Islands to the east, contained within the Chatham Islands Territory
- the Kermadec Islands to the north and sub-Antarctic islands to the south, all outside local authority boundaries and inhabited only by a small number of research and conservation staff

Tokelau

Tokelau has a lesser degree of *de jure* independence than the Cook Islands and Niue have, and had been moving toward free association status. New Zealand's representative in Tokelau is the Administrator of Tokelau and has the power to overturn rules passed by the general fono. The people of Tokelau have generally rejected accepting a system of governance with equal powers to that of Niue and the Cook Islands by the means of several referenda conducted by New Zealand and with the United Nations request.[3]

Ross Dependency

The Ross Dependency is constitutionally part of New Zealand.[4] The Governor-General of New Zealand is also the Governor of the Ross Dependency. The Ross Dependency includes McMurdo Station, operated by the United States, which does not recognise New Zealand sovereignty of Ross Dependency. The application of Sovereignty within the Dependency is subsequent upon the enforcement of terms found within the Antarctic Treaty.

Summary

Area	Representative of the Queen	Head of the Government	Legislature	Capital	Population	Land Area
New Zealand	Governor-General	Prime Minister	House of Representatives	Wellington	4,414,400	268,680 km²
Cook Islands	Queen's Representative	Prime Minister	Parliament of the Cook Islands	Avarua	21,388	236 km²

Niue	Representative of the Queen (the Governor-General of New Zealand)	Premier	Niue Assembly	Alofi	2,145	260 km²
Tokelau	Administrator	Ulu-o-Tokelau (Head of the Council of Ongoing Government)	General Fono	None	1,405	10 km²
Ross Dependency	Governor	Chief Executive	None	Scott Base	Scott Base: 10–80; McMurdo Station: 200–1000 (seasonally)	450,000 km²

Future of the Realm

Within New Zealand there exists some support[5][6] for a New Zealand republic. Should New Zealand become a republic it will retain the Ross Dependency and Tokelau as dependent territories and the Realm of New Zealand would continue to exist without New Zealand, the Ross Dependency and Tokelau.[7] This would not be a legal hurdle to a New Zealand republic as such, and both the Cook Islands and Niue would retain their status as associated states with New Zealand, as New Zealand shares its Head of State with the Cook Islands and Niue in the same way the Commonwealth realms share a Head of State. However, a New Zealand republic would present the issue of independence to the Cook Islands and Niue. Thus, a number of options for the future of the Realm of New Zealand exist should New Zealand become a republic:

- A New Zealand republic with the Cook Islands and Niue remaining in free association with New Zealand, but retaining the Queen of New Zealand as their head of state;
- A New Zealand republic with the Cook Islands and Niue having a new republican head of state as their head of state and becoming independent states;
- A New Zealand republic with the Cook Islands and Niue having their own heads of state, but retaining their status of free association with New Zealand.[7]

See also

- Dominion of New Zealand
- Ross Dependency
- Commonwealth realm
- Monarchy of New Zealand
- Monarchy of the Cook Islands
- Monarchy of Niue
- History of Samoa - a country formerly under New Zealand administration as League of Nations mandate and UN Trust Territory
- History of Nauru - a country where New Zealand was nominal co-trustee along with the with the United Kingdom during a period of League of Nations mandate and later UN Trust Territory under effective

Australian administration.

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4. ^ http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Foreign-Relations/Antarctica/1-New-Zealand-and-Antarctica/index.php
5. ^ A July 2005 poll published in The Press showed 27% support for the question "Do you support New Zealand becoming a republic?", and 67% opposition.
6. ^ A Sunday Star-Times poll, published 20 January 2006, stated there was 47% support for a New Zealand republic, and 47% support for the monarchy.
7. ^ ***a b*** Townend, Andrew (2003). "The Strange Death of the Realm of New Zealand: The Implications of a New Zealand Republic for the Cook Islands and Niue" (http://www.austlii.edu.au/nz/journals/VUWLRev/2003/34.html) . Victoria University of Wellington Law Review. http://www.austlii.edu.au/nz/journals/VUWLRev/2003/34.html. Retrieved 25 July 2010.

External links

- Letters Patent constituting the office of Governor-General of New Zealand (http://www.dpmc.govt.nz/cabinet/manual/letters_patent_constituting.html) — gives explanation for "Realm of New Zealand"
- "Cook Islands" (http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Countries/Pacific/Cook-Islands.php) (NZ Ministry of Foreign Affairs)
- "Niue" (http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Countries/Pacific/Niue.php) (NZ Ministry of Foreign Affairs)
- "New Zealand and the Tokelau Islands" (http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Foreign-Relations/Pacific/Tokelau/index.php) (NZ Ministry of Foreign Affairs)
- "Ross Dependency" (http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Foreign-Relations/1-Global-Issues/Antarctica/1-New-Zealand-Relationship-with-Antarctica/rossdependency.php) (NZ Ministry of Foreign Affairs)

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Categories: Government of New Zealand | Constitution of New Zealand | Realm of New Zealand | States and territories established in 1983 | Overseas empires

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History of New Zealand

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of New Zealand** dates back at least 700 years to when it was discovered and settled by Polynesians, who developed a distinct Māori culture centred on kinship links and land. The first European explorer to discover New Zealand was Abel Janszoon Tasman on 13 December 1642.[1] Captain James Cook, who reached New Zealand on 19 April 1770 on the first of his three voyages,[2] was the first European explorer to circumnavigate and map New Zealand.

From the late 18th century, the country was regularly visited by explorers and other sailors, missionaries, traders and adventurers. In 1840 the Treaty of Waitangi was signed between the British Crown and various Māori chiefs, bringing New Zealand into the British Empire and giving Māori equal rights with British citizens. There was extensive European and some Asian settlement throughout the rest of the century. War and the imposition of a European economic and legal system led to most of New Zealand's land passing from Māori to Pākehā (European) ownership, and most Māori subsequently became impoverished.

From the 1890s the New Zealand parliament enacted a number of progressive initiatives, including women's suffrage and old age pensions. From the 1930s the economy was highly regulated and an extensive welfare state was developed. Meanwhile, Māori culture underwent a renaissance, and from the 1950s Māori began moving to the cities in large numbers. This led to the development of a Māori protest movement which in turn led to greater recognition of the Treaty of Waitangi in the late 20th century. In the 1980s the economy was largely deregulated and a number of socially liberal policies, such as decriminalisation of homosexuality, were put in place. Foreign policy, which had previously consisted mostly of following the United Kingdom or the United States, became more independent. Subsequent governments have generally maintained these policies, although tempering the free market ethos somewhat.

Contents

- 1 Polynesian foundation
- 2 Early contact period
  - 2.1 Explorers and other visitors
  - 2.2 Māori response
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- 4 Colonial period
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Polynesian foundation

New Zealand was originally settled by Polynesians from Eastern Polynesia. The most current reliable evidence strongly indicates that initial settlement of New Zealand occurred around 1280 CE. Previous dating of some Kiore (Polynesian rat) bones at 50 - 150 CE has now been shown to have been unreliable; new samples of bone (and now also of unequivocally rat-gnawed woody seed cases) match the 1280 CE date of the earliest archaeological sites and the beginning of sustained, anthropogenic deforestation.[3]

The descendants of these settlers became known as the Māori, forming a distinct culture of their own. Separate settlement of the tiny Chatham Islands in the east of New Zealand about 1500 CE produced the Moriori people; linguistic evidence indicates that the Moriori were mainland Māori who ventured eastward.[4]

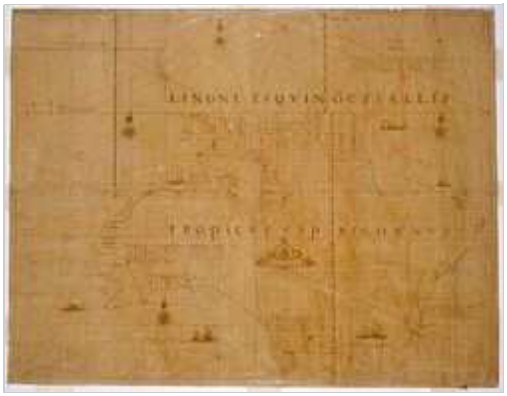
The original settlers quickly exploited the abundant large game in New Zealand, such as moa, large flightless ratites that were pushed to extinction by about 1500. As moa and other large game became scarce or extinct, Māori culture underwent major change, with regional differences. In areas where it was possible to grow taro and kūmara, horticulture became more important. In the south of the South Island, however elsewhere wild plants such as fernroot were often available for harvest and cabbage trees were harvested and cultivated for food. Warfare also increased in importance, reflecting increased competition for land and other resources. In this period, fortified pā became more common, although there is debate about the actual frequency of warfare. As elsewhere in the Pacific, cannibalism was part of warfare. James Belich has written an overview of Māori history from the 11th to the 16th century.[5]

Leadership was based on a system of chieftainship, which was often but not always hereditary, although chiefs (male or female) needed to demonstrate leadership abilities to avoid being superseded by more dynamic individuals. The most important units of pre-European Māori society were the whānau or extended family, and the hapū or group of whānau. After these came the iwi or tribe, consisting of groups of hapū. Related hapū would often trade goods and co-operate on major projects, but conflict between hapū was also relatively common. Traditional Māori society preserved history orally through narratives, songs, and chants; skilled experts could recite the tribal genealogies (*whakapapa*) back for hundreds of years. Arts included whaikōrero (oratory), song composition in multiple genres, dance forms including haka, as well as weaving, highly developed wood carving, and tā moko (tattoo).

Birds, fish and sea mammals were important sources of protein[*citation needed*].[6] Māori cultivated food plants which they had brought with them from Polynesia, including sweet potatoes (called kūmara), taro, gourds and yams. They also cultivated the cabbage tree, a plant endemic to New Zealand, and exploited wild foods such as fern root, which provided a starchy paste.

Early contact period

Explorers and other visitors



The Abel Tasman map 1644, also known as the Bonaparte Tasman map that is part of the collection of the State Library of New South Wales, Australia.

The first Europeans known to reach New Zealand were the crew of Dutch explorer Abel Tasman who arrived in his ships *Heemskerck* and *Zeehaen*. Tasman anchored at the northern end of the South Island in Golden Bay (he named it Murderers' Bay) in December 1642 and sailed northward to Tonga following a clash with local Māori. Tasman sketched sections of the two main islands' west coasts. Tasman called them *Staten Landt*, after the *States-General of the Netherlands*, and that name appeared on his first maps of the country. Dutch cartographers changed the name to *Nova Zeelandia* in Latin, from *Nieuw Zeeland*, after the Dutch province of *Zeeland*. It was subsequently Anglicised as *New Zealand* by British naval captain James Cook of HM Bark *Endeavour* who visited the islands more than 100 years after Tasman during 1769–1770. Cook returned to New Zealand on both of his subsequent voyages. Various claims have been made that New Zealand was reached by other non-Polynesian voyagers before Tasman, but these are not widely accepted. Peter Trickett, for example, argues in *Beyond Capricorn* that the Portuguese explorer Cristóvão de Mendonça reached New Zealand in the 1520s.



First map of New Zealand, drawn by Captain James Cook.

From the 1790s, the waters around New Zealand were visited by British, French and American whaling, sealing and trading ships. Their crews traded European goods, including guns and metal tools, for Māori food, water, wood, flax and sex.[7] Māori were reputed to be enthusiastic and canny traders. Although there were some conflicts, such as the killing of French explorer Marc-Joseph Marion du Fresne and the destruction of the *Boyd*, most contact between Māori and European was peaceful. From the 19th century missionaries began settling in New Zealand and attempting to convert Māori to Christianity and control the considerably lawless European visitors.

Māori response

The effect of contact on Māori varied. In some inland areas life went on more or less unchanged, although a European metal tool such as a fish-hook or hand axe might be acquired through trade with other tribes. At the other end of the scale, tribes that frequently encountered Europeans, such as Ngā Puhi in Northland, underwent major changes.

Pre-European Māori had no distance weapons except for tao (spears)[8] and the introduction of the musket had an enormous impact on Māori warfare. Tribes with muskets would attack tribes without them, killing or enslaving many.[9] As a result, guns became very valuable and Māori would trade huge quantities of goods for a single musket. The Musket Wars died out in the 1830s after most tribes had acquired muskets and a new balance of power was achieved. In 1835, the peaceful Moriori of the Chatham Islands were attacked, enslaved, and nearly exterminated by mainland Ngāti Mutunga and Ngāti Tama Māori.[10] In the 1901 census, only 35 Moriori

were recorded although the numbers subsequently increased.[11]

Around this time, many Māori converted to Christianity. The reasons for this have been hotly debated, and may include social and cultural disruption caused by the Musket Wars and European contact. Other factors may have been the appeal of a religion that promotes peace and forgiveness, a desire to emulate the Europeans and to gain a similar abundance of material goods, and the Māori's polytheistic culture that easily accepted the new God.

European settlement

European settlement increased through the early decades of the 19th century, with numerous trading stations established, especially in the North. The first full-blooded European infant in the territory, Thomas King, was born in 1815 in the Bay of Islands. Kerikeri, founded in 1822, and Bluff founded in 1823, both claim to be the oldest European settlements in New Zealand.

Many Europeans bought land from Māori, but misunderstanding and different concepts of land ownership led to conflict and bitterness. In 1839, the New Zealand Company announced plans to buy large tracts of land and establish colonies in New Zealand. This alarmed the missionaries, who called for British control of European settlers in New Zealand.

British sovereignty

In 1788 the colony of New South Wales had been founded. According to Captain Phillip's amended Commission, dated 25 April 1787, the colony included *all the islands adjacent in the Pacific Ocean within the latitudes of 10°37'S and 43°39'S* which included most of New Zealand except for the southern half of the South Island. In 1825 with Van Diemen's Land becoming a separate colony, the southern boundary of New South Wales was altered[12] to the islands adjacent in the Pacific Ocean with a southern boundary of 39°12'S which included only the northern half of the North Island. However, these boundaries had no real impact as the New South Wales administration had little interest in New Zealand.[13]

In response to complaints about lawless white sailors and adventurers in New Zealand, the British government appointed James Busby as Official Resident in 1832. In 1834 he encouraged Māori chiefs to assert their sovereignty with the signing of the *Declaration of Independence* in 1835. This was acknowledged by King William IV. Busby was provided with neither legal authority nor military support and was thus ineffective in controlling the European population.

Treaty of Waitangi

Main article: Treaty of Waitangi

In 1839, the New Zealand Company announced its plans to establish colonies in New Zealand. This, and the continuing lawlessness of many of the established settlers, spurred the British to take stronger action. Captain William Hobson was sent to New Zealand to persuade Māori to cede their sovereignty to the British Crown. In reaction to the New Zealand Company's moves, on 15 June 1839 a new Letters patent was issued to expand the territory of New South Wales to include all of New Zealand. Governor of New South Wales George Gipps was appointed Governor over New Zealand. This was the first clear expression of British intent to annex New Zealand.

On 6 February 1840, Hobson and about forty Māori chiefs signed the Treaty of Waitangi at Waitangi in the Bay of Islands. Copies of the Treaty were subsequently taken around the country to be signed by other chiefs. A

significant number refused to sign or were not asked but, in total, more than five hundred Māori eventually signed.

The Treaty gave Māori sovereignty over their lands and possessions and all of the rights of British citizens. What it gave the British in return depends on the language-version of the Treaty that is referred to. The English version can be said to give the British Crown sovereignty over New Zealand but in the Māori version the Crown receives *kawanatanga*, which, arguably, is a lesser power (see Treaty of Waitangi#Meaning and interpretation). Dispute over the true meaning and the intent of either party remains an issue.

Britain was motivated by the desire to forestall other European powers (France established a very small settlement at Akaroa in the South Island later in 1840), to facilitate settlement by British subjects and, possibly, to end the lawlessness of European (predominantly British and American) whalers, sealers and traders. Officials and missionaries had their own positions and reputations to protect.

Māori chiefs were motivated by a desire for protection from foreign powers, the establishment of governorship over European settlers and traders in New Zealand, and to allow for wider settlement that would increase trade and prosperity for Māori.[14]

Hobson died in September 1842. Robert FitzRoy, the new governor, took some legal steps to recognise Māori custom. However, his successor, George Grey, promoted rapid cultural assimilation and reduction of the land ownership, influence and rights of the Māori. The practical effect of the Treaty was, in the beginning, only gradually felt, especially in predominantly Māori regions.

Colonial period

Having been administered, through 1840 when the treaty was signed, as a part of the Australian colony of New South Wales, New Zealand became a colony in its own right on 3 May 1841. It was divided into provinces that were reorganised in 1846 and in 1853, when they acquired their own legislatures, and then abolished in 1876. The country rapidly gained some measure of self-government through the New Zealand Constitution Act 1852, which established central and provincial government.

Immigration

Main article: Immigration to New Zealand

From 1840 there was considerable European settlement, primarily from England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland; and to a lesser extent the United States, India, and various parts of continental Europe, including the province of Dalmatia[15] in what is now Croatia, and Bohemia[16] in what is now the Czech Republic. Already a majority of the population by 1859, the number of white settlers (called *Pākehā* by Māori) increased rapidly to reach a million by 1911.

In the 1870s and 1880s, several thousand Chinese men, mostly from Guangdong province, migrated to New Zealand to work on the South Island goldfields. Although the first Chinese migrants had been invited by the Otago Provincial government they quickly became the target of hostility from white settlers and laws were enacted specifically to discourage them from coming to New Zealand.[17]

Māori adaptation and resistance

Māori had welcomed Pākehā for the trading opportunities and guns they brought. However it soon became clear that they had underestimated the number of settlers that would arrive in their lands. *Iwi* (tribes) whose land was

the base of the main settlements quickly lost much of their land and autonomy through government acts. Others prospered—until about 1860 the city of Auckland bought most of its food from Māori who grew and sold it themselves. Many *iwi* owned flour mills, ships and other items of European technology, some exported food to Australia. Although race relations were generally peaceful in this period, there were conflicts over who had ultimate power in particular areas—the Governor or the Māori chiefs. One such conflict was the Northern or Flagstaff War of the 1840s, during which the town of Kororareka was destroyed.



"First Scottish Colony for New Zealand" — 1839 poster advertising emigration from Scotland to New Zealand. Collection of Kelvingrove Art Gallery and Museum, Glasgow, Scotland.

As the *Pākehā* population grew, pressure grew on Māori to sell more land. A few tribes had become nearly landless and others feared losing their lands. Land is not only an economic resource, but also the basis of Māori identity and a connection with their ancestors. Land was held communally, it was not given up without discussion and consultation—or loss during warfare.

Pākehā had little understanding of all that and accused Māori of holding onto land they did not use efficiently. Competition for land was a primary cause of the New Zealand Land Wars of the 1860s and 1870s, in which the Taranaki and Waikato regions were invaded by colonial troops and Māori of these regions had much of their land taken from them. The wars and confiscation left bitterness that remains to this day.

Some *iwi* sided with the government and, later, fought with the government. They were motivated partly by the thought that an alliance with the government would benefit them, and partly by old feuds with the *iwi* they fought against. One result of their co-operation strategy was the establishment of the four Māori seats in parliament, in 1867.

After the wars, some Māori began a strategy of passive resistance, most famously at Parihaka in Taranaki. Others continued co-operating with *Pākehā*. For example, tourism ventures were established by Te Arawa around Rotorua. Resisting and co-operating *iwi* both found that the *Pākehā* desire for land remained. In the last decades of the century, most *iwi* lost substantial amounts of land through the activities of the Native Land Court. This was set up to give Māori land *European-style* titles and to establish *exactly* who owned it. Due to its Eurocentric rules, the high fees, its location remote from the lands in question, and unfair practices by many Pākehā land agents, its main effect was to directly or indirectly separate Māori from their land.

The combination of war, confiscations, disease,[18] assimilation and intermarriage,[19] land loss leading to poor housing and alcohol abuse, and general disillusionment, caused a fall in the Māori population from around 86,000 in 1769 to around 70,000 in 1840 and around 48,000 by 1874, hitting a low point of 42,000 in 1896.[20] Subsequently their numbers began to recover.

South Island

While the North Island was convulsed by the Land Wars, the South Island, with its low Māori population, was generally peaceful. In 1861 gold was discovered at Gabriel's Gully in Central Otago, sparking a gold rush. Dunedin became the wealthiest city in the country and many in the South Island resented financing the North Island's wars. In 1865 Parliament voted on a Bill to make the South Island independent: it was defeated 17 to 31.

The South Island contained most of the Pākehā population until around 1900 when the North Island again took

the lead and has supported an ever greater majority of the country's total population through the 20th century and into the 21st.

1890s

Major changes occurred during this decade. The economy—based on wool and local trade—changed to the export of frozen meat and dairy products to Britain. This change was enabled by the invention of refrigerated shipping that allowed foodstuff to be transported over long distances. Refrigerated shipping remained the basis of New Zealand's economy until the 1970s. In the 21st century, New Zealand's trade in skim milk and butter increased, thanks to their high price.

The decade also saw the advent of party politics, with the establishment of the First Liberal government. This government established the basis of the welfare state, with old age pensions, developed a system for settling industrial disputes, which was accepted by both employers and unions, and in 1893 extended voting rights to women, making New Zealand the first country in the world to enact universal female suffrage.

Dominion and Realm

Main article: Independence of New Zealand

New Zealand initially expressed interest in joining the proposed Federation of the Australian colonies, attending the 1891 National Australia Convention in Sydney. Interest in the proposed Australian Federation faded and New Zealand decided against joining the Commonwealth of Australia in 1901, and instead changed from being a colony to a separate "dominion" in 1907, equal in status to Australia and Canada.



Historical map of Australia and New Zealand, 1788-1911.

Prohibition

In New Zealand, prohibition was a moralistic reform movement begun in the mid-1880s by the Protestant evangelical and Nonconformist churches and the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and after 1890 by the Prohibition League. It never achieved its goal of national prohibition. It was a middle-class movement which accepted the existing economic and social order; the effort to legislate morality assumed that individual redemption was all that was needed to carry the colony forward from a pioneering society to a more mature one. However, both the Church of England and the largely Irish Catholic Church rejected prohibition as an intrusion of government into the church's domain, while the growing labor movement saw capitalism rather than alcohol as the enemy. Reformers hoped that the women's vote, in which New Zealand was a pioneer, would swing the balance, but the women were not as well organized as in other countries. Prohibition had a majority in a national referendum in 1911, but needed a 60% vote to pass. The movement kept trying in the 1920s, losing three more referenda by close votes; it managed to keep in place a 6pm closing hour for pubs and Sunday closing. The Depression and war years effectively ended the movement.[21][22]

First World War

Main article: Military history of New Zealand in World War I

The country remained an enthusiastic member of the British Empire, and 100,000 men fought in World War I (see New Zealand Expeditionary Force). New Zealand forces took Western Samoa from Germany in the early stages of the war, and New Zealand administered the country until Samoan Independence in 1962.[23]

1920s

New Zealand depended on Britain's Royal Navy for its military security during the 1920s and 1930s. Officials in Wellington trusted Conservative Party governments in London, but not Labour. When the British Labour Party took power in 1924 and 1929, the New Zealand government felt threatened by Labour's foreign policy because of its reliance upon the League of Nations. The League was distrusted and Wellington did not see the coming of a peaceful world order under League auspices. What had been the Empire's most loyal dominion became a dissenter as it opposed efforts the first and second British Labour governments to trust the League's framework of arbitration and collective security agreements.[24]

Depression

Like most other countries, New Zealand was hard hit by the Great Depression of the 1930s, which affected the country via its international trade, with farming export drops then going on to affect the money supply and in turn consumption, investment and imports. The country was most affected around 1930-1932, when average farm incomes for a short time dipped below zero, and the unemployment rates peaked. Though actual unemployment numbers were not officially counted, the country was affected especially strongly in the North Island.[25]

Unlike later years, there were no public benefit ('dole') payments — the unemployed were given 'relief work', much of which was however not very productive, partly because the size of the problem was unprecedented. Women also increasingly registered as unemployed, while Maori received government help through other channels such as the land development schemes organised by Apirana Ngata. In 1933, 8.5% of the unemployed were organised in work camps, while the rest received work close to their homes. Typical occupations in relief work were road work (undertaken by 45% of all part-time and 19% of all full-time relief workers in 1934, with park improvement works (17%) and farm work (31%) being the other two most common types of work for part-time and full-time relief workers respectively).[25]

Attempts by the conservative Liberal-Reform coalition to deal with the situation with spending cuts and relief work were ineffective and unpopular. In 1935, the First Labour Government was elected, and the post-depression decade showed that average Labour support in New Zealand had roughly doubled comparable to pre-depression times. By 1935 economic conditions had improved somewhat, and the new government had more positive financial conditions,[25] under which it established a full welfare state, which included free health care and education and state assistance for the elderly, infirm, and unemployed. The programme was retained and expanded by successive National and Labour governments.

Second World War

Main article: Military history of New Zealand in World War II

When World War II broke out, New Zealand contributed some 120,000 troops. They mostly fought in Europe, relying on the Royal Navy and later the United States to protect New Zealand from the Japanese forces, who never reached as far as the New Zealand mainland except with some highly publicized but essentially ineffective

scouting incursions. The cooperation with the United States meanwhile set a direction of policy which resulted in the ANZUS Treaty between New Zealand, America and Australia in 1951, which was to hold until disagreements over nuclear armaments decades later.

Maori Urbanisation

Many Māori fought in World War II, and many others moved from their rural homes to the cities to take up jobs vacated by Pākehā servicemen.[26] The shift to the cities was also caused by their strong birth rates in the early 20th century, with the existing rural farms in Māori ownership having increasing difficulty in providing enough jobs.[26] Māori culture had meanwhile undergone a renaissance thanks in part to politician Apirana Ngata. World War II saw the beginning of a mass Māori migration to the cities, and by the 1980s 80% of the Māori population was urban, in contrast to only 20% before the war. The migration led to better pay, standards of living and education for most Māori, but also exposed problems of racism and discrimination. By the late 1960s, a protest movement had emerged to combat racism, promote Māori culture and seek fulfillment of the Treaty of Waitangi.

The urbanisation of the country was far from restricted to Māori. In the late 1940s, town planners noted that the country was "possibly the third most urbanised country in the world", with two thirds of the population living in cities or towns. There was also increasing concern that this trend was badly managed, with it being noted that there was an "ill-defined urban pattern that appears to have few of the truly desirable urban qualities and yet manifests no compensating rural characteristics."[27]

Post-war

The Māori protest movement was just one of several movements which emerged at this time to challenge the conservatism of mainstream New Zealand culture. This culture, and the country's economy, was based on being an offshoot of Britain. From the 1890s, the economy had been based almost entirely on the export of frozen meat and dairy products to Britain, and in 1961, the share of New Zealand exports going to the United Kingdom was still at slightly over 51%, with approximately 15% more going to other European countries.[28] This system was irreparably damaged by Britain joining the European Economic Community in 1973. Britain's accession to the European Community forced New Zealand to not only find new markets, but also re-examine its national identity and place in the world.

Robert Muldoon, Prime Minister from 1975 to 1984, and his Third National government responded to the crises of the 1970s by attempting to preserve the New Zealand of the 1950s. His conservatism and antagonistic style helped create an atmosphere of conflict in New Zealand, most violently expressed during the 1981 Springbok Tour. Some innovations did take place, for example the Closer Economic Relations agreement with Australia, and in 1983 the term "dominion" was replaced with "realm" by letters patent.

Reform

In 1984, the Fourth Labour government was elected. Propelled into office amid a constitutional and economic crisis, the new government embarked on a policy of restructuring, known as Rogernomics. This involved floating the New Zealand dollar, cutting government spending, reducing most taxes and introducing a sales tax (GST), and removing almost all industry subsidies. Although many of these changes improved the economy, they also created widespread unemployment, which was made worse by the 1987 stock market crash.

The Fourth Labour Government also revolutionised New Zealand's foreign policy, making the country a nuclear-free zone and effectively leaving the ANZUS alliance. Immigration policy was liberalised, allowing an influx of immigrants from Asia. Previously most immigrants to New Zealand had been European and especially

British, apart from some migrants from other Pacific Islands such as Samoa. Other fourth Labour government innovations included greater recognition of the Treaty of Waitangi through the Waitangi Tribunal, Homosexual Law Reform, the Constitution Act 1986 and the New Zealand Bill of Rights.

Unhappy with the speed and extent of reforms, voters elected a National government in 1990, led by Jim Bolger. However the new government continued the economic reforms of the previous Labour government, in what was known as Ruthanasia. Unhappy with what seemed to be a pattern of governments failing to reflect the mood of the electorate, New Zealanders in 1992 and 1993 voted to change the electoral system to Mixed Member Proportional (MMP), a form of proportional representation. New Zealand's first MMP election was held in 1996. Following the election National was returned to power in coalition with the New Zealand First Party.

New Zealand today

The Fifth Labour government led by Helen Clark was elected in 1999. It maintained most of the previous governments' economic reforms — restricting government intervention in the economy much more so than previous governments — while putting more of an emphasis on social policy and outcomes. For example, employment law was modified to give more protection to workers, and the student loan system was changed to eliminate interest payments for New Zealand resident students and graduates. Helen Clark's Labour government remained in power for nine years before being replaced in 2008 by New Zealand's Fifth National government led by John Key.

New Zealand retains strong but informal links to Britain, with many young New Zealanders travelling to Britain for their "OE" (overseas experience) due to favourable working visa arrangements with Britain. Despite New Zealand's immigration liberalisation in the 1980s, Britons are still the largest group of migrants to New Zealand, due in part to recent immigration law changes which privilege fluent speakers of English. A few constitutional links to Britain remain — the New Zealand Sovereign is a British resident, for example. However, British imperial honours were discontinued in 1996, the Governor-General has taken a more active role in representing New Zealand overseas, and appeals from the Court of Appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council were replaced by a local Supreme Court of New Zealand in 2003. From time to time there is public debate about whether New Zealand should become a republic, and public sentiment is divided on the issue.

Foreign policy has been essentially independent since the mid 1980s. New Zealand contributed troops to the Afghanistan War, but did not contribute troops to the Iraq War although some medical and engineering units were sent.

For a developed country, New Zealand's economy is still very dependent on farming, although the old trinity of meat, dairy and wool has been supplemented by fruit, wine, timber and other products. Tourism is a major industry, and the country has been successful in attracting several major film productions, most notably the *Lord of the Rings* trilogy, directed by New Zealander Peter Jackson, which in turn bolstered New Zealand's tourism image.

Recent earthquakes

> *Main articles: Earthquakes in New Zealand, 2010 Canterbury earthquake, and 2011 Christchurch earthquake*

New Zealand's location at the southern end of the Pacific Rim of Fire has produced many earthquakes.[29] Attracting worldwide attention was one on 22 February 2011 that hit the second largest city Christchurch with 6.3 magnitude. This earthquake was an aftershock of a 7.1 magnitude earthquake the previous September. The 2010 earthquake caused severe damage to Christchurch and the Canterbury region, but there was no loss of life.

However, the 2011 earthquake's shallow depth and closer proximity to Christchurch caused severe damage to the city and the loss of over 170 lives.

See also

- Constitution of New Zealand#History
- History of education in New Zealand
- History of Oceania
- History of voting in New Zealand
- List of Prime Ministers of New Zealand
- Military history of New Zealand
- Politics of New Zealand#Modern political history
- Timeline of the New Zealand environment
- Timeline of New Zealand history

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Monarchy of New Zealand

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of New Zealand** – also referred to as *The Crown in Right of New Zealand*, *Her Majesty in Right of New Zealand*, or *The Queen in Right of New Zealand* – is the constitutional system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign and head of state of the Realm of New Zealand,[1][2] forming the core of the country's Westminster-style parliamentary democracy. The Crown is thus the foundation of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of the New Zealand government.[3]

While Royal Assent and the royal sign-manual are required to enact laws, letters patent, and Orders in Council, the authority for these acts stems from the New Zealand populace,[4] and, within the conventional stipulations of constitutional monarchy, the sovereign's direct participation in any of these areas of governance is limited, with most related powers entrusted for exercise by the elected parliamentarians, the ministers of the Crown generally drawn from amongst them, and the judges and Justices of the Peace.

Queen of New Zealand

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of New Zealand



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Edward VII
Formation:	26 September 1907

The New Zealand monarchy has its roots in the British crown, from which it has evolved to become a distinctly New Zealand institution, represented by unique symbols. The New Zealand monarch – since 6 February 1952, Elizabeth II – is today shared equally with fifteen other countries within the Commonwealth of Nations, all being independent and the monarchy of each legally distinct. For New Zealand, the monarch is officially titled *Queen of New Zealand*, and she, her consort, and other members of the New Zealand Royal Family undertake various public and private functions across New Zealand and on behalf of the country abroad. However, the Queen is the only member of the Royal Family with any constitutional role. While several powers are the sovereign's alone, because she lives predominantly in the United Kingdom, most of the royal constitutional and ceremonial duties in New Zealand and Niue are carried out by the Queen's viceroy, the Governor-General and the Queen's Representative in The Cook Islands.[5] As the territories of the Realm of New Zealand are not sovereign, they do not have a viceregal representation.

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International and domestic aspects

Further information: Commonwealth realm > Relationship of the realms

New Zealand shares the same monarch with each of 15 monarchies in the 54-member Commonwealth of Nations, a grouping known informally as the Commonwealth realms. The emergence of this arrangement paralleled the evolution of New Zealand nationalism following the end of the First World War and culminated in the passage of the Statute of Westminster Adoption Act in 1947, since when the pan-national Crown has had both a shared and separate character,[6] and the sovereign's role as monarch of New Zealand has been distinct to his or her position as monarch of the United Kingdom.[1] The monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, and in New Zealand became a New Zealand establishment, though it is still often misnomered as "British" in both legal and common language, for reasons historical, political, and of convenience; this conflicts with not only the government's recognition and promotion of a distinctly New Zealand Crown, but also the sovereign's distinct New Zealand title.

Effective with the Constitution Act 1986, no British or other realm government can advise the sovereign on any matters pertinent to New Zealand, meaning that on all matters of the New Zealand state, the monarch is advised solely by New Zealand Ministers of the Crown.[7] As the monarch lives predominantly outside of New Zealand, one of the most important of these state duties carried out on the advice of the Prime Minister of New Zealand is the appointment of the Governor-General, who performs most of the Queen's domestic duties in her absence.[8][9][10] All royal powers in New Zealand may be carried out by both the monarch and Governor-General, and, in New Zealand law, the offices of monarch and Governor-General are fully interchangeable, mention of one always simultaneously including the other.[11]

Cost

The sovereign similarly only draws from New Zealand coffers for support in the performance of her duties when

in New Zealand or acting as Queen of New Zealand abroad; New Zealanders do not pay any money to the Queen or any other member of the Royal Family, either towards personal income or to support royal residences outside of New Zealand. Normally, tax dollars pay only for the costs associated with the Governor-General and Queen's Representative as instruments of the Queen's authority, including travel, security, residences, offices, ceremonies, and the like. Supporters of the monarchy argue it costs New Zealand taxpayers only a small outlay for royal engagements and tours, and the expenses of the Governor-General's establishment. Monarchy New Zealand states "[t]his figure is about one dollar per person per year", about $4.3 million per annum.[12] An analysis by the Republican Movement of the 2010 Budget shows the office of Governor-General costs New Zealand taxpayers about $7.6 million in ongoing costs and $11 million for Government House upgrades, a total of $18.6 million.[13][14][15] These figures are disputed by Monarchy New Zealand, who claim the Republican Movement "arbitrarily inflated the cost of the Governor-General".[16]

Succession

Succession is by male-preference primogeniture governed by both the Act of Settlement 1701, and Bill of Rights 1689, legislation that limits the succession to the natural (i.e. non-adopted), legitimate descendants of Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and stipulates that the monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. Though, via adopting the Statute of Westminster and the Imperial Laws Application Act 1988, these constitutional documents as they apply to New Zealand now lie within the full control of the New Zealand parliament,[17] New Zealand also agreed not to change its rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship; a situation that applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the United Kingdom, and has been likened to a treaty amongst these countries.[18] Thus, New Zealand's line of succession remains identical to that of the United Kingdom. As such, the rules for succession are not fixed, but may be changed by a constitutional amendment; in December 2009, Prime Minister John Key expressed his support for proposed removal of male-preference primogeniture and anti-Catholic provisions in the succession laws.[19] The Constitution Act 1986 specifies that should a regent be installed in the United Kingdom, that individual will carry out the functions of the monarch of New Zealand.[20]



Charles, Prince of Wales, is the heir apparent to the New Zealand throne.

Upon a *demise of the Crown* (the death or abdication of a sovereign), the late sovereign's heir immediately and automatically succeeds, without any need for confirmation or further ceremony – hence arises the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!." It is customary, though, for the accession of the new monarch to be publicly proclaimed by the Governor-General on behalf of the Executive Council of New Zealand. Following an appropriate period of mourning, the monarch is also crowned in the United Kingdom in an ancient ritual, but one not necessary for a sovereign to reign.[n 1] Other than a transfer of all royal powers and functions to the new monarch from his or her predecessor, no other law or office is affected, as all references in legislation to previous monarchs, whether in the masculine (e.g. *His Majesty*) or feminine (e.g. *the Queen*), continue to mean the reigning sovereign of New Zealand.[21] After an individual ascends the throne, he or she typically continues to reign until death, being unable to unilaterally abdicate per the tenets of constitutional monarchy.[n 2]

Title

Further information: List of titles and honours of Queen Elizabeth II

One of the first post-Second World War examples of New Zealand's status as an independent monarchy was the alteration of the monarch's title by the Royal Titles Act 1953. For the first time, the official New Zealand title mentioned New Zealand separately from the United Kingdom and the other realms, to highlight the monarch's role specifically as Queen of New Zealand, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms; the title at that time was: *"Elizabeth II, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom, New Zealand and Her Other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith"*. Since the passage of the Royal Titles Act 1974, the monarch's title in New Zealand has been *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God Queen of New Zealand and Her Other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith*.

Although the Queen's New Zealand title includes the phrase *Defender of the Faith*, neither the Queen nor the Governor-General has any religious role in New Zealand; there has never been an established church in the country. This is one of the key differences from the Queen's role in England, where she is Supreme Governor of the Church of England.

Representation of the state

As the living embodiment of the Crown, the sovereign is regarded as the personification, or legal personality, of the New Zealand state,[7] with the state therefore referred to as *Her Majesty The Queen in Right of New Zealand*,[n 3][22] or *The Crown*. As such, the monarch is the employer of all government staff (including the viceroys, judges, members of the New Zealand Defence Force, police officers, and parliamentarians), the guardian of foster children (*Crown wards*), as well as the owner of all state lands (*Crown land*), buildings and equipment (*Crown held property*), state owned companies (*Crown entities*),[23] and the copyright for all government publications (*Crown copyright*). This is all in his or her position as sovereign, and not as an individual; all such property is held by the Crown in perpetuity and cannot be sold by the sovereign without the proper advice and consent of his or her ministers.

As the embodiment of the state, the monarch tops the New Zealand order of precedence, and is also the locus of oaths of allegiance,[24] required of many employees of the Crown,[25] as well as by new citizens, as per the Oath of Citizenship laid out in the Citizenship Act. This is done in reciprocation to the sovereign's Coronation Oath, wherein he or she promises "to govern the Peoples of... New Zealand... according to their respective laws and customs."[26]

Constitutional role

New Zealand's constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or New Zealand in origin,[17] and together give New Zealand a parliamentary system of government wherein the role of the Queen is both legal and practical. The Crown is regarded as a corporation, with the sovereign, in the position of head of state,[2] as the centre of a construct in which the power of the whole is shared by multiple institutions of government acting under the sovereign's authority.[27] Though this power stems from the people, all New Zealanders live under the authority of the monarch.

The vast powers that belong to the Crown are collectively known as the Royal Prerogative,[10] the exercise of which does not require parliamentary approval, though it is not unlimited; for example, the monarch does not have the prerogative to impose and collect new taxes without the authorization of an Act of Parliament. The consent of the Crown must, however, be obtained before either of the houses of parliament may even debate a bill affecting the sovereign's prerogatives or interests, and no act of parliament binds the Queen or her rights unless the act states that it does.

Executive

The government of New Zealand is defined by the constitution as the Queen acting on the advice of her Executive Council.[28] One of the main duties of the Crown is to ensure that a democratically elected government is always in place, which means appointing a prime minister to thereafter head the Cabinet – a committee of the Executive Council charged with advising the Crown on the exercise of the Royal Prerogative,[29] and legally required to keep the Governor-General up to date on state affairs.[30][31] The Queen is informed by her viceroy of the swearing-in and resignation of prime ministers and other members of the ministry, remains fully briefed through regular communications from her New Zealand ministers, and holds audience with them whenever possible.[1]

In the construct of constitutional monarchy and responsible government, the ministerial advice tendered is typically binding, meaning the monarch *reigns* but does not *rule*. However, the Royal Prerogative belongs to the Crown and not to any of the ministers,[27] and the royal and viceroyal figures may unilaterally use these powers in exceptional constitutional crisis situations,[27][30][32] thereby allowing the monarch to make sure that the government conducts itself in compliance with the constitution. There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by, the Queen; these include applying the royal sign-manual and Seal of New Zealand to the appointment papers of governors-general, the confirmation of awards of New Zealand Royal Honours,[33] and the approval of any change in her New Zealand title.



The ministers of the Fifth Labour Government with then Governor-General Dame Silvia Cartwright, 20 October 2005.

Foreign affairs

The Royal Prerogative also extends to foreign affairs: the sovereign or the Governor-General negotiates and ratifies treaties, alliances, and international agreements, on the advice of the Cabinet. The Governor-General, on behalf of the Queen, also accredits New Zealand High Commissioners and ambassadors, and receives similar diplomats from foreign states. In 2005, the Letters of Credence and Recall were altered so as to run in the name of the incumbent Governor-General, instead of following the usual international process of the letters being from one head of state to another. In addition, the issuance of passports falls under the Royal Prerogative, and, as such, all New Zealand passports are issued in the monarch's name and remain her property.

Parliament

The sovereign is one of the two components of parliament,[32] but the monarch and viceroy do not participate in the legislative process save for the granting of Royal Assent, which is necessary for a bill to be enacted as law; either figure or a delegate may perform this task, and the viceroy has the option of deferring assent to the sovereign. The Crown is further responsible for summoning, proroguing, and dissolving the House of Representatives,[34] after which the Governor-General usually calls for a general election. The new parliamentary session is marked by either the monarch or the Governor-General reading the Speech from the Throne;[35] as the both are traditionally barred from the House of Representatives, this ceremony, as well as the bestowing of Royal Assent, takes place in the Legislative Council Chamber; the monarch has formally opened parliament on five occasions: January 1954, February 1963, March 1970, February 1986, and February 1990.[36] Despite the sovereign's exclusion, Members of Parliament must still express their loyalty to her and defer to her authority, as the Oath of Allegiance must be recited by all new parliamentarians before they may take their seat, and the official opposition is traditionally dubbed as *Her Majesty's Loyal Opposition*.

Courts

The sovereign is responsible for rendering justice for all her subjects, and is thus traditionally deemed the *fount of justice*. However, she does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead the judicial functions of the Royal Prerogative are performed in trust and in the Queen's name by Officers of Her Majesty's Court. The monarch is immune from criminal prosecution, the notion in common law being that the sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the Queen-in-Council) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the monarch personally are not cognizable. The monarch, and by extension the Governor-General, also grants immunity from prosecution, exercises the *Royal Prerogative of Mercy*,[10] and may pardon offences against the Crown, either before, during, or after a trial.

As the judges and courts are the sovereign's judges and courts, and as all law in New Zealand derives from the Crown, the monarch stands to give legitimacy to courts of justice, and is the source of their judicial authority. The Arms of Her Majesty in Right of New Zealand is always displayed in New Zealand courtrooms.

The Crown and the New Zealand Defence Force

The Crown also sits at the pinnacle of the New Zealand Defence Force. The Governor-General is Commander-in-Chief and under the Defence Act 1990 is authorised to "raise and maintain armed forces",[38] consisting of the New Zealand Army, Royal New Zealand Navy, and Royal New Zealand Air Force. The sovereign's position as Head of the Armed Forces [39] is reflected in New Zealand's naval vessels bearing the prefix *Her Majesty's New Zealand Ship* (*His Majesty's New Zealand Ship* in the reign of a male monarch), and in the requirement that all members of the armed forces swear their allegiance to the sovereign and his or her heirs and successors.[40] The Governor-General commissions officers to command the forces;[32] Saluting of these individuals by soldiers is, besides a sign of personal respect, an indirect salute to the monarch and her authority.



King George VI speaks with a Royal New Zealand Air Force Flight Lieutenant at RAF Scampton, 27 May 1943.

Though the monarch and members of her family also act as Colonels-in-Chief of various regiments in the military, these posts are only ceremonial in nature, reflecting the Crown's relationship with the military through participation in military ceremonies both at home and abroad.[n 4] Various regiments have also received a *royal* prefix, such as the Corps of Royal New Zealand Engineers, the Royal New Zealand Infantry Regiment, and the Royal New Zealand Army Logistic Regiment.

> *Allegiance [by Defence Force personnel is to] the Sovereign, [however] loyalty [is] to the Government of the day... The Defence Force and the disposition of those Forces are at the decision... of Her Majesty's Ministers for the time being.*[37]
>
> State Services Commission, December 2001

One particular area of note is that the country's only currently ranked Admiral of the Fleet is Prince Philip, the Queen's consort. This title is held in conjunction with those of Field Marshal and Marshal of the Royal New Zealand Air Force.

The Crown and Māori

Māori interaction with the Crown dates back to 1832, when King William IV in his British Council appointed James Busby as Resident, to address concerns on the part of Māori in the Bay of Islands over expanding European settlements in that area. On 28 October 1835, Busby oversaw a *hui* (forum) held at Waitangi, at which

a flag was selected for New Zealand and a declaration of independence written by Busby was signed by 36 Māori chiefs; both were acknowledged the following year by the King in a letter from Lord Glenelg.[42]

As a result the declaration's ratification by the House of Commons in 1836, officials in the Colonial Office determined in 1839 that a treaty of cessation would need to be signed with Māori for the British Crown to acquire sovereignty over New Zealand.[43] The Treaty of Waitangi was signed in 1840 by representatives of the British Crown and over 500 Māori chiefs, and is considered the founding document of the nation.[44] The Treaty identifies the Crown's right to Kawanatanga or Governorship, leading one Maori academic to argue that Kawanatanga, or the New Zealand Government, is party to the Treaty.[45]

Since the treaty's implementation, a number of petitions have been made by Māori directly to the sovereign in London, whom they felt they had a special relationship, the first coming from northern chiefs in 1852. This and all subsequent appeals were directed back to the sovereign's New Zealand ministers for advice on how to proceed.[46] The results were not always favorable to Māori, who have communicated their discontent to the monarch or other royals; in response to a refusal by the Executive Council in 1981 to allow Mana Motuhake direct access to Queen Elizabeth II, Māori activist Dun Mihaka offered a traditional rebuke by baring his buttocks at Prince Charles and Princess Diana. In a later incident Mihaka attempted to crash into the Queen's motorcade; he was intercepted by Police before this happened.[47]

In the Māori language, the Queen is sometimes referred to as *Te kōtuku-rerenga-tahi*, meaning "the white heron of a single flight"; in Māori proverb, the rare white heron is a significant bird seen only once in a lifetime.[7] In 1953, for her Coronation, Queen Elizabeth II was given a kiwi feather *Korowai*, or cloak,[48] which she wears when attending a *pōwhiri*, or Māori welcoming ceremony, also speaking partly in Māori.[49]

Cook Islands, Niue, and the territories

Further information: Monarchy of the Cook Islands

The sovereign of New Zealand also serves as the monarch of the Cook Islands and Niue, territories in free association with New Zealand within the larger Realm of New Zealand.[50][51] The New Zealand monarchy, however, is unitary throughout all jurisdictions in the country, with the headship of state being a part of all equally. As such, the sovereignty of the Cook Islands and Niue is passed on not by the Governor-General or parliament of New Zealand, but through the overreaching Crown itself as a part of the executive, legislative, and judicial operations in all three areas. Though singular, linking the governments of New Zealand, Niue, and the Cook Islands, the Crown is thus "divided" into three legal jurisdictions.

The Queen's Representative serves as the viceroy of the Cook Islands and the Governor-General of New Zealand,[52] represented by the State Services Commissioner,[53] represents the Queen in Niue,[51][54] carrying out all the monarch's constitutional and ceremonial duties of state on her behalf. The Administrator of the territory of Tokelau is appointed by the Governor-General of New Zealand-in-Council, at the recommendation of the New Zealand Minister of Foreign Affairs,[*citation needed*] and the Governor-General of New Zealand serves *ex-officio* as Governor of the Ross Dependency; but, as the territories are not sovereign entities, the Administrator and Governor are representatives of the New Zealand government and not the sovereign personally.

Cultural role

Royal presence and duties

Further information: List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II

Members of the Royal Family have been present in New Zealand since the late 1800s, their reasons including participating in military manoeuvres, serving as viceroy, or undertaking official royal tours. Usually important milestones, anniversaries, or celebrations of New Zealand culture will warrant the presence of the monarch, while other royals will be asked to participate in lesser occasions. *Official duties* involve the sovereign representing the New Zealand state at home or abroad, or her relations as members of the Royal Family participating in government organized ceremonies either in New Zealand or elsewhere.[n 5] The advice of the New Zealand Cabinet is the impetus for royal participation in any New Zealand event. Such events have included centennials and bicentennials; Waitangi Day; the openings of Commonwealth and other games; anniversaries of Māori treaty signings; awards ceremonies; D-Day commemorations; anniversaries of the monarch's accession; and the like. Conversely, *unofficial duties* are performed by Royal Family members on behalf of New Zealand organizations of which they may be patrons, through their attendance at charity events, visiting with members of the New Zealand Defence Force as Colonel-in-Chief, or marking certain key anniversaries. The invitation and expenses associated with these undertakings are usually borne by the associated organization.

Since 1869, when Prince Alfred, one of Queen Victoria's sons arrived on New Zealand's shores, more than fifty tours of New Zealand by a member of the Royal Family have taken place, though only five of those occurred before 1953. After Alfred came The Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York (later King George V and Queen Mary) in 1901; Prince Edward, Prince of Wales (later King Edward VIII), in 1920; The Duke and Duchess of York (later King George VI and Queen Elizabeth) in 1927; and Prince Henry, Duke of Gloucester, from 1934 to 1935. Queen Elizabeth II was the first reigning monarch of New Zealand to tour the country, becoming such when she arrived during her 1953-1954 global tour; she broadcast from Government House in Auckland her annual Royal Christmas Message.

Queen Elizabeth also toured New Zealand on a number of other occasions: between 6 and 18 February 1963, she attended celebrations at Waitangi and the Queen Elizabeth II Arts Council was founded as the nation's gift to the monarch; from 12 to 30 March 1970, the Queen, accompanied by Prince Charles and Princess Anne, participated in the James Cook bicentenary celebrations; between 30 January and 8 February 1974, and she attended and closed that year's Commonwealth Games in Christchurch and participated in New Zealand Day events at Waitangi. As part of a Commonwealth-wide tour for her Silver Jubilee, Elizabeth was in New Zealand from 22 February to 7 March 1977; she made a brief visit, between 12 and 20 October, following a Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM) in Melbourne; marked the centennial of the New Zealand Police during a tour from 22 February to 2 March 1986; the Queen closed the Commonwealth Games in Auckland and, with her son, Prince Edward, took part in events marking the sesquicentennial of the Treaty of Waitangi between 1 and 16 February 1990; between 1 and 10 November 1995, she attended the CHOGM in Auckland and opened the newly refurbished parliament buildings; and, as part of her global tour for her Golden Jubilee, Elizabeth was in New Zealand from 22 to 27 February 2002.[57]

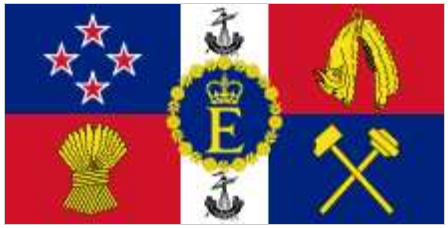
Some of the royal tours undertaken by more junior royals include the 1990 visit of Princess Anne to commemorate the 75th anniversary of the Gallipoli landings on Anzac Day, and when Prince William represented the Queen of New Zealand at VE and VJ Day commemorations in 2005, as part of an 11 day tour,[58] and opened the new Supreme Court of New Zealand building in early 2010.[59] Prince Edward spent two terms of the 1982 academic year as a house tutor and junior master at the Collegiate School, in Wanganui.[49]

Symbols

References to the monarchy are commonplace in public life in New Zealand. Her portrait is often found in government buildings, military installations, and schools. There are references to St Edward's Crown, on the New Zealand's Royal Coat of Arms, on various medals, and awards.

These latter cases reflect the monarch's place as the ceremonial head of the New Zealand honours system. As

such, only she can approve the creation of an honour, which she does as requested by the government of New Zealand. Although, the Governor-General administers most responsibilities relating to New Zealand honours on the Queen's behalf.



The Royal Standard of New Zealand, used solely by the Queen of New Zealand.

The use of the term 'Royal', as in the Royal New Zealand Navy and Royal New Zealand Air Force, and oaths taken by politicians, judges, members of the armed forces and new citizens are to the Queen. The Queen's portrait appears on some postage stamps, the obverse (front) of New Zealand coins, and all banknotes feature the portrait of the Queen as the watermark. However, only the $20 banknote bears her image as the main feature.



A statue of Queen Victoria in Dunedin.

In New Zealand, unlike in the United Kingdom, the Queen's Official Birthday is a public holiday and is celebrated in the first Monday in June. Republican Movement surveys conducted in 2009 and 2010 showed there had been no official civic celebrations or plans to celebrate the Queen's birthday on the day, apart from the Queen's Birthday Honours list.[60]

God Save the Queen remains one of the National Anthems, along with God Defend New Zealand but has been generally restricted to Official occasions where the Monarch or the Vice-Regal representative, the Governor General, are being either honoured or in attendance for a particular purpose.

History

Monarchy in New Zealand dates back to the first half of the nineteenth century.

After Captain Cook's exploration of New Zealand in the late eighteenth century, an increasing number of European settlers came to New Zealand. In 1833, with growing lawlessness amongst traders and settlers, the British government appointed James Busby as British Resident to protect British trading interests.

Despite Busby's presence, trouble increased. In 1840, the British Government sent Captain William Hobson to New Zealand as Lieutenant Governor, to acquire the sovereignty of New Zealand, by way of a treaty with the native Māori chiefs.

The Treaty of Waitangi was signed on 6 February 1840, at Waitangi in the Bay of Islands. Over five hundred Māori chiefs signed the treaty as it was taken around the country during the next eight months.

Following the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840, the islands of New Zealand became a British colony.

In 1907, New Zealand achieved the status of Dominion, which meant it was a country of the British Empire and later the Commonwealth of Nations, with autonomy in domestic and foreign affairs. The term fell into disuse after the Second World War.

In 1917, letters patent of George V set out the powers, duties and responsibilities of the Governor-General (as the Sovereign's representative) and the Executive Council.

In 1926, the Balfour Declaration at the Imperial Conference in London confirmed the status of New Zealand, along with that of Australia, the Irish Free State, Canada, South Africa and Newfoundland, as self-governing Dominions under the British Crown.

The Statute of Westminster in 1931, an act of the British Parliament, gave legal form to this declaration. It gave New Zealand and other Dominions the authority to make their own laws. New Zealand ratified the Statute in 1947, after the passing of the Statute of Westminster Adoption Act 1947



A New Zealand stamp bearing the images of Queen Elizabeth and King George VI flanking the shield of the monarch's royal arms for New Zealand, to commemorate the King's coronation on 12 May 1937.

The Royal Titles Act 1953 first introduced a New Zealand royal title for use by the Queen, and the Royal Titles Act 1974 altering the style borne by the Queen in New Zealand.

A personal flag for use by the Queen in New Zealand was adopted in 1962. It features the shield design of the New Zealand coat of arms in the form of an oblong or square. Superimposed in the centre is a dark blue roundel bearing an initial E surmounted by a Royal crown within a gold chaplet of roses.

> “I look forward to continuing to serve to the best of my ability in the years to come. It fills me with great pride to stand before you here today to express my lasting respect and deep affection for this country and for New Zealanders everywhere.”
>
> —Her Majesty The Queen, 25 February 2002

More recently, the Constitution Act 1986 has become the principal formal statement of New Zealand's constitution. This Act recognises that the Queen, the Sovereign in right of New Zealand, is the Head of State of New Zealand and that the Governor-General appointed by her is her representative. Each can, in general, exercise all the powers of the other. However the appointment of the governor-general is only done by the Queen, on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Debate

There is less agitation for ending the monarchy of New Zealand and creating a New Zealand republic than in neighbouring Australia, where Australian republicanism is stronger. Supporters of the monarchy claim that for New Zealand, "...monarchy summarises the inheritance of a thousand years of constitutional government and our links with a glorious past,"[61]

Neither National or Labour, the two major political parties currently in parliament have a stated policy of creating a republic, although Peter Dunne's United Future does and some Members of Parliament have publicly expressed their personal support for a republic. In contrast, some members have also expressed support for the monarchy. Former Deputy Prime Minister Michael Cullen declared that he supported the monarchy, stating in 2004 he was "a sort of token monarchist in the Cabinet these days."[62] However, in 2010 he repudiated that stance, taking the view that New Zealand should move towards a republic once the Queen's reign ends.[63] Presently, Prime Minister John Key has said he is "not convinced [a republic] will be a big issue in the short term,"[64] but does believe that a republic is "inevitable."[65] There are two special-interest groups representing both sides of the debate in New Zealand, and argue the issue in the media from time to time: the Monarchy New Zealand and the Republican Movement of Aotearoa New Zealand.

There are a number of legal issues to be addressed in order to abolish the monarchy,[66] though individuals on

both sides of the argument take a different view of the level of difficulty faced.[67] Much of the unsurety involves the reserve powers of the sovereign; the relationship between the various regions of the Realm of New Zealand presently sharing the same sovereign (the absence of these matters from republican arguments having been criticised as a "self-centredness of republican discussions in New Zealand");[51] and effects on the relationship between the Crown and Māori, specifically, the continued legal status of the Treaty of Waitangi and its claims and settlements.[68][69][70] Some academics expressed concern that governments could use republicanism to evade treaty responsibilities,[71] while others, such as Professor Noel Cox, Chairman-Emeritus of Monarchy New Zealand, have argued a republic would not absolve the government of its obligations under the treaty.[72]

The New Zealand public are generally in favour of the retention of the monarchy, with recent polls showing it to have between 50 and 70% support.[73] Polls indicate that many New Zealanders see the monarchy as being of little day-to-day relevance; a One News Colmar Brunton poll in 2002 found that 58% of the population believed the monarchy has little or no relevance to their lives.[74] National Business Review poll in 2004 found 57% of respondents believed New Zealand would become a republic "in the future".[75]

However, the institution still enjoys the support of New Zealanders, particularly those born before the Second World War.[76] With the approval of the current monarch, and the position of the Treaty of Waitangi under a republic remaining a concern to Māori and other New Zealanders alike, as well as the question of what constitutional form a republic might take unresolved, support for a republic remains no higher than one third to 40% of the population.[76] On 21 April 2008, the republican movement released a poll of New Zealanders showing 43% support the monarchy should Prince Charles become King of New Zealand, and 41% support a republic under the same scenario.[77] A poll by the New Zealand Herald in January 2010, before a visit by Prince William to the country found 33.3% wanted Prince Charles to be the next monarch, with 30.2% favouring Prince William. 29.4% of respondents preferred a republic in the event Queen Elizabeth died or abdicated.[78]

On 14 October 2009, a Bill put forward in parliament by Keith Locke to bring about a referendum on the monarchy was drawn from the ballot of members' Bills and introduced into the legislative chamber.[79] It had been presumed that this bill would have been binding in New Zealand only, having no effect in the Cook Islands or Niue.[51] On 21 April 2010 the Bill was defeated at its first reading 68 - 53, and did not continue through to Select Committee with the National Party, Act Party, four members of the Maori Party and Progressives opposed and the Labour, Green and United Future party voting in favour.

An October 2011 survey of 500 business professionals asked "What Is Your Level Of Support For New Zealand Becoming A Republic?". 27% said not at all, 24% said somewhat opposed, 23.1% were neutral, 14.8% said moderately in favour and 11.1% said strongly in favour.[80]

New Zealand organisations with Royal Patronage

See also: List of New Zealand organisations with royal patronage

To receive Royal Patronage, an organisation must prove to be long lasting, and to be of the highest standard in their field. These organisations such as the Royal New Zealand Returned and Services' Association, have received patronage from various monarchs and their families.

See also

- List of New Zealand monarchs
- Māori King Movement
- Monarchy of the Cook Islands

New Zealand

Coordinates: 42°S 174°E

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New Zealand (Māori: *Aotearoa*) is an island country located in the southwestern Pacific Ocean. The country geographically comprises two main landmasses − that of the North and South Islands − as well as numerous smaller islands. New Zealand is situated some 1,500 kilometres (900 mi) east of Australia across the Tasman Sea and roughly 1,000 kilometres (600 mi) south of the Pacific island nations of New Caledonia, Fiji, and Tonga. Because of its remoteness, it was one of the last lands to be settled by humans.

During its long isolation, New Zealand developed a distinctive biodiversity of both animal and plant life. Most notable are the large number of unique bird species, many of which became extinct after the arrival of humans and introduced mammals. With a mild maritime climate, the land was mostly covered in forest. The country's varied topography and its sharp mountain peaks owe much to the tectonic uplift of land and volcanic eruptions caused by the Pacific and Indo-Australian Plates clashing beneath the earth's surface.

Polynesians settled New Zealand in 1250–1300 CE and developed a distinctive Māori culture, and Europeans first made contact in 1642 CE. The introduction of potatoes and muskets triggered upheaval among Māori early during the 19th century, which led to the inter-tribal Musket Wars. In 1840 the British and Māori signed a treaty making New Zealand a colony of the British Empire. Immigrant numbers increased sharply and conflicts escalated into the New Zealand Wars, which resulted in much Māori land being confiscated in the mid North Island. Economic depressions were followed by periods of political reform, with women gaining the vote during the 1890s, and a welfare state being established from the 1930s. After World War II, New Zealand joined Australia and the United States in the ANZUS security treaty, although the United States later, until 2010, suspended the treaty after New Zealand banned nuclear weapons. New Zealand is part of the intelligence sharing among the Anglosphere countries, the UKUSA Agreement. New Zealanders enjoyed one of the highest standards of living in the world in the 1950s, but the 1970s saw a deep recession, worsened by oil shocks and the United Kingdom's entry into the European Economic Community. The country underwent major economic changes during the 1980s, which transformed it from a protectionist to a liberalised free-trade economy. Markets for New Zealand's agricultural exports have diversified greatly since the 1970s, with once-dominant

New Zealand
Aotearoa



Flag



Coat of arms

Anthem:



"**God Defend New Zealand**"
"God Save the Queen"[n 1]



The hemisphere centred on New Zealand

Capital	Wellington 41°17′S 174°27′E
Largest city	Auckland
Official language(s)	English (95.9%)[n 2] Māori (4.2%) NZ Sign Language (0.6%)
National language	English (98%)
Ethnic groups	78% European/Other[n 3] 14.6% Māori 9.2% Asian 6.9% Pacific peoples
Demonym	New Zealander, Kiwi (colloquial)

exports of wool being overtaken by dairy products, meat, and recently wine.

The majority of New Zealand's population is of European descent; the indigenous Māori are the largest minority, followed by Asians and non-Māori Polynesians. Māori and New Zealand Sign Language are the official languages, with English predominant. Much of New Zealand's culture is derived from Māori and early British settlers. Early European art was dominated by landscapes and to a lesser extent portraits of Māori. A recent resurgence of Māori culture has seen their traditional arts of carving, weaving and tattooing become more mainstream. Many artists now combine Māori and Western techniques to create unique art forms. The country's culture has also been broadened by globalisation and increased immigration from the Pacific Islands and Asia. New Zealand's diverse landscape provides many opportunities for outdoor pursuits and has provided the backdrop for a number of big budget movies.

New Zealand is organised into 11 regional councils and 67 territorial authorities for local government purposes; these have less autonomy than the country's long defunct provinces did. Nationally, executive political power is exercised by the Cabinet, led by the Prime Minister. Queen Elizabeth II is the country's head of state and is represented by a Governor-General. The Queen's Realm of New Zealand also includes Tokelau (a dependent territory); the Cook Islands and Niue (self-governing but in free association); and the Ross Dependency, New Zealand's territorial claim in Antarctica. New Zealand is a member of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, Commonwealth of Nations, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Pacific Islands Forum, and the United Nations.

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Government	Unitary parliamentary constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor-General	Sir Jerry Mateparae
- Prime Minister	John Key
Independence	from the United Kingdom[n 4]
- New Zealand Constitution Act 1852	17 January 1853
- Dominion	26 September 1907
- Statute of Westminster	11 December 1931 (adopted 25 November 1947)
- Constitution Act 1986	13 December 1986
Area	
- Total	268,021 km^2 (75th) 103,483 sq mi
- Water (%)	1.6[n 5]
Population	
- September 2011 estimate	4,414,400[6] (124th)
- 2006 census	4,027,947[7]
- Density	16.5/km^2 (202nd) 42.7/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$120.2 billion[8] (61st)
- Per capita	$27,217[8] (32nd)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$157.877 billion[8] (51st)
- Per capita	$35,374[8] (24th)
Gini (1997)	36.2[9] (medium)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.908[10] (very high) (5th)
Currency	New Zealand dollar (NZD)
Time zone	NZST[n 6] (UTC+12)
- Summer (DST)	NZDT (UTC+13) (Sep to Apr)
Date formats	dd/mm/yyyy
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	NZ

- 5.1 Trade
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  - 6.3 Education and religion
- 7 Culture
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Internet TLD	.nz[n 7]
Calling code	+64

Etymology

Main article: New Zealand place names



Detail from a 1657 map showing the western coastline of "Nova Zeelandia"

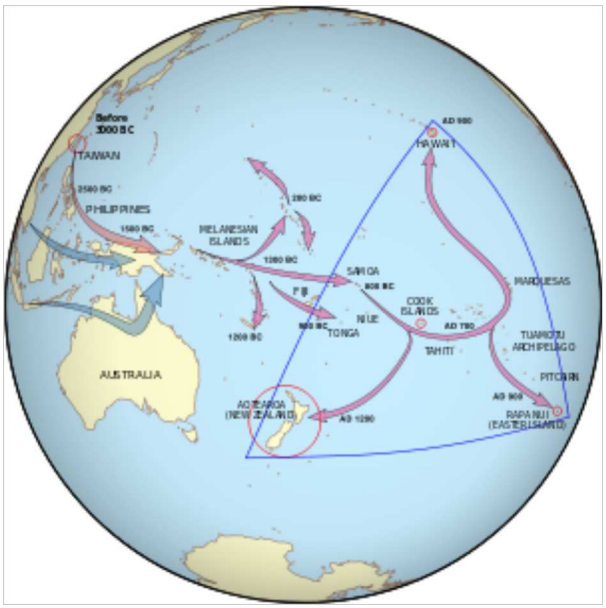
Aotearoa (often translated as "land of the long white cloud")[11] is the current Māori name for New Zealand, and is also used in New Zealand English. It is unknown whether Māori had a name for the whole country before the arrival of Europeans, with *Aotearoa* originally referring to just the North Island.[12] Abel Tasman sighted New Zealand in 1642 and called it *Staten Landt*, supposing it was connected to a landmass of the same name at the southern tip of South America.[13] In 1645 Dutch cartographers renamed the land *Nova Zeelandia* after the Dutch province of Zeeland.[14][15] British explorer James Cook subsequently anglicised the name to New Zealand.[n 8]

Māori had several traditional names for the two main islands, including *Te Ika-a-Māui* (the fish of Māui) for the North Island and *Te Wai Pounamu* (the waters of greenstone) or *Te Waka o Aoraki* (the canoe of Aoraki) for the South Island.[16] Early European maps labelled the islands North (North Island), Middle (South Island) and South (Stewart Island / Rakiura).[17] In 1830 maps began to use North and South to distinguish the two largest islands and by 1907 this was the accepted norm.[18] The New Zealand Geographic Board discovered in 2009 that the names of the North Island and South Island had never been formalised, but there are now plans to do so.[19] The board is also considering suitable Māori names,[20] with *Te Ika-a-Māui* and *Te Wai Pounamu* the most likely choices according to the chairman of the Māori Language Commission.[21]

History

Main article: History of New Zealand

New Zealand was one of the last major landmasses settled by humans. Radiocarbon dating, evidence of deforestation[23] and mitochondrial DNA variability within Māori populations[24] suggest New Zealand was first settled by Eastern Polynesians between 1250 and 1300,[16][25] concluding a long series of voyages through the southern Pacific islands.[26] Over the centuries that followed these settlers developed a distinct culture now known as Māori. The population was divided into *iwi* (tribes) and *hapū* (subtribes) which would cooperate, compete and sometimes fight with each other. At some point a group of Māori migrated to the Chatham Islands (which they named *Rēkohu*) where they developed their distinct Moriori culture.[27][28] The Moriori population was decimated between 1835 and 1862, largely because of Māori invasion and enslavement, although European diseases also contributed. In 1862 only 101 survived and the last known full-blooded Moriori died in 1933.[29]



The Māori people are most likely descended from people that emigrated from Taiwan to Melanesia and then travelled east through to the Society Islands. After a pause of 70–265 years a new wave of exploration led to the discovery and settlement of New Zealand.[22]

The first Europeans known to have reached New Zealand were Dutch explorer Abel Tasman and his crew in 1642.[30] In a hostile encounter, four crew members were killed and at least one Māori was hit by canister shot.[31] Europeans did not revisit New Zealand until 1769 when British explorer James Cook mapped almost the entire coastline.[30] Following Cook, New Zealand was visited by numerous European and North American whaling, sealing and trading ships. They traded food, metal tools, weapons and other goods for timber, food, artefacts, water, and on occasion sex.[32] The introduction of the potato and the musket transformed Māori agriculture and warfare. Potatoes provided a reliable food surplus, which enabled longer and more sustained military campaigns.[33] The resulting inter-tribal Musket Wars encompassed over 600 battles between 1801 and 1840, killing 30,000–40,000 Māori.[34] From the early 19th century, Christian missionaries began to settle New Zealand, eventually converting most of the Māori population.[35] The Māori population declined to around 40 percent of its pre-contact level during the 19th century; introduced diseases were the major factor.[36]

The British Government appointed James Busby as British Resident to New Zealand in 1832[37] and in 1835, following an announcement of impending French settlement by Charles de Thierry, the nebulous United Tribes of New Zealand sent a Declaration of the Independence to King William IV of the United Kingdom asking for protection.[37] Ongoing unrest and the dubious legal standing of the Declaration of Independence prompted the Colonial Office to send Captain William Hobson to claim sovereignty for the British Crown and negotiate a treaty with the Māori.[38] The Treaty of Waitangi was first signed in the Bay of Islands on 6 February 1840.[39] In response to the commercially run New Zealand Company's attempts to establish an independent settlement in Wellington[40] and French settlers "purchasing" land in Akaroa,[41] Hobson declared British sovereignty over all of New Zealand on 21 May 1840, even though copies of the Treaty were still circulating.[42] With the signing of the Treaty and declaration of sovereignty the number of immigrants, particularly from the United Kingdom, began to increase.[43]

New Zealand, originally part of the colony of New South Wales, became a separate Crown colony in 1841.[44] The colony gained a representative government in 1852 and the 1st New Zealand Parliament met in 1854.[45] In



The Waitangi sheet from the Treaty of Waitangi

1856 the colony effectively became self-governing, gaining responsibility over all domestic matters other than native policy. (Control over native policy was granted in the mid-1860s.)[45] Following concerns that the South Island might form a separate colony, premier Alfred Domett moved a resolution to transfer the capital from Auckland to a locality near the Cook Strait.[46] Wellington was chosen for its harbour and central location, with parliament officially sitting there for the first time in 1865. As immigrant numbers increased, conflicts over land led to the New Zealand Wars of the 1860s and 1870s, resulting in the loss and confiscation of much Māori land.[47] In 1893 the country became the first nation in the world to grant all women the right to vote[48] and in 1894 pioneered the adoption of compulsory arbitration between employers and unions.[49]

In 1907 New Zealand declared itself a Dominion within the British Empire and in 1947 the country adopted the Statute of Westminster, making New Zealand a Commonwealth realm.[45] New Zealand was involved in world affairs, fighting alongside the British Empire in the first and second World Wars[50] and suffering through the Great Depression.[51] The depression led to the election of the first Labour government and the establishment of a comprehensive welfare state and a protectionist economy.[52] New Zealand experienced increasing prosperity following World War II[53] and Māori began to leave their traditional rural life and move to the cities in search of work.[54] A Māori protest movement developed, which criticised Eurocentrism and worked for greater recognition of Māori culture and the Treaty of Waitangi.[55] In 1975, a Waitangi Tribunal was set up to investigate alleged breaches of the Treaty, and it was enabled to investigate historic grievances in 1985.[39] The government has negotiated settlements of these grievances with many iwi, although Māori claims to the foreshore and seabed have proved controversial in the 2000s.

Politics

Main article: Politics of New Zealand

Government

Main article: Government of New Zealand



John Key, Prime Minister of New Zealand since 2008

New Zealand is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy,[56] although its constitution is not codified.[57] Queen Elizabeth II is the Queen of New Zealand and the head of state.[58] The Queen is represented by the Governor-General,[59] whom she appoints on the advice of the Prime Minister.[60] The Governor-General can exercise the Crown's prerogative powers (such as reviewing cases of injustice and making appointments of Cabinet ministers, ambassadors and other key public officials)[61] and in rare situations, the reserve powers (the power to dismiss a Prime Minister, dissolve Parliament or refuse the Royal Assent of a bill into law).[62] The powers of the Queen and the Governor-General are limited by constitutional constraints and they cannot normally be exercised without the advice of Cabinet.[62][63]


Elizabeth II


Sir Jerry Mateparae

The Queen of New Zealand and her representative, the Governor-General

The Parliament of New Zealand holds legislative power and consists of the Sovereign (represented by the Governor-General) and the House of Representatives.[63] It also included an upper house, the Legislative Council, until this was abolished in 1950.[63] The supremacy of the House over the Sovereign was established in England by the Bill of Rights 1689 and has been ratified as law in New Zealand.[63] The House of Representatives is democratically elected and a Government is formed from the party or coalition with the majority of seats.[63] If no majority is formed a minority government can be formed if support from other parties during confidence and supply votes is assured. The Governor-General appoints ministers under advice from the Prime Minister, who is by convention the Parliamentary leader of the governing party or coalition.[64] Cabinet, formed by ministers and led by the Prime Minister, is the highest policy-making body in government and responsible for deciding significant government actions.[65] By convention, members of cabinet are bound by collective responsibility to decisions made by cabinet.[66]

Judges and judicial officers are appointed non-politically and under strict rules regarding tenure to help maintain constitutional independence from the government.[57] This theoretically allows the judiciary to interpret the law based solely on the legislation enacted by Parliament without other influences on their decisions.[67] The Privy Council in London was the country's final court of appeal until 2004, when it was replaced with the newly established Supreme Court of New Zealand. The judiciary, headed by the Chief Justice,[68] includes the Court of Appeal, the High Court, and subordinate courts.[57]

Almost all parliamentary general elections between 1853 and 1996 were held under the first past the post voting system.[69] The elections since 1930 have been dominated by two political parties, National and Labour.[69] Since 1996, a form of proportional representation called Mixed Member Proportional (MMP) has been used.[57] Under the MMP system each person has two votes; one is for the seventy electoral seats (including seven reserved for Māori),[70] and the other is for a party. The remaining fifty seats are assigned so that representation in parliament reflects the party vote, although a party has to win one electoral seat or 5 percent of the total party vote before it is eligible for these seats.[71] Between March 2005 and August 2006 New Zealand became the only country in the world in which all the highest offices in the land (Head of State, Governor-General, Prime Minister, Speaker and Chief Justice) were occupied simultaneously by women.[72]


New Zealand government "Beehive" and the Parliament Buildings (right), in Wellington

Foreign relations and the military

Main articles: Foreign relations of New Zealand and New Zealand Defence Force

Early colonial New Zealand allowed the British Government to determine external trade and be responsible for foreign policy.[73] The 1923 and 1926 Imperial Conferences decided that New Zealand should be allowed to negotiate their own political treaties, with the first successful commercial treaty being with Japan in 1928. Despite this independence New Zealand readily followed Britain in declaring war on Germany on 3 September

1939 with then Prime Minister Michael Savage proclaiming, "Where she goes, we go; where she stands, we stand."[74]


Māori Battalion haka in Egypt, 1941

In 1951 the United Kingdom became increasingly focused on its European interests,[75] while New Zealand joined Australia and the United States in the ANZUS security treaty.[76] The influence of the United States on New Zealand weakened following protests over the Vietnam War,[77] the refusal of the United States to admonish France after the sinking of the *Rainbow Warrior*,[78] disagreements over environmental and agricultural trade issues and New Zealand's nuclear-free policy.[79][80] Despite the USA's suspension of ANZUS obligations the treaty remained in effect between New Zealand and Australia, whose foreign policy has followed a similar historical trend.[81] Close political contact is maintained between the two countries, with free trade agreements and travel arrangements that allow citizens to visit, live and work in both countries without restrictions.[82] Currently over 500,000 New Zealanders live in Australia and 65,000 Australians live in New Zealand.[82]

New Zealand has a strong presence among the Pacific Island countries. A large proportion of New Zealand's aid goes to these countries and many Pacific people migrate to New Zealand for employment.[83] Permanent migration is regulated under the 1970 Samoan Quota Scheme and the 2002 Pacific Access Category, which allow up to 1,100 Samoan nationals and up to 750 other Pacific Islanders respectively to become permanent New Zealand residents each year. A seasonal workers scheme for temporary migration was introduced in 2007 and in 2009 about 8,000 Pacific Islanders were employed under it.[84] New Zealand is involved in the Pacific Islands Forum, Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations Regional Forum (including the East Asia Summit).[82] New Zealand is also a member of the United Nations,[85] the Commonwealth of Nations,[86] the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development[87] and the Five Powers Defence Arrangements.[88]


Infantry from the 2nd Battalion, Auckland Regiment in the Battle of the Somme, September 1916.

The New Zealand Defence Force has three branches: the Royal New Zealand Navy, the New Zealand Army and the Royal New Zealand Air Force.[89] New Zealand's national defence needs are modest because of the unlikelihood of direct attack,[90] although it does have a global presence. The country fought in both world wars, with notable campaigns in Gallipoli, Crete,[91] El Alamein[92] and Cassino.[93] The Gallipoli campaign played an important part in fostering New Zealand's national identity[94][95] and strengthened the ANZAC tradition it shares with Australia.[96] According to Mary Edmond-Paul, "World War I had left scars on New Zealand society, with nearly 18,500 in total dying as a result of the war, more than 41,000 wounded, and others affected emotionally, out of an overseas fighting force of about 103,000 and a population of just over a million."[97] New Zealand also played key parts in the naval Battle of the River Plate[98] and the Battle of Britain air campaign.[99][100] During World War II, the United States had more than 400,000 American military personnel stationed in New Zealand.[101]

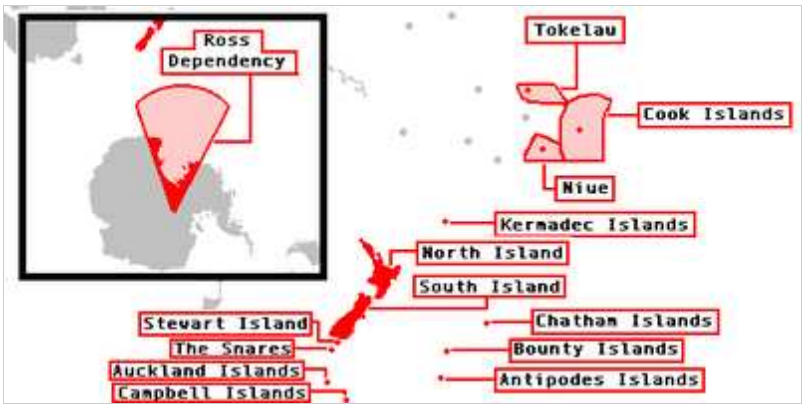
In addition to Vietnam and the two world wars, New Zealand fought in the Korean War, the Second Boer

War,[102] the Malayan Emergency,[103] the Gulf War and the Afghanistan War. It has contributed forces to several regional and global peacekeeping missions, such as those in Cyprus, Somalia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Sinai, Angola, Cambodia, the Iran–Iraq border, Bougainville, East Timor, and the Solomon Islands.[104] New Zealand also sent a unit of army engineers to help rebuild Iraqi infrastructure for one year during the Iraq War.

Local government and external territories

Main articles: Local government in New Zealand and Realm of New Zealand

The early European settlers divided New Zealand into provinces, which had a degree of autonomy.[105] Because of financial pressures and the desire to consolidate railways, education, land sales and other policies, government was centralised and the provinces were abolished in 1876.[106] As a result, New Zealand now has no separately represented subnational entities. The provinces are remembered in regional public holidays[107] and sporting rivalries.[108]



Realm of New Zealand

Since 1876, various councils have administered local areas under legislation determined by the central government.[105][109] In 1989, the government reorganised local government into the current two-tier structure of regional councils and territorial authorities.[110] The 249 municipalities[110] that existed in 1975 have now been consolidated into 67 territorial authorities and 11 regional councils.[111] The regional councils' role is to regulate "the natural environment with particular emphasis on resource management",[110] while territorial authorities are responsible for sewage, water, local roads, building consents and other local matters.[112] Five of the territorial councils are unitary authorities and also act as regional councils.[113] The territorial authorities consist of 13 city councils, 53 district councils, and the Chatham Islands Council. While officially the Chatham Islands Council is not a unitary authority, it undertakes many functions of a regional council.[114]

The Realm of New Zealand is one of 16 realms within the commonwealth[115][116] and comprises New Zealand, Tokelau, the Ross Dependency, the Cook Islands and Niue.[116] The Cook Islands and Niue are self-governing states in free association with New Zealand.[117][118] The New Zealand Parliament cannot pass legislation for these countries, but with their consent can act on behalf of them in foreign affairs and defence. Tokelau is a non-self-governing territory that uses the New Zealand flag and anthem, but is administered by a council of three elders (one from each Tokelauan atoll).[119][120] The Ross Dependency is New Zealand's territorial claim in Antarctica, where it operates the Scott Base research facility.[121] New Zealand citizenship law treats all parts of the realm equally, so most people born in New Zealand, the Cook Islands, Niue, Tokelau and the Ross Dependency before 2006 are New Zealand citizens. Further conditions apply for those born from 2006 onwards.[122]

Environment

Main article: Environment of New Zealand

Geography

Main article: Geography of New Zealand

See also: Atlas of New Zealand at Wikimedia Commons



The snow-capped Southern Alps dominate the South Island, while the North Island's Northland Peninsula stretches towards the subtropics.

New Zealand is made up of two main islands and a number of smaller islands, located near the centre of the water hemisphere. The main North and South Islands are separated by the Cook Strait, 22 kilometres (14 mi) wide at its narrowest point.[123] Besides the North and South Islands, the five largest inhabited islands are Stewart Island, the Chatham Islands, Great Barrier Island (in the Hauraki Gulf),[124] d'Urville Island (in the Marlborough Sounds)[125] and Waiheke Island (about 22 km (14 mi) from central Auckland).[126] The country's islands lie between latitudes 29° and 53°S, and longitudes 165° and 176°E.

New Zealand is long (over 1,600 kilometres (990 mi) along its north-north-east axis) and narrow (a maximum width of 400 kilometres (250 mi)),[127] with approximately 15,134 km (9,404 mi) of coastline[128] and a total land area of 268,021 square kilometres (103,483 sq mi)[129] Because of its far-flung outlying islands and long coastline, the country has extensive marine resources. Its Exclusive Economic Zone, one of the largest in the world, covers more than 15 times its land area.[130]

The South Island is the largest land mass of New Zealand, and is divided along its length by the Southern Alps.[131] There are 18 peaks over 3,000 metres (9,800 ft), the highest of which is Aoraki/Mount Cook at 3,754 metres (12,316 ft).[132] Fiordland's steep mountains and deep fiords record the extensive ice age glaciation of this south-western corner of the South Island.[133] The North Island is less mountainous but is marked by volcanism.[134] The highly active Taupo volcanic zone has formed a large volcanic plateau, punctuated by the North Island's highest mountain, Mount Ruapehu (2,797 metres (9,177 ft)). The plateau also hosts the country's largest lake, Lake Taupo,[135] nestled in the caldera of one of the world's most active supervolcanoes.[136]

The country owes its varied topography, and perhaps even its emergence above the waves, to the dynamic boundary it straddles between the Pacific and Indo-Australian Plates.[137] New Zealand is part of Zealandia, a microcontinent nearly half the size of Australia that gradually submerged after breaking away from the Gondwanan supercontinent.[138] About 25 million years ago, a shift in plate tectonic movements began to contort and crumple the region. This is now most evident in the Southern Alps, formed by compression of the crust beside the Alpine Fault. Elsewhere the plate boundary involves the subduction of one plate under the other, producing the Puysegur Trench to the south, the Hikurangi Trench east of the North Island, and the Kermadec and Tonga Trenches[139] further north.[137]



Abel Tasman National Park in the South Island

Climate

Main article: Climate of New Zealand

New Zealand has a mild and temperate maritime climate with mean annual temperatures ranging from 10 °C (50 °F) in the south to 16 °C (61 °F) in the north.[140] Historical maxima and minima are 42.4 °C (108.3 °F) in Rangiora, Canterbury and −25.6 °C (−14.08 °F) in Ranfurly, Otago.[141] Conditions vary sharply across regions from extremely wet on the West Coast of the South Island to almost semi-arid in Central Otago and the Mackenzie Basin of inland Canterbury and subtropical in Northland.[142] Of the seven largest cities, Christchurch is the driest, receiving on average only 640 millimetres (25 in) of rain per year and Auckland the wettest, receiving almost twice that amount.[143] Auckland, Wellington and Christchurch all receive a yearly average in excess of 2,000 hours of sunshine. The southern and south-western parts of the South Island have a cooler and cloudier climate, with around 1,400–1,600 hours; the northern and north-eastern parts of the South Island are the sunniest areas of the country and receive approximately 2,400–2,500 hours.[144]

Biodiversity

Main article: Biodiversity of New Zealand



The endemic flightless kiwi is a national icon.

New Zealand's geographic isolation for 80 million years[145] and island biogeography is responsible for the country's unique species of flora and fauna. They have either evolved from Gondwanan wildlife or the few organisms that have managed to reach the shores flying, swimming or being carried across the sea.[146] About 82 percent of New Zealand's indigenous vascular plants[n 9] are endemic, covering 1,944 species across 65 genera and includes a single family.[147][149] The two main types of forest are those dominated by broadleaf trees with emergent podocarps, or by southern beech in cooler climates.[150] The remaining vegetation types consist of grasslands, the majority of which are tussock.[151]

Before the arrival of humans an estimated 80 percent of the land was covered in forest, with only high alpine, wet, infertile and volcanic areas without trees.[152] Massive deforestation occurred after humans arrived, with around half the forest cover lost to fire after Polynesian settlement.[153] Much of the remaining forest fell after European settlement, being logged or cleared to make room for pastoral farming, leaving forest occupying only 23 percent of the land.[154]

The forests were dominated by birds, and the lack of mammalian predators led to some like the kiwi, kakapo and takahē evolving flightlessness.[155] The arrival of humans, associated changes to habitat, and the introduction of rats, ferrets and other mammals led to the extinction of many bird species, including large birds like the moa and Haast's eagle.[156][157]

Other indigenous animals are represented by reptiles (tuataras, skinks and geckos),[158] frogs, spiders (katipo), insects (weta) and snails.[159][160] Some, such as the wrens and tuatara, are so unique that they have been called living fossils. Three species of bats (one since extinct) were the only sign of native land mammals in New Zealand until the 2006 discovery of bones from a unique, mouse-sized land mammal at least 16 million years old.[161][162] Marine mammals however are abundant, with almost half the world's cetaceans (whales, dolphins, and porpoises) and large numbers of fur seals reported in New Zealand waters.[163] Many seabirds breed in New Zealand, a third of them unique to the country.[164] More penguin species are found in New Zealand than in any

other country.[165]

Since human arrival almost half of the country's vertebrate species have become extinct, including at least fifty one birds, three frogs, three lizards, one freshwater fish, four plant species, and one bat.[156] Others are endangered or have had their range severely reduced.[156] However New Zealand conservationists have pioneered several methods to help threatened wildlife recover, including island sanctuaries, pest control, wildlife translocation, fostering, and ecological restoration of islands and other selected areas.[166][167][168][169]

Economy

Main article: Economy of New Zealand

See also: List of companies of New Zealand

New Zealand has a modern, prosperous and developed market economy with an estimated gross domestic product (GDP) at purchasing power parity (PPP) per capita of roughly US$28,250.[n 10] The currency is the New Zealand dollar, informally known as the "Kiwi dollar"; it also circulates in the Cook Islands (see Cook Islands dollar), Niue, Tokelau, and the Pitcairn Islands.[173] New Zealand was ranked 5th in the 2011 Human Development Index,[174] 4th in the 2011 Index of Economic Freedom published by The Heritage Foundation.[175]



Milford Sound, one of New Zealand's most famous tourist destinations[176]

Historically, extractive industries have contributed strongly to New Zealand's economy, focussing at different times on sealing, whaling, flax, gold, kauri gum, and native timber.[177] With the development of refrigerated shipping in the 1880s meat and dairy products were exported to Britain, a trade which provided the basis for strong economic growth in New Zealand.[178] High demand for agricultural products from the United Kingdom and the United States helped New Zealanders achieve higher living standards than both Australia and Western Europe in the 1950s and 1960s.[179] In 1973 New Zealand's export market was reduced when the United Kingdom joined the European Community[180] and other compounding factors, such as the 1973 oil and 1979 energy crisis, led to a severe economic depression.[181] Living standards in New Zealand fell behind those of Australia and Western Europe, and by 1982 New Zealand had the lowest per-capita income of all the developed nations surveyed by the World Bank.[182] Since 1984, successive governments engaged in major macroeconomic restructuring (known first as Rogernomics and then Ruthanasia), rapidly transforming New Zealand from a highly protectionist economy to a liberalised free-trade economy.[183][184]

Unemployment peaked above 10 percent in 1991 and 1992,[185] following the 1987 share market crash, but eventually fell a record low of 3.4 percent in 2007 (ranking fifth from twenty-seven comparable OECD nations).[186] The global financial crisis that followed however had a major impact on New Zealand with the GDP shrinking for five consecutive quarters, the longest recession in over thirty years,[187][188] and unemployment rising back to 7% in late 2009.[189] The unemployment rate for youth was 17.4% in the June 2011 quarter.[190] New Zealand has experienced a series of "brain drains" since the 1970s[191] that still continue today.[192] Nearly one quarter of highly skilled workers live overseas, most in Australia and Britain, the most from any developed nation.[193] In recent years, however, a "brain gain" has brought in educated professionals from Europe and lesser developed countries.[194][195]

Trade

New Zealand is heavily dependent on international trade,[196] particularly in agricultural products.[197] Exports account for a high 24 percent of its output,[128] making New Zealand vulnerable to international commodity prices and global economic slowdowns. Its principal export industries are agriculture, horticulture, fishing, forestry and mining, which make up about half of the country's exports.[198] Its major export partners are Australia, United States, Japan, China, and the United Kingdom.[128] On 7 April 2008, New Zealand and China signed the New Zealand China Free Trade Agreement, the first such agreement China has signed with a developed country.[199][200] The service sector is the largest sector in the economy, followed by manufacturing and construction and then farming and raw material extraction.[128] Tourism plays a significant role in New Zealand's economy, contributing $15.0 billion to New Zealand's total GDP and supporting 9.6 percent of the total workforce in 2010.[201] International visitors to New Zealand increased by 3.1 percent in the year to October 2010[202] and are expected to increase at a rate of 2.5 percent annually up to 2015.[201]


Wool has historically been one of New Zealand's major exports.

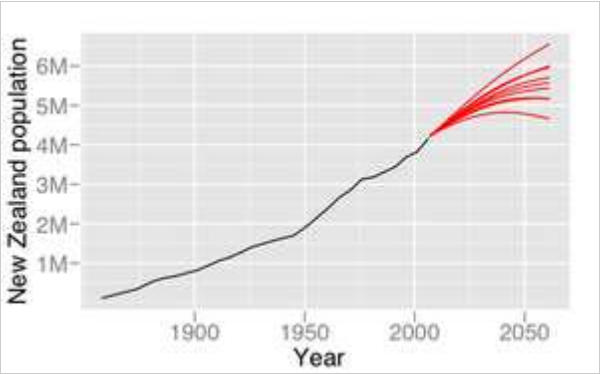
Wool was New Zealand's major agricultural export during the late 19th century.[177] Even as late as the 1960s it made up over a third of all export revenues,[177] but since then its price has steadily dropped relative to other commodities[203] and wool is no longer profitable for many farmers.[204] In contrast dairy farming increased, with the number of dairy cows doubling between 1990 and 2007,[205] to become New Zealand's largest export earner.[206] In the year to June 2009, dairy products accounted for 21 percent ($9.1 billion) of total merchandise exports,[207] and the country's largest company, Fonterra, controls almost one-third of the international dairy trade.[208] Other agricultural exports in 2009 were meat 13.2 percent, wool 6.3 percent, fruit 3.5 percent and fishing 3.3 percent. New Zealand's wine industry has followed a similar trend to dairy, the number of vineyards doubling over the same period,[209] overtaking wool exports for the first time in 2007.[210][211]

Infrastructure

In 2008, oil, gas and coal generated approximately 69 percent of New Zealand's gross energy supply and 31% was generated from renewable energy, primarily hydroelectric power and geothermal power.[212] New Zealand's transport network includes 93,805 kilometres (58,288 mi) of roads, worth 23 billion dollars,[213] and 4,128 kilometres (2,565 mi) of railway lines.[214] Most major cities and towns are linked by bus services, although the private car is the predominant mode of transport.[215] The railways were privatised in 1993, then re-purchased by the government in 2004 and vested into a state owned enterprise.[216] Railways run the length of the country, although most lines now carry freight rather than passengers.[217] Most international visitors arrive via air[218] and New Zealand has seven international airports, although currently only the Auckland and Christchurch airports connect directly with countries other than Australia or Fiji.[219] The New Zealand Post Office had a monopoly over telecommunications until 1989 when Telecom New Zealand was formed, initially as a state-owned enterprise and then privatised in 1990.[220] Telecom still owns the majority of the telecommunications infrastructure, but competition from other providers has increased.[221]

Demography

Main article: Demographics of New Zealand



New Zealand's historical population (black) and projected growth (red)

The population of New Zealand is approximately 4.4 million.[222] New Zealand is a predominantly urban country, with 72 percent of the population living in 16 main urban areas and 53 percent living in the four largest cities of Auckland, Christchurch, Wellington, and Hamilton.[223] New Zealand cities generally rank highly on international livability measures. For instance, in 2010 Auckland was ranked the world's 4th most liveable city and Wellington the 12th by the Mercer Quality of Life Survey[224]

The life expectancy of a New Zealand child born in 2008 was 82.4 years for females, and 78.4 years for males.[225] Life expectancy at birth is forecast to increase from 80 years to 85 years in 2050 and infant mortality is expected to decline.[226] In 2050 the population is forecast to reach 5.3 million, the median age to rise from 36 years to 43 years and the percentage of people 60 years of age and older to rise from 18 percent to 29 percent.[226]

Ethnicity and immigration

Main articles: New Zealanders and Immigration to New Zealand

In the 2006 census, 67.6 percent identified ethnically as European and 14.6 percent as Māori.[227] Other major ethnic groups include Asian (9.2 percent) and Pacific peoples (6.9 percent), while 11.1 percent identified themselves simply as a "New Zealander" (or similar) and 1 percent identified with other ethnicities.[228][n 11] This contrasts with 1961, when the census reported that the population of New Zealand was 92 percent European and 7 percent Māori, with Asian and Pacific minorities sharing the remaining 1 percent.[230] While the demonym for a New Zealand citizen is New Zealander, the informal "Kiwi" is commonly used both internationally[231] and by locals.[232] The Māori loanword Pākehā usually refers to New Zealanders of European descent, although some reject this appellation,[233][234] and some Māori use it to refer to all non-Polynesian New Zealanders.[235]

The Māori were the first people to reach New Zealand, followed by the early European settlers. Following colonisation, immigrants were predominantly from Britain, Ireland and Australia because of restrictive policies similar to the white Australian policies.[236] There was also significant Dutch, Dalmatian,[237] Italian, and German immigration together with indirect European immigration through Australia, North America, South America and South Africa.[238] Following the Great Depression policies were relaxed and migrant diversity increased. In 2009–10, an annual target of 45,000–50,000 permanent residence approvals was set by the New Zealand Immigration Service—more than one new migrant for every 100 New Zealand residents.[239] Twenty-three percent of New Zealand's population were born overseas, most of whom live in the Auckland region.[240] While most have still come from the United Kingdom and Ireland (29 percent), immigration from East Asia (mostly mainland China, but with substantial numbers also from Korea, Taiwan, Japan, and Hong Kong) is rapidly increasing the number of people from those countries.[241] The number of fee-paying



New Zealand's fastest growing ethnic groups are Asian. Here, lion dancers

international students increased sharply in the late 1990s, with more than 20,000 studying in public tertiary institutions in 2002.[242]

perform at the Auckland Lantern Festival.

Language

English is the predominant language in New Zealand, spoken by 98 percent of the population.[3] New Zealand English is similar to Australian English and many speakers from the Northern Hemisphere are unable to tell the accents apart.[243]. The most prominent differences between the New Zealand English dialect and other English dialects are the shifts in the short front vowels: the short-"i" sound (as in "kit") has centralised towards the schwa sound (the "a" in "comma" and "about"); the short-"e" sound (as in "dress") has moved towards the short-"i" sound; and the short-"a" sound (as in "trap") has moved to the short-"e" sound.[244] Hence, the New Zealand pronunciation of words such as "bad", "dead", "fish" and "chips" sound like "bed", "did", "fush" and "chups" to non-New Zealanders.

After the Second World War, Māori were discouraged from speaking their own language (*te reo Māori*) in schools and workplaces and it existed as a community language only in a few remote areas.[245] It has recently undergone a process of revitalisation,[246][247] being declared one of New Zealand's official languages in 1987,[248] and is spoken by 4.1 percent of the population.[3] There are now Māori language immersion schools and two Māori Television channels, the only nationwide television channels to have the majority of their prime-time content delivered in Māori.[249] Many places have officially been given dual Maori and English names in recent years. Samoan is one of the most widely spoken languages in New Zealand (2.3 percent),[n 12] followed by French, Hindi, Yue and Northern Chinese.[3][250][n 13] New Zealand Sign Language is used by approximately 28,000 people and was made New Zealand's second official language in 2006.[251]



A Ratana church

Education and religion

Main articles: Education in New Zealand and Religion in New Zealand

Primary and secondary schooling is compulsory for children aged 6 to 16, with the majority attending from the age of 5.[252] There are 13 school years and attending public schools is free. New Zealand has an adult literacy rate of 99 percent,[128] and over half of the population aged 15 to 29 hold a tertiary qualification.[252][n 14] There are five types of government-owned tertiary institutions: universities, colleges of education, polytechnics, specialist colleges, and wānanga,[253] and also private training establishments.[254] In the adult population 14.2 percent have a bachelor's degree or higher, 30.4 percent have some form of secondary qualification as their highest qualification and 22.4 percent have no formal qualification.[255]

Christianity is the predominant religion in New Zealand. In the 2006 Census, 55.6 percent of the population identified themselves as Christians, while another 34.7 percent indicated that they had no religion (up from 29.6 percent in 2001) and around 4 percent affiliated with other religions.[256][n 15] The main Christian denominations are Anglicanism, Roman Catholicism, Presbyterianism and Methodism. There are also significant numbers of Christians who identify themselves with Pentecostal, Baptist, and Latter-day Saint churches and the New Zealand-based Ratana church has adherents among Māori. According to census figures, other significant minority religions include Hinduism, Buddhism, and Islam.[250][257]

Culture

Main article: Culture of New Zealand



Late twentieth-century house-post depicting the navigator Kupe fighting two sea creatures

Early Māori adapted the tropically based east Polynesian culture in line with the challenges associated with a larger and more diverse environment, eventually developing their own distinctive culture. Social organisation was largely communal with families (whanau), sub-tribes (hapu) and tribes (iwi) ruled by a chief (rangatira) whose position was subject to the community's approval.[259] The British and Irish immigrants brought aspects of their own culture to New Zealand and also influenced Māori culture,[260][261] particularly with the introduction of Christianity.[262] However, Māori still regard their allegiance to tribal groups as a vital part of their identity, and Māori kinship roles resemble those of other Polynesian peoples.[263] More recently American, Australian, Asian and other European cultures have exerted influence on New Zealand. Non-Māori Polynesian cultures are also apparent, with Pasifika, the world's largest Polynesian festival, now an annual event in Auckland.



Cook Islands dancers at Auckland's Pasifika festival

The largely rural life in early New Zealand led to the image of New Zealanders being rugged, industrious problem solvers.[264] Modesty was expected and enforced through the "tall poppy syndrome", where high achievers received harsh criticism.[265] At the time New Zealand was not known as an intellectual country.[266] From the early 20th century until the late 1960s Māori culture was suppressed by the attempted assimilation of Māori into British New Zealanders.[245] In the 1960s, as higher education became more available and cities expanded[267] urban culture began to dominate.[268] Even though the majority of the population now lives in cities, much of New Zealand's art, literature, film and humour has rural themes.

Art

Main article: New Zealand art

As part of the resurgence of Māori culture, the traditional crafts of carving and weaving are now more widely practised and Māori artists are increasing in number and influence.[269] Most Māori carvings feature human figures, generally with three fingers and either a natural-looking, detailed head or a grotesque head.[270] Surface patterns consisting of spirals, ridges, notches and fish scales decorate most carvings.[271] The pre-eminent Māori architecture consisted of carved meeting houses (wharenui) decorated with symbolic carvings and illustrations. These buildings were originally designed to be constantly rebuilt, changing and adapting to different whims or needs.[272]

Māori decorated the white wood of buildings, canoes and cenotaphs using red (a mixture of red ochre and shark fat) and black (made from soot) paint and painted pictures of birds, reptiles and other designs on cave walls.[273]

Māori tattoos (moko) consisting of coloured soot mixed with gum were cut into the flesh with a bone chisel.[274] Since European arrival paintings and photographs have been dominated by landscapes, originally not as works of art but as factual portrayals of New Zealand.[275] Portraits of Māori were also common, with early painters often portraying them as "noble savages", exotic beauties or friendly natives.[275] The country's isolation delayed the influence of European artistic trends allowing local artists to developed their own distinctive style of regionalism.[276] During the 1960s and 70s many artists combined traditional Māori and Western techniques, creating unique art forms.[277] New Zealand art and craft has gradually achieved an international audience, with exhibitions in the Venice Biennale in 2001 and the "Paradise Now" exhibition in New York in 2004.[269][278]

Māori cloaks are made of fine flax fibre and patterned with black, red and white triangles, diamonds and other geometric shapes.[279] Greenstone was fashioned into earrings and necklaces, with the most well-known design being the hei-tiki, a distorted human figure sitting cross-legged with its head tilted to the side.[280] Europeans brought English fashion etiquette to New Zealand, and until the 1950s most people dressed up for social occasions.[281] Standards have since relaxed and New Zealand fashion has received a reputation for being casual, practical and lacklustre.[282][283] However, the local fashion industry has grown significantly since 2000, doubling exports and increasing from a handful to about 50 established labels, with some labels gaining international recognition.[283]



Portrait of Hinepare of Ngāti Kahungunu by Gottfried Lindauer, showing chin moko, pounamu hei-tiki and woven cloak

Literature

Main article: Literature of New Zealand

Māori quickly adopted writing as a means of sharing ideas, and many of their oral stories and poems were converted to the written form.[284] Most early English literature was obtained from Britain and it was not until the 1950s when local publishing outlets increased that New Zealand literature started to become widely known.[285] Although still largely influenced by global trends (modernism) and events (the Great Depression), writers in the 1930s began to develop stories increasingly focused on their experiences in New Zealand. During this period literature changed from a journalistic activity to a more academic pursuit.[286] Participation in the world wars gave some New Zealand writers a new perspective on New Zealand culture and with the post-war expansion of universities local literature flourished.[287]

Entertainment

New Zealand music has been influenced by blues, jazz, country, rock and roll and hip hop, with many of these genres given a unique New Zealand interpretation.[288] Māori developed traditional chants and songs from their ancient South-East Asian origins, and after centuries of isolation created a unique "monotonous" and "doleful" sound.[289] Flutes and trumpets were used as musical instruments[290] or as signalling devices during war or special occasions.[291] Early settlers brought over their ethnic music, with brass bands and choral music being popular, and musicians began touring New Zealand in the 1860s.[292][293] Pipe bands became widespread during the early 20th century.[294] The New Zealand recording industry began to develop from 1940 onwards and many New Zealand musicians have obtained success in Britain and the USA.[288] Some artists release Māori language songs and the Māori tradition-based art of *kapa haka* (song and dance) has made a resurgence.[295] The New Zealand Music Awards are held annually by the Recording Industry Association of New Zealand (RIANZ); the

awards were first held in 1965 by Reckitt & Colman as the Loxene Golden Disc Awards.[296] The RIANZ also publishes the country's official weekly record charts.[297]

Radio first arrived in New Zealand in 1922 and television in 1960.[298] The number of New Zealand films significantly increased during the 1970s.[299] In 1978 the New Zealand Film Commission started assisting local film-makers and many films attained a world audience, some receiving international acknowledgement. Deregulation in the 1980s saw a sudden increase in the numbers of radio and television stations.[299] New Zealand television primarily broadcasts American and British programming, along with a large number of Australian and local shows. The country's diverse scenery and compact size, plus government incentives,[300] have encouraged some producers to film big budget movies in New Zealand.[301] The New Zealand media industry is dominated by a small number of companies, most of which are foreign-owned, although the state retains ownership of some television and radio stations. Between 2003 and 2008, Reporters Without Borders consistently ranked New Zealand's press freedom in the top twenty.[302]

Sports

Main article: Sport in New Zealand



Statue of mountaineer Sir Edmund Hillary gazing towards Aoraki / Mount Cook

Most of the major sporting codes played in New Zealand have English origins.[303] Golf, netball, tennis and cricket are the four top participatory sports, soccer is the most popular among young people and rugby union attracts the most spectators.[304] Victorious rugby tours to Australia and the United Kingdom in the late 1880s and the early 1900s played an early role in instilling a national identity,[305] although the sport's influence has since declined.[306] Horse racing was also a popular spectator sport and became part of the "Rugby, Racing and Beer" culture during the 1960s.[307] Māori participation in European sports was particularly evident in rugby and the country's team performs a haka (traditional Māori challenge) before international matches.[308]

New Zealand has competitive international teams in rugby union, netball, cricket, rugby league, and softball and has traditionally done well in triathlons, rowing, yachting and cycling. The country has performed well on a medals-to-population ratio at Olympic Games and Commonwealth Games.[304][309] New Zealand's national rugby union team is often regarded as the best in the world, and are the reigning World Cup holders. New Zealand are also the reigning rugby league world champions. New Zealand is known for its extreme sports, adventure tourism[310] and strong mountaineering tradition.[311] Other outdoor pursuits such as cycling, fishing, swimming, running, tramping, canoeing, hunting, snowsports and surfing are also popular.[312] The Polynesian sport of waka ama racing has increased in popularity and is now an international sport involving teams from all over the Pacific.[313]

See also

- Outline of New Zealand
- International rankings of New Zealand

Notes

1. ^ "God Save the Queen" is officially a national anthem but is generally used only on regal and vice-regal occasions.[1][2]
2. ^ Language percentages add to more than 100% because some people speak more than one language. They exclude unusable responses and those who spoke no language (e.g. too young to talk).[3]
3. ^ Ethnicity percentages add to more than 100% because some people identify with more than one ethnic group.[4]
4. ^ There is a multitude of dates that could be considered to mark independence (see Independence of New Zealand).
5. ^ The proportion of New Zealand's area (excluding estuaries) covered by rivers, lakes and ponds, based on figures from the New Zealand Land Cover Database,[5] is (357526 + 81936) / (26821559 – 92499–26033 – 19216) = 1.6%. If estuarine open water, mangroves, and herbaceous saline vegetation are included, the figure is 2.2%.
6. ^ The Chatham Islands have a separate time zone, 45 minutes ahead of the rest of New Zealand.
7. ^ The territories of Niue, the Cook Islands and Tokelau have their own cctlds, .nu, .ck and .tk respectively.
8. ^ Zeeland is spelt "Zealand" in English. New Zealand's name is not derived from the Danish island Zealand.
9. ^ New Zealand has approximately 4,000 indigenous species of lichens and other non-vascular plants,[147] and only 40 percent of these are endemic.[148]
10. ^ PPP GDP estimates from different organisations vary. The International Monetary Fund's estimate is US$27,420.[170] The CIA World Factbook estimate is $28,000.[171] The World Bank's estimate is US$29,352.[172]
11. ^ When completing the census people could select more than one ethnic group (for instance, 53 percent of Māori identified solely as Māori, while the remainder also identified with one or more other ethnicities).[229]
12. ^ Of the 85,428 people that replied they spoke Samoan in the 2006 Census, 57,828 lived in the Auckland region.[250]
13. ^ Languages listed here are those spoken by over 40,000 New Zealanders.
14. ^ Tertiary education in New Zealand is used to describe all aspects of post-school education and training. Its ranges from informal non-assessed community courses in schools through to undergraduate degrees and advanced, research-based postgraduate degrees.
15. ^ Another 6 percent objected to stating their religion. Statistics NZ do not report a total percentage for "Other" religions. Depending on how many people claimed both Christian and other religions, this could range from 3 to 5 percent. These percentages are based on the usually resident population, excluding another 7 percent of people who did not provide usable information.

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Cook Islands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Cook Islands** (/ˈkʊk ˈaɪləndz/; Cook Islands Māori: *Kūki 'Āirani*)[3] is a self-governing parliamentary democracy in the South Pacific Ocean in free association with New Zealand. The 15 small islands have a total land area of 240 square kilometres (92.7 sq mi), but the Cook Islands Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) covers 1,800,000 square kilometres (690,000 sq mi) of ocean.[4]

The main population centres are on the island of Rarotonga (14,153 in 2006), where there is an international airport. There is a much larger population of Cook Islanders in New Zealand, particularly the North Island. In the 2006 census, 58,008 self-identified as being of ethnic Cook Island Māori descent.[5]

With about 100,000 visitors travelling to the islands in the 2010-11 financial year,[6] tourism is the country's main industry, and the leading element of the economy, far ahead of offshore banking, pearls, and marine and fruit exports.

Defence and foreign affairs are the responsibility of New Zealand, in consultation with the Cook Islands. In recent times, the Cook Islands have adopted an increasingly independent foreign policy. Although Cook Islanders are citizens of New Zealand, they have the status of Cook Islands nationals, which is not given to other New Zealand citizens.

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Cook Islands
Kūki 'Āirani



Flag



Coat of arms

Anthem: *Te Atua Mou E*
God is Truth



Capital (and largest city)	Avarua 21°12′S 159°46′W
Official language(s)	English Cook Islands Māori
Spoken languages	English Cook Islands Māori Pukapukan Rakahanga-Manihiki
Ethnic groups	87.7% Māori, 5.8% part Māori, 6.5% other [1]
Demonym	Cook Islander
Government	Constitutional monarchy
- Head of State	Queen Elizabeth II
- Queen's Representative	Sir Frederick Tutu Goodwin
- Prime Minister	Henry Puna

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Geography

Main article: Geography of the Cook Islands

The Cook Islands are in the South Pacific Ocean, north-east of New Zealand, between French Polynesia and American Samoa. There are 15 major islands spread over 2.2 million km² of ocean, divided into two distinct groups: the Southern Cook Islands and the Northern Cook Islands of coral atolls.[7]

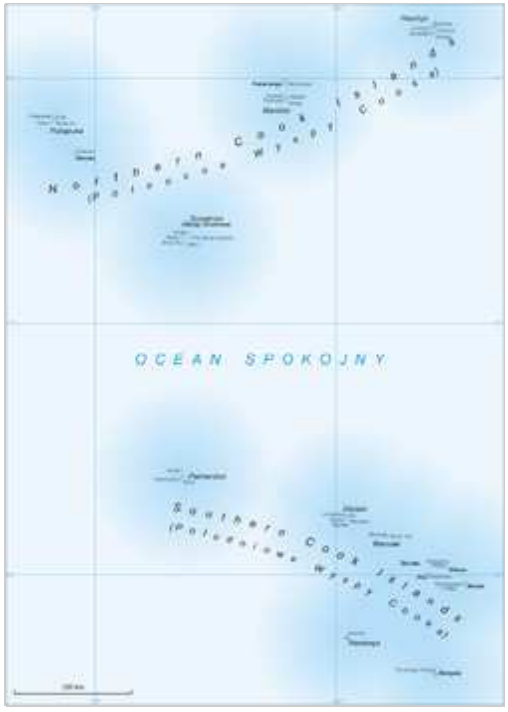
The islands were formed by volcanic activity; the northern group is older and consists of six atolls (sunken volcanoes topped by coral growth). The climate is moderate to tropical.

The 15 islands and two reefs are grouped as follows:

- **Southern Cook Islands:**
  - Nga-pu-Toru ("Three Roots", the eastern islands):
    - Atiu (Enua Manu or Island of Birds)
    - Ma'uke (Akatokamanava)
    - Mitiaro (Nukuroa)
    - Takutea
  - other islands:
    - Aitutaki (Araura Enua)
    - Mangaia (Auau Enua)
    - Rarotonga (Tumutevarovaro), with the capital, Avarua.
    - Palmerston Island (Pamati) sometimes grouped with the Northern Group.
    - Manuae
    - Winslow Reef (submerged)
- **Northern Cook Islands:**
  - Manihiki (Te Fuinga o Niva)
  - Nassau (Te Nuku o Ngalewu)
  - Penrhyn Island (Tongareva or Mangarongaro)
  - Pukapuka (Te Ulu o te Watu)
  - Rakahanga (Tapuahua)
  - Suwarrow also called Suvorov
  - Tema Reef (submerged)

History

Associated state	
- Self-government in free association with New Zealand	4 August 1965
- Independence in foreign relations recognized by the UN[2]	1992
Area	
- Total	240 km^2 (210th) 91 sq mi
Population	
- 2006 census	19,569 (213th)
- Density	76/km^2 (124th) 197/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2005 estimate
- Total	$183.2 million (not ranked)
- Per capita	$9,100 (not ranked)
Currency	New Zealand dollar (NZD), Cook Islands dollar
Time zone	(UTC-10)
Drives on the	left
Internet TLD	.ck
Calling code	682



Map of the Cook Islands.

Main article: History of the Cook Islands

The Cook Islands were first settled in the 6th century CE by Polynesian people who migrated from nearby Tahiti, to the southeast.[8]


Beach on Rarotonga.

Spanish ships visited the islands in the 16th century; the first written record of contact with the islands came with the sighting of Pukapuka by Spanish sailor Álvaro de Mendaña de Neira in 1595 who called it *San Bernardo* (Saint Bernard). Portuguese-Spaniard Pedro Fernández de Quirós, made the first recorded European landing in the islands when he set foot on Rakahanga in 1606, calling it *Gente Hermosa* (Beautiful People).[9]

British navigator Captain James Cook arrived in 1773 and 1777[10] and named the islands the *Hervey Islands*; the name "Cook Islands", in honour of Cook, appeared on a Russian naval chart published in the 1820s.[11]

In 1813, John Williams, a missionary on the *Endeavour* (not the same ship as Cook's), made the first recorded sighting of Rarotonga.[12] The first recorded landing on Rarotonga by Europeans was in 1814 by the Cumberland; trouble broke out between the sailors and the Islanders and many were killed on both sides.[13] The islands saw no more Europeans until missionaries arrived from England in 1821. Christianity quickly took hold in the culture and many islanders continue to be Christian believers today.

The Cook Islands became a British protectorate in 1888, due largely to community fears that France might occupy the territory as it had Tahiti. In 1901, the New Zealand Government decided to annex the country despite opposition from the country's traditional chiefs. As many of the islands were independent and ruled by local chiefs, the Cook Islands had no federal statutory law to decide the constitutional constraints regarding whether to agree to the country's annexation. When the British Nationality and New Zealand Citizenship Act 1948 came into effect on 1 January 1949, Cook Islanders who were British subjects gained New Zealand citizenship.[14] The country remained a New Zealand protectorate until 1965, when the New Zealand Government decided to offer self-governing status to its colony. In that year, Albert Henry of the Cook Islands Party was elected as the first Prime Minister. Henry led the country until he was accused of vote-rigging. He was succeeded in 1978 by Tom Davis of the Democratic Party. Today the Cook Islands are essentially independent in nearly all aspects, "self-governing in free association with New Zealand".[*citation needed*]

Politics and foreign relations

Main articles: Politics of the Cook Islands and Foreign relations of the Cook Islands

The Cook Islands is a representative democracy with a parliamentary system in an associated state relationship with New Zealand. Executive power is exercised by the government, with the Chief Minister as head of government. Legislative power is vested in both the government and the Parliament of the Cook Islands. There is a pluriform multi-party system. The Judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature. The Head of State is the Queen of New Zealand, who is represented in the Cook Islands by the Queen's Representative.

The islands are self-governing in "free association" with New Zealand. New Zealand retains primary responsibility for external affairs, with consultation with the Cook Islands government. Cook Islands nationals are citizens of New Zealand and can avail of New Zealand government services, but the reverse is not true; New

Zealand citizens are not Cook Island nationals. Despite this, as of 2011, the Cook Islands had diplomatic relations in its own name with 34 other countries. The Cook Islands is not a United Nations full member, but does participate in WHO and UNESCO, and is an associate member of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP).

On 11 June 1980, the United States signed a treaty with the Cook Islands specifying the maritime border between the Cook Islands and American Samoa and also relinquishing its claim to the islands of Penrhyn, Pukapuka, Manihiki, and Rakahanga.[15] In 1990 the Cook Islands signed a treaty with France which delimited the boundary between the Cook Islands and French Polynesia.[16]

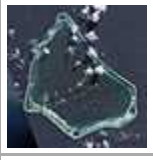


The parliament building of the Cook Islands, formerly a hotel.

Administrative subdivisions

There are island councils on all of the inhabited outer islands (Outer Islands Local Government Act 1987 with amendments up to 2004, and Palmerston Island Local Government Act 1993) except Nassau, which is governed by Pukapuka (Suwarrow, with only one caretaker living on the island, also governed by Pukapuka, is not counted with the inhabited islands in this context). Each council is headed by a mayor.

The ten Outer Islands councils are

		Aitutaki (including uninhabited Manuae)
		Mangaia
		Atiu (including uninhabited Takutea)
		Ma'uke
		Mitiaro
		Manihiki
		Penrhyn

		Rakahanga
		Pukapuka (including Nassau and Suwarrow)
		Palmerston

The three *vaka* councils of Rarotonga established in 1997 (*Rarotonga Local Government Act 1997*), also headed by mayors,[17] were abolished in February 2008, despite much controversy.[18]


Districts of Rarotonga.

The three *Vaka* councils on Rarotonga were

Te au o tonga	(equivalent to Avarua, the capital of the Cook Islands)
Puaikura	Arorangi
Takitumu	Ngatangiia

On the lowest level, there are village committees. Nassau, which is governed by Pukapuka, has an island committee (Nassau Island Committee), which advises the Pukapuka Island Council on matters concerning its own island.

Economy

Main article: Economy of the Cook Islands

The economy is strongly affected by geography. It is isolated from foreign markets, and has inadequate infrastructure; it lacks major natural resources and suffers greatly from natural disasters. Agriculture provides the economic base and manufacturing is limited. The economy is supported by foreign aid, largely from New Zealand. The Peoples' Republic of China has also contributed foreign aid which has resulted, among other projects, in the Police Headquarters building. The Cook Islands is expanding its tourism, banking, mining and fishing sectors, with varying success.

Culture

Language

The languages of the Cook Islands include English, Cook Islands Māori, or "Rarotongan," and Pukapukan. Dialects of Cook Islands Maori include Penrhyn; Rakahanga-Manihiki; the Ngaputoru dialect of Atiu, Mitiaro, and Mauke; the Aitutaki dialect; and the Mangaian dialect. Cook Islands Maori and its dialectic variants are closely related to both Tahitian and to New Zealand Māori. Pukapukan is considered closely related to the Samoan language. English and Cook Islands Maori are official languages of the Cook Islands.

Music

Main article: Music of the Cook Islands

Music in the Cook Islands is varied, with Christian songs being quite popular, but traditional dancing and songs in Polynesian languages remain popular.



Float parade during the annual Maeva Nui celebrations.

Public holidays

Holidays

Date	Name
1 January	New Year's Day
2 January	Day after New Year's Day
The Friday before Easter Sunday	Good Friday
The day after Easter Sunday	Easter Monday
25 April	ANZAC Day
The first Monday in June	Queen's Birthday
During July	Rarotonga Gospel Day
4 August	Constitution Day (*Te Maevea Nui Celebrations*)
26 October	Gospel Day
25 December	Christmas
26 December	Boxing Day

Art

Carving

Woodcarving is a common art form in the Cook Islands. The proximity of islands in the southern group helped produce a homogeneous style of carving but which had special developments in each island. Rarotonga is known for its fisherman's gods and staff-gods, Atiu for its wooden seats, Mitiaro, Ma'uke and Atiu for mace and slab gods and Mangaia for its ceremonial adzes. Most of the original wood carvings were either spirited away by early European collectors or were burned in large numbers by missionary zealots. Today, carving is no longer the major art form with the same spiritual and cultural emphasis given to it by the Maori in New Zealand. However, there are continual efforts to interest young people in their heritage and some good work is being turned out under the guidance of older carvers. Atiu, in particular, has a strong tradition of crafts both in carving and local fibre arts such as tapa. Mangaia is the source of many fine adzes carved in a distinctive, idiosyncratic style with the so-called double-k



design. Mangaia also produces food pounders carved from the heavy calcite found in its extensive limestone caves.

This wood carved figure escaped emasculation, despite its missionary collectors. Only one other comparable example is known, British Museum.

Weaving

The outer islands produce traditional weaving of mats, basketware and hats. Particularly fine examples of rito hats are worn by women to church. They are made from the uncurled immature fibre of the coconut palm and are of very high quality. The Polynesian equivalent of Panama hats, they are highly valued and are keenly sought by Polynesian visitors from Tahiti. Often, they are decorated with hatbands made of minuscule pupu shells which are painted and stitched on by hand. Although pupu are found on other islands the collection and use of them in decorative work has become a speciality of Mangaia. The weaving of rito is a speciality of the northern island of Penrhyn.

Tivaevae

A major art form in the Cook Islands is tivaevae. This is, in essence, the art of handmade Island scenery patchwork quilts. Introduced by the wives of missionaries in the 19th century, the craft grew into a communal activity and is probably one of the main reasons for its popularity.

Contemporary Art

The Cook Islands has produced internationally recognised contemporary artists, especially in the main island of Rarotonga. Artists include painter (and photographer) Mahiriki Tangaroa, sculptors Eruera (Ted) Nia (originally a film maker) and master carver Mike Tavioni, painter (and Polynesian tattoo enthusiast) Upoko'ina Ian George, Aitutakian-born painter Tim Manavaroa Buchanan, Loretta Reynolds, Judith Kunzlé, Joan Rolls Gragg, Kay George (who is also known for her fabric designs), Apii Rongo, and multi-media, installation and community-project artist Ani O'Neil, all of whom currently live on the main island of Rarotonga. Atiuan-based Andrea Eimke is an artist who works in the medium of tapa and other textiles, and also co-authored the book 'Tivaivai - The Social Fabric of the Cook Islands' with British academic Susanne Kuechler. Many of these artists have studied at university art schools in New Zealand and continue to enjoy close links with the New Zealand art scene.

New Zealand-based Cook Islander artists include Michel Tuffrey, print-maker David Teata, Richard Shortland Cooper, Sylvia Marsters, and Jim Vivieaere.

On Rarotonga, the main commercial galleries are Beachcomber Contemporary Art (Taputapuatea, Avarua) run by Ben Bergman, and The Art Gallery ('Arorangi). The Cook Islands National Museum also exhibits art.

Wildlife

- The national flower of the Cook Islands is the *Tiare māori* or *Tiale māoli* (Penrhyn, Nassau, Pukapuka).[19]
- The Cook Islands are infested with *Kiore toka* (Ship rat).[20] and Polynesian rat[21] The infestation has devastated the bird population on the islands.[22]
- In April 2007, 27 Kuhl's Lorikeet were re-introduced to Atiu from Rimatara. Fossil and oral traditions indicate that the species was formerly on at least five islands of the southern group. Excessive exploitation for its red feathers is the most likely reason for the species's extinction in the Cook Islands.[23]

Sport

Main article: Sport in the Cook Islands

See also: Netball in the Cook Islands

Rugby league is the most popular sport in the Cook Islands.[24] Association football (soccer), Cricket and rugby union are also popular.[*citation needed*]

See also

- Outline of the Cook Islands
- Index of Cook Islands-related articles
- Demographics of the Cook Islands

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History of the Cook Islands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Cook Islands** are named after Captain James Cook, who visited the islands in 1773 and 1777.[1] The Cook Islands became a British protectorate in 1888.

By 1900, administrative control was transferred to New Zealand; in 1965 residents chose self-government in free association with New Zealand.

The Cook Islands contain 15 islands in the group spread over a vast area in the South Pacific. The majority of islands are low coral atolls in the Northern Group, with Rarotonga, a volcanic island in the Southern Group, as the main administration and government centre. The main Cook Islands language is Rarotongan Māori. There are some variations in dialect in the 'outer' islands.



Pa te Pou Ariki, Chief of the Takitumu tribe, Rarotonga (c. 1837)

Contents

- 1 History
- 2 Gallery
- 3 Timeline
- 4 See also
- 5 References

History

The Cook Islands were first settled around 600 AD by Polynesian people who migrated from nearby Tahiti, to the southeast. Over-population on many of the tiny islands of Polynesia led to these oceanic migrations. Tradition has it that this was the reason for the expedition of Ru, from Tupua'i in French Polynesia, who landed on Aitutaki and Tangiia, also from French Polynesia, who are believed to have arrived on Rarotonga around 800 AD. Some evidence for this is that the old road of Toi, the *Ara Metua*, which runs round most of Rarotonga, is believed to be at least 1200 years old. This 29 km long, paved road is a considerable achievement of ancient engineering, unsurpassed elsewhere in Polynesia.[2] The islands of Manihiki and Rakahanga trace their origins to Toa (an outcast from Rarotonga) and Tupaeru (a woman of high-ranking in the Puaikura tribe of Rarotonga) in some Similarities, the rest of the northern islands were probably settled by expeditions from Samoa and Tonga.[3]

Spanish ships visited the islands in the 16th century; the first written record of contact with the Islands came with the sighting of Pukapuka by Spanish sailor Álvaro de Mendaña in 1595 who called it *San Bernardo* (Saint Bernard). Portuguese-Spaniard Pedro Fernández de Quirós, made the first recorded European landing in the islands when he set foot on Rakahanga in 1606, calling it *Gente Hermosa* (Beautiful People).[4]

British navigator Captain James Cook arrived in 1773 and 1777; Cook named the islands the 'Hervey Islands' to honour a British Lord of the Admiralty; Half a century later the Baltic German Admiral Adam Johann von Krusenstern published the *Atlas de l'Ocean Pacifique*, in which he renamed the islands the Cook Islands to

honour Cook. Captain Cook navigated and mapped much of the group. Surprisingly, Cook never sighted the largest island, Rarotonga, and the only island that he personally set foot on was tiny, uninhabited Palmerston Atoll.[5]

In 1813, John Williams, a missionary on the Endeavour (not the same ship as Cook's), made the first official sighting of the island Rarotonga. [1] (http://www.chr.org.au/fpbooks/tendecades/TEN%20DECADES%20Chapter%203.doc) The first recorded landing by Europeans was in 1814 by the Cumberland; trouble broke out between the sailors and the Islanders and many were killed on both sides.

The islands saw no more Europeans until missionaries arrived from England in 1821. Christianity quickly took hold in the culture and retains that grip today.

Brutal Peruvian slave traders, known as blackbirders, took a terrible toll on the islands of the Northern Group in 1862 and 1863. At first the traders may have genuinely operated as labour recruiters, but they quickly turned to subterfuge and outright kidnapping to round up their human cargo. The Cook Islands was not the only island group visited by the traders, but Penrhyn Atoll was their first port of call and it has been estimated that three-quarters of the population was taken to Callao, Peru.[6] Rakahanga and Pukapuka also suffered tremendous losses.[7]

The Kingdom of Rarotonga was established in 1858 and in 1888 it became a British protectorate by the request of Queen Makea Takau, mainly to thwart French expansionism. Then later were transferred to New Zealand in 1901. They remained a New Zealand protectorate until 1965, at which point they became a self-governing territory in free association with New Zealand. The first Prime Minister Sir Albert Henry led the county until 1978 when he was accused of vote-rigging.

Today, the Cook Islands are essentially independent (self-governing in free association with New Zealand), but are still officially placed under New Zealand sovereignty. New Zealand is tasked with overseeing the country's foreign relations and defence. The Cook Islands are one of four New Zealand dependencies, along with Tokelau, Niue and the Ross Dependency.

After achieving autonomy in 1965, the Cook Islands elected Albert Henry of the Cook Islands Party as their first Prime Minister. He was succeeded in 1978 by Tom Davis of the Democratic Party.

On 11 June 1980, the United States signed a treaty with the Cook Islands specifying the maritime border between the Cook Islands and American Samoa and also relinquishing its claim to the islands of Penrhyn, Pukapuka, Manihiki, and Rakahanga.[8] In 1990 the Cook Islands signed a treaty with France which delimited the maritime boundary between the Cook Islands and French Polynesia.

On June 13, 2008, a small majority of members of the House of Ariki attempted a coup, claiming to dissolve the elected government and to take control of the country's leadership. "Basically we are dissolving the leadership, the prime minister and the deputy prime minister and the ministers," chief Makea Vakatini Joseph Ariki explained. The *Cook Islands Herald* suggested that the *ariki* were attempting thereby to regain some of their traditional prestige or *mana*.[9][10] Prime Minister Jim Marurai described the take-over move as "ill-founded and nonsensical".[11] By June 23, the situation appeared to have normalised, with members of the House of Ariki accepting to return to their regular duties.[12]

The emigration of skilled workers to New Zealand and government deficits are continuing problems.

Gallery



Rarotonga Island Council (1923-1925)



The Kingdom of Rarotonga flag (1888-1893)



Ngamaru Rongotini Ariki, Mrs Seddon, Makea Takau Ariki, Mr Seddon (1900)



Queen Makea's Palace & Makea's Summer Cottage (1908)



Pa Maretu Ariki, Makea Takau Ariki, C.H. Mills, Tinomana Mereana Ariki (1903)



Prince Ngamaru the Ariki of Atiu (1885)



Makea Karika Tavake Ariki and elders of the Karika tribe, Rarotonga (1888-1910)



Makea Pori Ariki, Chief of Te-au-o-tonga, Rarotonga (1837)

Timeline

1595 — Spaniard Álvaro de Mendaña de Neira is the first European to sight the islands.

1606 — Portuguese-Spaniard Pedro Fernández de Quirós made the first recorded European landing in the islands when he set foot on Rakahanga.

1773 — Captain James Cook explores the islands and names them the Hervey Islands. Fifty years later they are renamed in his honour by Russian Admiral Adam Johann von Krusenstern.

1813 — English missionary John Williams made the first official sighting of Rarotonga.

1821 — English and Tahitian missionaries land in Aitutaki, become the first non-Polynesian settlers.

1823 — English missionary John Williams lands in Rarotonga, converting Makea Pori Ariki to Christianity.

1858 — The Cook Islands become united as a state, the Kingdom of Rarotonga.

1862 — Peruvian slave traders took a terrible toll on the islands of Penrhyn, Rakahanga and Pukapuka in 1862 and 1863.

1888 — Cook Islands are proclaimed a British protectorate and a single federal parliament is established.

1901 — The Cook Islands are annexed to New Zealand.

1924 — The All Blacks *Invincibles* stop in Rarotonga on their way to the United Kingdom and play a friendly match against a scratch Rarotongan team.

1946 — Legislative Council is established. For the first time since 1912, the territory has direct representation.

1965 — The Cook Islands become a self-governing territory in free association with New Zealand. Albert Henry, leader of the Cook Islands Party, is elected as the territory's first prime minister.

1974 — Albert Henry is knighted by Queen Elizabeth II

1979 — Sir Albert Henry is found guilty of electoral fraud and stripped of his premiership and his knighthood. Tom Davis becomes Premier.

1980 — Cook Islands – United States Maritime Boundary Treaty establishes the Cook Islands – American Samoa boundary

1981 — Constitution is amended. Parliament grows from 22 to 24 seats and the parliamentary term is extended from four to five years. Tom Davis is knighted.

1984 — The country's first coalition government, between Sir Thomas and Geoffrey Henry, is signed in the lead up to hosting regional Mini Games in 1985. Shifting coalitions saw ten years of political instability. At one stage, all but two MPs were in government.

1985 — Rarotonga Treaty is opened for signing in the Cook Islands, creating a nuclear free zone in the South Pacific.

1986 — In January 1986, following the rift between New Zealand and the USA in respect of the ANZUS security arrangements Prime Minister Tom Davis declared the Cook Islands a neutral country, because he considered that New Zealand (which has control over the islands' defence and foreign policy) was no longer in a position to defend the islands. The proclamation of neutrality meant that the Cook Islands would not enter into a military relationship with any foreign power, and, in particular, would prohibit visits by US warships. Visits by US naval vessels were allowed to resume by Henry's Government.

1990 — Cook Islands – France Maritime Delimitation Agreement establishes the Cook Islands – French Polynesia boundary

1991 — The Cook Islands signed a treaty of friendship and co-operation with France, covering economic development, trade and surveillance of the islands' EEZ. The establishment of closer relations with France was widely regarded as an expression of the Cook Islands' Government's dissatisfaction with existing arrangements with New Zealand which was no longer in a position to defend the Cook Islands.

1995 — The French Government resumed its Programme of nuclear-weapons testing at Mururoa Atoll in September 1995 upsetting the Cook Islands. New Prime Minister Geoffrey Henry was fiercely critical of the decision and dispatched a vaka (traditional voyaging canoe) with a crew of Cook Islands' traditional warriors to protest near the test site. The tests were concluded in January 1996 and a moratorium was placed on future testing by the French government.

1997 — Full diplomatic relations established with China.

1997 — In November, Cyclone Martin in Manihiki kills at least six people; 80% of buildings are damaged and the black pearl industry suffered severe losses.

1999 — A second era of political instability begins, starting with five different coalitions in less than nine months, and at least as many since then.

2000 — Full diplomatic relations concluded with France.

2002 — Prime Minister Terepai Maoate is ousted from government following second vote of no-confidence in his leadership.

2004 — Prime Minister Robert Woonton visits China; Chinese Premier Wen Jiabao grants $16 million in development aid.

2006 — Parliamentary elections held. The Democratic Party keeps majority of seats in parliament, but is unable to command a majority for confidence, forcing a coalition with breakaway MPs who left, then rejoined the "Demos."

See also

- Postage stamps and postal history of the Cook Islands

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Categories: History of the Cook Islands

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Niue

Coordinates: 19°03′S 169°55′W

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Niue (/ˈnjuːeɪ/ ***NEW-ay***; *Niuean*: **Niuē**), is an island country in the South Pacific Ocean. It is commonly known as the "Rock of Polynesia", and inhabitants of the island call it "the Rock" for short. Niue is 2,400 kilometres (1,500 mi) northeast of New Zealand in a triangle between Tonga to the southwest, the Samoas to the northwest, and the Cook Islands to the southeast. The land area is 260 square kilometres (100 sq mi) with about 1,400 people who are predominantly Polynesian.

Though self-governing, Niue is in free association with New Zealand, and lacks full sovereignty. All Niueans are New Zealand citizens and Queen Elizabeth II is Niue's head of state in her capacity as Queen of New Zealand. Most diplomatic relations are conducted by New Zealand on Niue's behalf. 90-95% of Niuean people live in New Zealand,[3] along with about 70% of the speakers of the Niuean language. [*citation needed*]

In 2003, Niue became the world's first "WiFi nation", in which free wireless Internet access is provided throughout the country by The Internet Users Society-Niue.[4]

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Niue
Niuē



Flag



Coat of arms

Anthem: *Ko e Iki he Lagi* (Niuean)
"The Lord in Heaven"



Capital	Alofi 19°03′S 169°52′W
Largest Village	Hakupu
Official language(s)	Niuean, English
Demonym	Niuean
Government	Constitutional monarchy
- Head of State	Queen Elizabeth II
- Queen's Representative	Sir Jerry Mateparae
- Premier	Toke Talagi
Associated state	
- Self-government in free association with New Zealand	19 October 1974
- Independence in foreign relations recognized by the UN[1]	1994

History

Main article: History of Niue

Niue was settled by Polynesians from Samoa around 900 AD.[5] Further settlers (or invaders) arrived from Tonga in the 16th century.[5]

Until the beginning of the 18th century, there appears to have been no national government or national leader. Before then, chiefs and heads of families exercised authority over segments of the population. Around 1700 the concept and practice of kingship appear to have been introduced through contact with Samoa or Tonga. From then a succession of *patu-iki* (kings) ruled the island, the first of whom was Puni-mata. Tui-toga, who reigned from 1875 to 1887, was the first Christian king.[6]

The first European to sight Niue was Captain James Cook in 1774. Cook made three attempts to land on the island but was refused permission to do so by the Polynesian inhabitants. He named the island "Savage Island" because, legend has it, the natives that "greeted" him were painted in what appeared to Cook and his crew to be blood. However, the substance on their teeth was that of the hulahula, a native red banana.[7]

For the next couple of centuries the island was known as Savage Island, until its original name **Niu ē**, which translates as "behold the coconut",[8] regained use.

The next notable European visitors were from the London Missionary Society who arrived in 1846 on the "Messenger of Peace". After many years of trying to land a European missionary on Niue, a Niuean named Nukai Peniamina was taken to Samoa and trained as a Pastor at the Malua Theological College.[*citation needed*] Peniamina returned as a missionary with the help of Toimata Fakafitifonua. He was finally allowed to land in Uluvehi Mutalau after a number of attempts in other villages had failed. The Chiefs of Mutalau village allowed Peniamina to land and assigned over 60 warriors to protect him day and night at the fort in Fupiu.

Christianity was first taught to the Mutalau people before it was spread to all the villages on Niue; originally other major villages opposed the introduction of Christianity and had sought to kill Peniamina. The people from the village of Hakupu, although the last village to receive Christianity, came and asked for a "word of god"; hence their village was renamed "Ha Kupu Atua" meaning "any word of god", or "Hakupu" for short.

Area	
- Total	260 km^2 100 sq mi
- Water (%)	0
Population	
- July 2009 estimate	1,398[2] (221st)
- Density	5.35/km^2 (n/a) 13.9/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	estimate
- Total	$10 million (not ranked)
Currency	New Zealand dollar (There is also an unofficial Niue dollar) (NZD)
Time zone	(UTC-11)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	NU
Internet TLD	.nu
Calling code	683



Interior of church building in Alofi, 1896. (photo by Thomas Andrew (1855-1939)



Coral chasm in Niue

In 1887, King Fata-a-iki, who reigned from 1887 to 1896, offered to cede sovereignty to the British Empire, fearing the consequences of annexation by a less benevolent colonial power. The offer was not accepted until 1900.

Niue was a British protectorate for a time, but the UK's direct involvement ended in 1901 when New Zealand annexed the island. Self-government was granted by the New Zealand parliament with the 1974 constitution, following a referendum in Niue in 1974 whereby Niueans were given three options: independence, self-government or continuation as a New Zealand territory. The majority selected self-government and Niue's written constitution[9] was promulgated as supreme law. Robert Rex, ethnically part European, part native, was appointed the country's first premier, a position he held until his death 18 years later. Rex became the first Niuean to receive a knighthood, in 1984.

In January 2004, Niue was hit by Cyclone Heta, which killed two people and caused extensive damage to the entire island, including wiping out most of the south of the capital, Alofi.

Politics

Main article: Politics of Niue

The Niue Constitution Act vests executive authority in Her Majesty the Queen in Right of New Zealand and the Governor-General of New Zealand. The Constitution specifies that in everyday practice sovereignty is exercised by the Niue Cabinet of Ministers, comprising the premier and three other ministers. The premier and ministers are members of the Niue Legislative Assembly, the nation's parliament.

The assembly consists of 20 democratically elected members, 14 of whom are elected by the electors of each village constituency, six by all registered voters in all constituencies. Electors must be New Zealand citizens, resident for at least three months, and candidates must be electors and resident for 12 months.[*citation needed*] Anyone born in Niue must register on the electoral roll.

The Speaker is elected by the assembly and is the first official to be elected in the first sitting of the Legislative Assembly following an election. The new Speaker calls for nominations for premier; the candidate with the most votes from the 20 members is elected. The Premier selects three other members to form the Cabinet of Ministers, the executive arm of government. The other two organs of government, following the Westminster model, are the Legislative Assembly and the Judiciary. General elections take place every three years, most recently on 7 May 2011.

The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature. Niue has a High Court, a Court of Appeal, and enjoys appeals to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, in London.[10]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Niue

See also: List of villages in Niue

Niue is a 269 km² raised coral atoll in the southern Pacific Ocean, east of Tonga. The geographic coordinates are 19°03′48″S 169°52′11″W.[11] There are three geographically outlying coral reefs within the Exclusive Economic Zone that do not have any land area:

1. Beveridge Reef, at 20°00′S, 167°48′W, 240 km southeast, submerged atoll drying during low tide, 9.5 km

North-South, 7.5 km East-West, total area 56 km², no land area, lagoon 11 metres deep
2. Antiope Reef, at 18°15′S, 168°24′W, 180 km southeast, is a circular plateau approximately 400 metres in diameter, with a least depth of 9.5 metres
3. Haran Reef (Harans Reef), at 21°33′S, 168°55′W, reported to break furiously, 294 km southeast

Besides these, Albert Meyer Reef, (20°53′S, 172°19′W, almost 5 km long and wide, least depth 3 metres, 326 km southwest) is not officially claimed by Niue, and the existence of Haymet Rocks, (26°S, 160°W, 1273 km ESE) is in doubt.



Map of Niue

Niue is one of the world's largest coral islands. The terrain consists of steep limestone cliffs along the coast with a central plateau rising to about 60 metres above sea level. A coral reef surrounds the island, with the only major break in the reef being in the central western coast, close to the capital, Alofi. A notable feature is the number of limestone caves found close to the coast.


Niue coastline

The island is roughly oval in shape (with a diameter of about 18 kilometres), with two large bays indenting the western coast, Alofi Bay in the centre and Avatele Bay in the south. Between these is the promontory of Halagigie Point. A small peninsula, TePā Point (Blowhole Point), is close to the settlement of Avatele in the southwest. Most of the population resides close to the west coast, around the capital, and in the northwest.

Some of the soils are geochemically very unusual. They are extremely highly weathered tropical soils, with high levels of iron and aluminium oxides (oxisol) and mercury, and they contain surprisingly high levels of natural radioactivity. There is almost no uranium, but the radionucleides Th-230 and Pa-231 head the decay chains. This is the same distribution of elements as found naturally on very deep seabeds, but the geochemical evidence suggests that the origin is extreme weathering of coral and brief sea submergence 120,000 years ago. Endothermal upwelling, by which mild natural volcanic heat draws deep seawater up through the porous coral, may also contribute.[12]

No adverse health effects from the radioactivity or other trace elements have been demonstrated and calculations show that level of radioactivity would probably be much too low to be detected in the population. These unusual soils are very rich in phosphate, but it is not accessible to plants, being in the very insoluble form of iron phosphate, or crandallite. It is thought that rather similar radioactive soils may exist on Lifou and Mare near New Caledonia, and Rennell in the Solomon Islands, but no other locations are known.

The time difference between Niue and mainland New Zealand is 23 hours during the Southern Hemisphere winter and 24 hours when the mainland uses Daylight Saving Time.

Climate

The island has a tropical climate, with most rainfall occurring between November and April.

Climate data for Alofi, Niue

Month	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Year
Record high °C (°F)	38 (100)	38 (100)	32 (90)	36 (97)	30 (86)	32 (90)	35 (95)	37 (99)	36 (97)	31 (88)	37 (99)	36 (97)	38 (100)
Average high °C (°F)	28 (82)	29 (84)	28 (82)	27 (81)	26 (79)	26 (79)	25 (77)	25 (77)	26 (79)	26 (79)	27 (81)	28 (82)	27 (81)
Daily mean °C (°F)	26 (79)	27 (81)	26 (79)	25 (77)	25 (77)	23 (73)	22 (72)	23 (73)	23 (73)	24 (75)	25 (77)	26 (79)	25 (77)
Average low °C (°F)	23 (73)	24 (75)	24 (75)	23 (73)	22 (72)	21 (70)	20 (68)	20 (68)	21 (70)	21 (70)	22 (72)	23 (73)	22 (72)
Record low °C (°F)	20 (68)	20 (68)	20 (68)	14 (57)	15 (59)	13 (55)	11 (52)	11 (52)	15 (59)	15 (59)	11 (52)	17 (63)	11 (52)
Precipitation cm (inches)	26 (10.2)	25 (9.8)	30 (11.8)	20 (7.9)	13 (5.1)	8 (3.1)	9 (3.5)	10 (3.9)	10 (3.9)	12 (4.7)	14 (5.5)	19 (7.5)	207 (81.5)
Source: Weatherbase[13]													

Defense and foreign affairs

Main article: Foreign relations of Niue

Niue has been self-governing in free association with New Zealand since 3 September 1974 when the people endorsed the Constitution in a plebiscite.[14] Niue is fully responsible for its internal affairs. Niue's position concerning its external relations is less clear cut. Section 6 of the Niue Constitution Act provides that: *"Nothing in this Act or in the Constitution shall affect the responsibilities of Her Majesty the Queen in right of New Zealand for the external affairs and defence of Niue."* Section 8 elaborates but still leaves the position unclear, providing *"Effect shall be given to the provisions of sections 6 and 7* [concerning external affairs and defence and economic and administrative assistance respectively] *of this Act, and to any other aspect of the relationship between New Zealand and Niue which may from time to time call for positive co-operation between New Zealand and Niue after consultation between the Prime Minister of New Zealand and the Premier of Niue, and in accordance with the policies of their respective Governments; and, if it appears desirable that any provision be made in the law of Niue to carry out these policies, that provision may be made in the manner prescribed in the Constitution, but not otherwise."*[15] The island has a representative mission in Wellington, New Zealand. Niue is also a member of the Pacific Islands Forum and a number of regional and international agencies. It is not a member of the United Nations, but is a state party to the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, the Ottawa Treaty and the Treaty of Rarotonga. The country is a member state of UNESCO since 26 October 1993.[16]

Niue purported to establish diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China on December 12, 2007.[17] However, in light of its Constitution it is uncertain whether Niue had the capacity to enter diplomatic relations with any country. Traditionally, Niue's foreign relations and defence have been regarded as the responsibility of New Zealand, which has full diplomatic relations with China. Furthermore the Joint Communique signed by Niue and China is different in its treatment of the Taiwan question from that agreed by New Zealand and China. New Zealand "acknowledged" China's position on Taiwan but has never expressly agreed with it, but Niue *"recognizes that there is only one China in the world, the Government of the People's Republic of China is the sole legal government representing the whole of China and Taiwan is an inalienable part of the territory of China."*[17] Critics have asked whether Niueans can continue to benefit from free association with New Zealand and yet disregard New Zealand's advice and establish an independent foreign policy.[18]

The people of Niue have fought as part of the New Zealand army. In World War I, Niue sent about 200 soldiers

as part of the Maori Battalion under New Zealand forces.[19]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Niue


Alofi, the capital of Niue.

Niue's economy is small, with a GDP of NZ$17 million in 2003,[20] or US$10 million at purchasing power parity.[21] Most economic activity revolves around the government, as the government was traditionally in charge of organising and managing the affairs of the new country since 1974. However, since the economy has reached a stage where state regulation may now give way to the private sector, there is an ongoing effort to develop the private sector. Following Cyclone Heta, the government made a major commitment towards rehabilitating and developing the private sector.[*citation needed*]

The government allocated $1 million for the private sector, which was spent on helping businesses devastated by the cyclone, and on the construction of the Fonuakula Industrial Park. This industrial park is now completed and some businesses are already operating from it. The Fonuakula Industrial Park is managed by the Niue Business Centre, a quasi-governmental organisation providing advisory services to businesses.

Most Niuean families grow their own food crops for subsistence and some are sold at the Niue Makete in Alofi, some exported to their families in New Zealand.[*citation needed*] The Niuean taro is known in Samoa as "talo Niue" and in international markets as pink taro. Niue also exports taro to the New Zealand market. The Niue taro is a natural variety and is very resistant to pests.[*citation needed*]

The Niue Government and the Reef Group from New Zealand started two joint ventures in 2003 and 2004 involving the development of the fisheries and noni (*Morinda citrifolia*, a small tree with edible fruit). The Niue Fish Processors, Ltd is a joint venture company processing fresh fish, mainly tuna (yellow fin, big eye and albacore), for export to the overseas markets. NFP operates out of their state-of-the-art fish plant in Amanau Alofi South, completed and opened in October 2004.[*citation needed*]

In August 2005, an Australian mining company, Yamarna Goldfields, suggested that Niue might have the world's largest deposit of uranium. By early September these hopes were seen as overoptimistic,[22] and in late October the company cancelled its plans to mine, announcing that exploration drilling had identified nothing of commercial value.[23] The Australian Securities and Investments Commission filed charges in January 2007 against two directors of the company, now called Mining Projects Group Ltd, alleging that their conduct was deceptive and they engaged in insider trading.[24] This case was settled out of court in July 2008, both sides withdrawing their claims.[25] There is an Australian company that had been issued a mineral prospecting license in the early 1970s which is still very active in doing research and collecting data on potential mineral deposits on Niue.[*citation needed*]

Remittances from Niuean expatriates were a major source of foreign exchange in the 1970s and early 1980s. The continuous migration of Niueans to New Zealand has shifted most members of nuclear and extended families to New Zealand, removing the need to send remittances back home. In the late 1990s, PFTAC conducted studies on the Niue balance of payments,[26] which confirmed that Niueans are receiving little remittances but are sending more monies overseas, mainly for paying for imported goods and for the education of Niuean students sent to

study in New Zealand.[*citation needed*]

Foreign aid, principally from New Zealand, has been the island's principal source of income.[27] Although most Niuean foreign aid comes from New Zealand the island nation is currently losing $250,000 NZ a year (i.e. reduce in New Zealand funding) meaning the country will come to rely upon its own economy more in times to come.

Government expenses consistently exceed revenue to a substantial degree, with aid from New Zealand subsidizing public service payrolls. The government also generates some revenue, mainly from income tax, import tax and the lease of phone lines. The government briefly flirted with the creation of "offshore banking", but, under pressure from the US Treasury, agreed to end its support for schemes designed to minimize tax in countries like New Zealand. Niue now provides an automated Companies Registration, which is administered by the New Zealand Ministry of Economic Development. The Niue Legislative Assembly passed the Niue Consumption Tax Act in the first week of February 2009, and the 12.5% tax on good and services is expected to come into effect on 1 April 2009. Income tax has been lowered, and import tax may be reset to zero except for "sin" items like tobacco, alcohol and soft drinks. Tax on secondary income has been lowered from 35% to 10%, with the stated goal of fostering increased labour productivity.[28]

In 1997, the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority (IANA), under contract with the US Department of Commerce, assigned the Internet Users Society-Niue (IUS-N), a private charity, as manager of the .nu top-level domain on the Internet. IUS-N's charitable purpose was — and continues to be — to use revenue from registering .nu domain names to fund low-cost or free Internet services for the people of Niue. In a letter to ICANN in 2007, IUS-N's independent auditors reported IUS-N had invested US$3 million for Internet services in Niue between 1999 and 2005 from .nu domain name registration revenue during that period. In 1999, IUS-N and the Government of Niue signed an agreement whereby the Government recognized that IUS-N managed the .nu ccTLD under IANA's authority and IUS-N committed to provide free Internet services to government departments as well as to Niue's private citizens. A newly elected Government later disputed that agreement and attempted to assert a claim on the domain name, including a requirement for IUS-N to make direct payments of compensation to the Government.[29] In 2005, a Government-appointed Commission of Inquiry into the dispute released its report, which found no merit in the government's claims; the government subsequently dismissed the claims in 2007.[30] Starting in 2003, IUS-N began installing WiFi connections throughout the capital village of Alofi and in several nearby villages and schools, and has been expanding WiFi coverage into the outer villages since then, making Niue the first WiFi Nation.[31] To assure security for Government departments, IUS-N provides the government with a secure DSL connection to IUS-N's satellite Internet link, at no cost.

In 2003, the Government made a commitment to develop and expand vanilla production with the support of NZAID. Vanilla has grown wild in Niue for a long time. Despite the setback caused by the devastation of Cyclone Heta in early 2004, there was ongoing work on vanilla production. The expansion plan started with the employment of the unemployed or underemployed labour force to help clear land, plant supporting trees and plant vanilla vines. The approach to accessing land includes planning to have each household plant a small plot of around half to 1-acre (4,000 m^2) to be cleared and planted with vanilla vines. There are a lot of planting materials for supporting trees to meet demand for the expansion of vanilla plantations, however there is a severe shortage of vanilla vines for planting stock. There is of course the existing vanilla vines, but cutting them for planting stock will reduce or stop the vanilla from producing beans. At the moment, the focus is in the areas of harvesting and marketing.[*citation needed*]

Niue's economy suffered from the devastating tropical Cyclone Heta on 4 January 2004. The Niue Integrated Strategic Plan (NISP) is the national development plan, setting national priorities for development. Cyclone Heta took away about two years from the implementation of the NISP, while national efforts concentrate on the recovery efforts. In 2008, Niue had yet to fully recover from the devastation of Cyclone Heta.

In the area of trade, Niue is currently in the process of negotiating with other Pacific countries free trade agreements, PICTA Trade in Services (PICTA TIS), Economic Partnership Agreements with the European Union, and PACER Plus with Australia and New Zealand. The Office of the Chief Trade Adviser (OCTA) has already been set up to assist Niue and other Pacific countries in the negotiation of the PACER Plus.

Niue uses the New Zealand dollar.

Agriculture

Agriculture is very important to the lifestyle of Niueans and the economy, and around 204 square kilometres of Niue's total land area are available for agriculture.[32] Subsistence agriculture is very much part of Niue's agriculture, where nearly all the households have plantations of taro.[33] Taro is a staple food, and the pink taro now dominant in the taro markets in New Zealand and Australia, is an intellectual property of Niue. This is one of the natural taro varieties on Niue, and has a strong resistance to pests.

Tapioca or cassava, yams and kumaras also grow very well,[34] as do different varieties of bananas. Copra, passionfruit and limes dominated exports in the 1970s, but in 2008 vanilla, noni and taro are Niue's main export crops.

Coconut crab is also part of the food chain; it lives in the forest and coastal areas.[35]

The last agricultural census was in 1989.[36]

Tourism

Tourism has been identified as one of the three priority economic sectors (the other two are fisheries and agriculture) for economic development in Niue. In 2006, estimated visitor expenditure reached $1.6 million making tourism a major export industry for Niue. Niue will continue to receive direct support from the Government and overseas donor agencies. Air New Zealand is the sole airline serving Niue, flying to Niue once a week. It took over after Polynesian Airlines stopped flying in November 2005. There is currently a tourism development strategy to increase the number of rooms available to overseas tourists at a sustainable level. Niue is also trying to attract foreign investors to invest in the tourism industry of Niue by offering import and company tax concessions as incentives.

Media

Niue does not have much media, due to its small size and population. It has two broadcast media outlets, Television Niue and Radio Sunshine, managed and operated by the Broadcasting Corporation of Niue, and one printed newspaper, the *Niue Star*.[37] The internet also provides opportunity for other news services like http://talanet.okakoa.com.

Information technology

The first computers were Apple machines brought in by the University of the South Pacific Extension Centre around the early 1980s. The Treasury Department first computerised their general ledger in 1986 using NEC personal computers which are IBM PC XT compatible.[*citation needed*] The Census of Households and Population in 1986 was the first to be processed using a personal computer with the assistance of David Marshall, FAO Adviser on Agricultural Statistics, advising UNFPA Demographer Dr Lawrence Lewis and Niue Government

Statistician Bill Vakaafi Motufoou to switch from using manual tabulation cards. In 1987 Statistics Niue got its new personal computer NEC PC AT use for processing the 1986 census data; Niue's personnel were sent on training in Japan and New Zealand to use the new computer. Niue's first Computer Policy was developed and adopted in 1988.[*citation needed*]

In 2003, Niue became the first territory to offer free wireless internet to all its inhabitants.[38] In August 2008 it has been reported that 100 percent of primary and high school students have what is known as the OLPC XO-1, a specialised laptop by the One Laptop per Child project designed for children in the developing world.[39] Niue was also a location of tests for the OpenBTS project, which aims to deliver low-cost GSM base stations built with open source software.[40] In July 2011, Niue Telecom launched pre-paid mobile services (Voice/EDGE - 2.5G) as Rokcell Mobile based on the commercial GSM product of vendor Lemko. Three BTS sites will cover the Island nation. International roaming is not currently available. Once the fibre cable is completed around the island (FTTC), Internet/ADSL services are planned to be rolled out towards the end of 2011.



Students using their OLPC laptops on the school yard

Culture

See also: Music of Niue

Liku, the eastern-most village of Niue, is the home of prominent international artist Mark Cross (http://www.markcross.nu) and his wife, the master weaver, Ahitautama. Two kilometers south of Liku is the Hikulagi Sculpture Park, an ongoing environmental art project, supported by Reef Shipping (http://www.reefship.co.nz/) , The Pacific Development and Conservation Trust (http://www.dia.govt.nz/diawebsite.nsf/wpg_URL/Services-Trust-&-Fellowship-Grants-The-Pacific-Development-and-Conservation-Trust?OpenDocument) and several other organisations.



Niuean dancers at the Pasifika Festival.

Niue is the birthplace of New Zealand artist and writer John Pule. Author of *The Shark That Ate the Sun*, he also paints, tapa cloth inspired designs on canvas.[41] In 2005, he co-wrote *Hiapo: Past and Present in Niuean Barkcloth*, a study of a traditional Niuean artform, with Australian writer and anthropologist Nicholas Thomas.[42]

Taoga Niue is a newly established Government Department responsible for the preservation of the culture, tradition and heritage of Niue. Recognising its importance, the Government has added Taoga Niue as the sixth pillar of the Niue Integrated Strategic Plan (NISP).

Religion

Seventy-five percent of the population of Niue belong to the *Ekalesia Nieue* (a national Congregationalist body). About 15% are Latter-day Saints and 7% are Catholics.[43] About 1.5% of the population are Baha'i,[44] a relatively large proportion and ranking 19th worldwide on the list provided by Adherents.com. Two percent of the population are Jehovah's Witnesses, the second-highest proportion in the world (after St. Helena).[45]

Renewable energy

The European Union is helping Niue convert to using renewable energy. In July 2009 a solar panel system was installed, injecting about 50 kW into the Niue national power grid. This is nominal 6% of the average 833 kW electricity production. The solar panels are installed at Niue High School (20 kW), Niue Power Corporation office (1.7 kW)[46] and the Niue Foou Hospital (30 kW). The EU-funded grid-connected PV systems are supplied under the REP-5 programme and were installed recently by the Niue Power Corporation on the roofs of the high school and the power station office and on ground-mounted support structures in front of the hospital. They will be monitored and maintained by the NPC.[47]

Sport

See also: Rugby union in Niue



The Niue sevens team performing a takalo.

Despite Niue being a small country, a number of different sports are popular. Rugby union is the most popular sport in Niue, played by both men and women; Niue were the 2008 FORU Oceania Cup champions.[48] Netball is played only by women. There is a nine-hole golf course at Fonuakula. There is a lawn bowling green under construction. Association Football is a popular sport in Niue, as evidenced by the Niue Soccer Tournament. Rugby league is a very popular team sport played in Niue.

See also

- Outline of Niue
- Bibliography of Niue
- Music of Niue
- Niue dollar
- Niuean diplomatic missions
- Niuean language
- Transportation in Niue

Further reading

See also: Bibliography of Niue

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- Tregear, Edward, "Niue: or Savage Island" (http://www.jps.auckland.ac.nz/document/Volume_2_1893/Volume_2%2C_No.1%2C_March_1893/Niue%3A_or_Savage_Island%2C_by_Edward_Tregear%2C_p_11-16/p1?action=null) , *The Journal of the Polynesian Society*, vol.2, March 1893, pp. 11–16

History of Niue

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Niue was first settled by Polynesian sailors from Tonga around 900 AD.[1] Further settlers arrived from Samoa around 1440 AD.

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- 1 Early history
- 2 Captain Cook
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Early history

Until the beginning of the 18th century, there appears to have been no national government or national leader in Niue. Before that time, chiefs and heads of family exercised authority over segments of the population. Around 1700, the concept and practice of kingship appears to have been introduced through contact with Samoa or Tonga. From then on, a succession of *putu-iki* (kings) ruled the island, the first of whom was Puni-mata. Tui-toga, who reigned from 1875 to 1887, was the first Christian king of Niue.[2] (*See*: List of Niuean monarchs)

Captain Cook

Captain James Cook was the first European to sight the island, but he was unable to land there due to fierce opposition by the local population. The *1911 Encyclopædia Britannica* claimed this was due to native fear of foreign disease.[3] In response, Cook named Niue the *Savage Island*.

Christian missionaries

Christian missionaries from the London Missionary Society converted most of the population circa 1846. In 1887, King Fataaiki wrote to Queen Victoria of the United Kingdom, requesting that Niue be placed under British protection, but his request was turned down. In 1900, in response to renewed requests, the island became a British protectorate, and the following year it was annexed by New Zealand. Niue's remoteness, as well as cultural and linguistic differences between its Polynesian inhabitants and those of the Cook Islands, caused it to be separately administered.

World War I

150 Niuean men, 4% of the island's population, served as soldiers in the New Zealand armed forces during World War I.[4][5]

Autonomy

Niue gained its autonomy in 1974 in free association with New Zealand, which handles the island's military and foreign affairs. Niue had been offered autonomy in 1965 (along with the Cook Islands, which accepted), but had asked for its autonomy to be deferred another decade.

Recent history

In January 2004, Niue was struck by a devastating cyclone (Cyclone Heta) which left 200 of the islands' 1600 inhabitants homeless. As a number of local residents chose afterwards not to rebuild, New Zealand's Foreign Affairs Minister Phil Goff speculated that Niue's status as a self-governing nation in free association with New Zealand might come into question if too many residents departed the island to maintain basic services. Soon afterwards, Niue Premier Young Vivian categorically rejected the possibility of altering the existing relationship with New Zealand.

The population of the island continues to drop (from a peak of 5,200 in 1966 to 2,100 in 2000), with substantial emigration to New Zealand.

See also

- Postage stamps and postal history of Niue

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External links

- A Brief History of Niue (http://www.seafriends.org.nz/niue/history.htm)
- History of Niue (http://www.historyofnations.net/oceania/niue.html)

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=History_of_Niue&oldid=467113827"

Tokelau

Coordinates: 09°10′S 171°50′W

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Tokelau (/ˈtoʊkəlaʊ/) is a territory of New Zealand in the South Pacific Ocean that consists of three tropical coral atolls with a combined land area of 10 km^2 and a population of approximately 1,400. The atolls lie north of the Samoan Islands, east of Tuvalu, south of the Phoenix Islands, southwest of the more distant Line Islands (both island groups belonging to Kiribati) and northwest of the Cook Islands.

The United Nations General Assembly designated Tokelau a Non-Self-Governing Territory.[2] Until 1976 the official name was *Tokelau Islands*. Tokelau is sometimes referred to by the older, colonial name of *The Union Islands*.

Tokelau	
 Flag	 Symbol
Motto: *"Tokelau mo te Atua"* (Tokelauan) "Tokelau for the Almighty"	
Anthem: God Save The Queen	
	
Capital	Nukunonu (main settlement, although each atoll has its own administrative centre.)
Largest city	Nukunonu (Officially)
Official language(s)	Tokelauan,[1] English
Demonym	Tokelauan
Government	Constitutional monarchy
- Head of State	Queen Elizabeth II
- Administrator	Jonathan Kings (February 2011-)
- Head of Government	Keli Hiano Kalolo (2012-)
New Zealand territory	
- Tokelau Act	1948
Area	

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Etymology and consequences of name usage

The name *Tokelau* is a Polynesian word meaning "North Wind". The islands were named the *Union Islands* and *Union*

Group by European explorers at an unknown time. *Tokelau Islands* was adopted as the name in 1946, and was contracted to *Tokelau* on 9 December 1976.

The change from *Tokelau Islands* to *Tokelau* marked a slight shift in emphasis, with consequences in regional diplomacy, in that the term *Tokelau Islands* clearly and substantially referred to a geographical expression, that is, a range of islands, whatever else it may connote. It is not necessarily controversial to refer by name to a range of islands, even though they may come under two or more political jurisdictions. *Tokelau*, on the other hand, can be taken to refer more immediately to some concept of nationhood, arguably infusing increased meaning to the draft 2006 independence constitution of Tokelau (which somewhat controversially claims Tokelauan inhabited *Olohega* (or Swains Island), currently part of American Samoa, as part of its national territory).[*citation needed*]

- Total	10 km^2 (233rd) 5 sq mi
- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- October 2011 census	1,411[1] (237th)
- Density	115/km^2 (86th) 298/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	1993 estimate
- Total	$1.5 million (227th)
- Per capita	$1,035 (not ranked)
Currency	New Zealand dollar (NZD)
Time zone	(UTC+14)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	TK
Internet TLD	.tk
Calling code	690

Some data from the World Factbook (2004).
1. Final count for 2011 Tokelau Census of Population and Dwellings (http://stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/people_and_communities/pacific_peoples/2011-tokelau-census-landing-page/final-count-2011-tokelau-census.aspx) , Statistics New Zealand. The Census population figure of 1,411 includes 268 usual residents of Tokelau who were absent on census night.

Geography

Tokelau includes three atolls in the South Pacific Ocean between longitudes 171° and 173° W and between latitudes 8° and 10° S, about midway between Hawaii and New Zealand. They lie about 500 km (311 mi) north of Samoa. The atolls are Atafu, Nukunonu, both in a group of islands once called the Duke of Clarence Group, and Fakaofo, once Bowditch Island. Their combined land area is 10.8 km². There are no ports or harbours. Tokelau lies in the Pacific typhoon belt. A fourth island that is culturally, historically, and geographically, but not politically, part of the Tokelau chain is Swains Island (Olohega), under United States control since about 1900 and administered as part of American Samoa since 1925.



Map of all Tokelau Islands. Swains Island is shown to the south.

Swains Island was claimed by the United States pursuant to the Guano Islands Act, as were the other three islands of Tokelau, which claims were ceded to Tokelau by treaty in 1979. In the draft constitution of Tokelau subject to the Tokelauan self-determination referendum in 2006, Olohega is claimed as part of Tokelau, a claim surrendered in the same 1979 treaty which established a boundary between American Samoa and Tokelau.

Tokelau's claim to Swains is generally comparable to the Marshall Islands' claim to US-administered Wake Island, but the re-emergence of this somewhat dormant issue has been an unintended result of the United Nations' recent efforts to promote decolonization in Tokelau. Tokelauans have proved somewhat reluctant to push their national identity in the political realm: recent decolonization moves have mainly been driven from outside for ideological reasons. But at the same time, Tokelauans are reluctant to disown their common cultural identity with Swains Islanders who speak

their language.

Geographic locations of Tokelau's atolls

Atoll	Coordinates
Atafu	8°33′6″S 172°30′3″W
Nukunonu	9°10′6″S 171°48′35″W
Fakaofo	9°21′55″S 171°12′54″W

Environment

See also: List of birds of Tokelau and List of mammals of Tokelau

Tokelau is located in the Western Polynesian tropical moist forests ecoregion. Most of the original vegetation has been replaced by coconut plantations some of which have been abandoned and became scrubby forests. The atolls of Tokelau provide habitat for 38 indigenous plant species, over 150 insect species and 10 land crab species. One of the greatest threats to biodiversity is posed by introduced mammalian predators such as the Polynesian Rat.[3]

In 2011 Tokelau declared its entire exclusive economic zone of 319,031 km² a shark sanctuary.[4]

History

Archaeological evidence indicates that the atolls of Tokelau — Atafu, Nukunonu, and Fakaofo — were settled about 1,000 years ago and may have been a "nexus" into Eastern Polynesia.[5] Inhabitants followed Polynesian mythology with the local god Tui Tokelau; and developed forms of music (see Music of Tokelau) and art. The three atolls functioned largely independently while maintaining social and linguistic cohesion. Tokelauan society was governed by chiefly clans, and there were occasional inter-atoll skirmishes and wars as well as inter-marriage. Fakaofo, the "chiefly island",[6] held some dominance over Atafu and Nukunonu after the dispersal of Atafu. Life on the atolls was subsistence-based, with reliance on fish and coconut.[7]

Western discovery and contact

Commodore John Byron discovered Atafu on 24 June 1765 and named it "Duke of York's Island". Parties onshore reported that there were no signs of current or previous inhabitants.[8][9] Captain Edward Edwards, in knowledge of Byron's discovery, visited Atafu on 6 June 1791[*citation needed*] in search of the *Bounty* mutineers. There were no permanent inhabitants, but houses contained canoes and fishing gear, suggesting the island was used as a temporary residence by fishing parties.[9] On 12 June 1791, Edwards sailed southward and discovered Nukunonu, naming it "Duke of Clarence's Island".[10] A landing party could not make contact with the people but saw "*morai*s", burying places, and canoes with "stages in their middle" sailing across the lagoons.[9]

On 29 October 1825 August R. Strong of the U.S.N Dolphin wrote of his crew's arrival at the atoll Nukunonu, "Upon examination, we found they had removed all the women and children from the settlement, which was quite small, and put them in canoes lying off a rock in the lagoon. They would frequently come near the shore, but when we approached they would pull off with great noise and precipitation." (The Journal of the South Pacific, 110 (3), pp. 296).

On 14 February 1835 Captain Smith of the United States whaler *General Jackson* records discovering Fakaofo, calling it "D'Wolf's Island".[11][12] On 25 January 1841, the United States Exploring Expedition visited Atafu and discovered a small population living on the island. The residents appeared to be temporary, evidenced by the lack of a chief and the possession of double canoes (used for inter-island travel). They desired to barter, and possessed blue beads and a plane-iron, indicating previous interaction with foreigners. The expedition reached Nukunonu on 28 January 1841 but did not record any information about inhabitants. On 29 January 1841, the expedition discovered Fakaofo and named it "Bowditch".[13] The islanders were found to be similar in appearance and nature to those in Atafu.[14]



Fakaofo islanders, drawn in 1841 by the United States Exploring Expedition.

Missionaries preached Christianity in Tokelau from 1845 to the 1860s. French Catholic missionaries on Wallis Island (also known as 'Uvea) and missionaries of the Protestant London Missionary Society in Samoa used native teachers to convert the Tokelauans. Atafu was converted to Protestantism by the London Missionary Society, Nukunonu was converted to Catholicism and Fakaofo was converted to both denominations.[15]

Peruvian slave traders arrived in 1863 and took nearly all (253) of the able-bodied men to work as labourers. The men died of dysentery and smallpox, and very few returned to Tokelau. With this loss, the system of governance became based on the "Taupulega", or "Councils of Elders", where individual families on each atoll were represented.[7][12] During this time, Polynesian immigrants and American, Scottish, French, Portuguese and German beachcombers settled, marrying local women and repopulating the atolls.[12]

21st Century

Until December 2011, Tokelau was almost a day behind New Zealand, being 10 hours behind Coordinated Universal Time (UTC). [16][17] At midnight 29 December 2011 Tokelau shifted to UTC+14:00 in response to Samoa's decision to do the same. This brought Tokelau closer to New Zealand time (and in the process omitted 30 December).[18]

Government

In 1877 the islands were included under the protection of the United Kingdom by an Order in Council which claimed jurisdiction over all unclaimed Pacific Islands. Commander C. F. Oldham on *HMS Egeria* landed at each of the three atolls in June 1889[19] and officially raised the Union Flag, declaring the group a British protectorate. In 1920, Tokelauans became recognised as British subjects.[20]

The British government annexed Tokelau to the colony of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands and transferred Tokelau to New Zealand administration in 1926, abolishing the islands' chiefdoms. By the Tokelau Act of 1948, sovereignty over Tokelau was transferred to New Zealand. Defence is also the responsibility of New Zealand. When the British Nationality and New Zealand Citizenship Act 1948 came into effect on 1 January 1949, Tokelauans who were British subjects gained New Zealand citizenship - a status which they still hold today.[20]

At the moment, Tokelauans are drafting a constitution and developing institutions and patterns of self-government as Tokelau moves towards free association with New Zealand, similar to Niue and the Cook Islands.[*citation needed*]

Villages are entitled to enact their own laws regulating their daily lives and New Zealand law only applies where it has been extended by specific enactment. Serious crime is rare and there are no prisons - offenders are publicly rebuked, fined or made to work.[21]

Politics

Main article: Politics of Tokelau

The head of state is Elizabeth II, the Queen in right of New Zealand, who also reigns over the United Kingdom and the other Commonwealth realms. The Queen is represented in the territory by acting Administrator Jonathan Kings. The current head of government is Foua Toloa, who presides over the Council for the Ongoing Governance of Tokelau, which functions as a cabinet. The Council consists of the *Faipule* (leader) and *Pulenuku* (village mayor) of each of the three atolls.[22] The monarch is hereditary, the administrator appointed by the Minister of Foreign Affairs and Trade in New Zealand, and the office of head of government rotates between the three Faipule for a one-year term.[22]

The Tokelau Amendment Act of 1996 confers legislative power on the General Fono, a unicameral body. The number of seats each atoll receives in the Fono is determined by population — at present, Fakaofo and Atafu each have seven and Nukunonu has six.[22] *Faipule* and *Pukenuku* (atoll leaders and village mayors) also sit in the Fono.[22]

On 11 November 2004, Tokelau and New Zealand took steps to formulate a treaty that would turn Tokelau from a non-self-governing territory to a self-governing state in free association with New Zealand. Besides the treaty, a UN-sponsored referendum on self-determination took place, with the three islands voting on successive days starting 13 February 2006. (Tokelauans based in Apia, Samoa, voted on 11 February.)[23] Out of 581 votes cast, 349 were for Free Association, being short of the two-thirds majority required for the measure to pass.[24] The referendum was profiled (somewhat light-heartedly) in the 1 May 2006 issue of *The New Yorker* magazine.[25] A repeat referendum took place on 20–24 October 2007, again narrowly failing to approve self-government. This time the vote was short by just 16 votes or 3%.[26]

In May 2008, the United Nations' Secretary General Ban Ki-moon urged colonial powers "to complete the decolonization process in every one of the remaining 16 Non-Self-Governing Territories", including Tokelau.[27] This led the *New Zealand Herald* to comment that the United Nations was "apparently frustrated by two failed attempts to get Tokelau to vote for independence".[28] In April 2008, speaking as leader of the National Party, future New Zealand Prime Minister John Key stated that New Zealand had "imposed two referenda on the people of the Tokelau Islands", and questioned "the accepted wisdom that small states should undergo a de-colonisation process".[29]

Economy

According to the US Central Intelligence Agency's list of countries by GDP (PPP) Tokelau has the smallest economy of any country in the world. Tokelau has an annual purchasing power of about US$1,000 (€674) per capita. The government is almost entirely dependent on subsidies from New Zealand. It has annual revenues of less than US$500,000 (€336,995) against expenditures of some US$2.8 million (€1.9 million). The deficit is made up by aid from New Zealand.

Tokelau annually exports around US$100,000 (€67,000) of stamps, copra and woven and carved handicrafts and

imports over US$300,000 (€202,000) of foodstuffs, building materials, and fuel to, and from, New Zealand. New Zealand also pays directly for the cost of medical and education services. Local industries include small-scale enterprises for copra production, wood work, plaited craft goods, stamps, coins, and fishing. Agriculture and livestock produces coconuts, copra, breadfruit, papayas, bananas, figs, pigs, poultry and few goats. Many Tokelauans live in New Zealand and support their families in Tokelau through remittances.


Nukunonu Lagoon in Tokelau.

Tokelau has plans to only use renewable energy. If this is achieved it will be the only nation to have achieved this goal.[30] It is expected that by mid 2012 Tokelau's electricity supply will be 93% generated by photovoltaics, with the remainder generated from coconut oil.[31]

Internet domain names

Main article: .tk

Tokelau has increased its GDP by more than 10% through registrations of domain names under its top-level domain, .tk.[32] Registrations can be either free, in which case the user owns only usage rights and not the domain itself, or paid, which grants full rights. Free domains are pointed to Tokelau name servers and the only services available are HTTP traffic being redirected via HTML frames to a specified address, and the redirection of up to 250 email addresses to an external address (not at a .tk domain). As of January 2009, free domains have no requirements for third party advertisements but have a minimum traffic limit of 25 unique visitors in any 90 day period. If this limit is not reached, the domain is suspended and the owner has either 10 days to convert the domain to a paid domain or have the domain deregistered.[*citation needed*]

In September 2003 Fakaofo became the first part of Tokelau with a high-speed Internet connection. Foundation Tokelau financed the project. Tokelau gives most domain names under its authority away to anyone for free to gain publicity for the territory. This has allowed the nation to gain enhanced telecommunications technologies, such as more computers and Internet access for Tokelauan residents.[*citation needed*]

Demographics

According to the 2011 Tokelau Census, Tokelau has a de jure usually resident population of 1,411 people. The census shows a 3.8% decrease in the de jure usually resident population between 2006 and 2011.[33]


The atoll of Fakaofo, southernmost of the Tokelau Islands.

The nationals of Tokelau are called Tokelauans, and the major ethnic group is Polynesian. The country has no minorities. The major religion is the Congregational Christian Church and the main language is Tokelauan, but English is also spoken.

Tokelau has fewer than 1,500 Polynesian inhabitants in three villages who speak Tokelauan and English. Their isolation and lack of resources greatly limits economic development and confines agriculture to the subsistence level. The very limited natural resources and overcrowding are contributing to emigration to New Zealand and Samoa, resulting in a population

decline of about 0.9% per year.[*citation needed*] Depletion of tuna has made fishing for food more difficult.

On the island of Atafu almost all inhabitants are members of the Congregational Christian Church of Samoa. On Nukunonu almost all are Roman Catholic. On Fakaofo both denominations are present with the Congregational Christian Church predominant. The total proportions are: Congregational Christian Church 62%, Roman Catholic 34%, other 5%.[34]

While slightly more females than males live on Atafu and Fakaofo, males make up 57% of Nukunonu residents.[35] Only 9% of Tokelauans aged 40 or more have never been married.[36] One quarter of the population were born overseas; almost all the rest live on the same atoll they were born on.[37] Most households own 5 or more pigs.[38]

Despite its low income, Tokelau has a life expectancy of 69 years, comparable with parts of Europe.[39]

Sport

See also: Rugby union in Tokelau and Rugby league in Tokelau

Due to its small size, Tokelau is unaffiliated to most international sports organisations, and rarely takes part in international events. The only significant international competition the country takes part in is the Pacific Games. Tokelau won its first ever gold medals at the 2007 Pacific Games in Apia, winning a total of five medals (three gold, a silver and a bronze), all in lawn bowls, and finishing twelfth (out of twenty-two) on the overall medal table. This included two gold medals for Violina Linda Pedro (in the women's pairs and the women's singles), making her Tokelau's most successful individual athlete to date.[40]

In October 2010, table tennis became "the first sport in Tokelau to be granted membership at a Continental or World level", when the Tokelau Table Tennis Association was formally established and became the 23rd member of the Oceania Table Tennis Federation.[41]

Tokelau was due to take part, for the first time, in the 2010 Commonwealth Games, in Delhi,[42] but, for unknown reasons, ultimately did not do so.[43]

Tokelau does have a National Sports Federation, and the most important sports event within the country is arguably the Tokelau Games, which are held yearly. When they are held, "all of Tokelau virtually stands still", as "[i]n excess of 50% of the population take part and all work and school stops at the time". The 2010 Games included competitions in rugby sevens, netball and kilikiti, alongside "a cultural evening [...] where each atoll showcases their traditional songs and dances".[41]

Netball is thought to have been introduced to Tokelau by the British, but became more popular when New Zealand's government took over the territory. The sport is often played during inter-island sport competitions, alongside other sports like rugby league and volleyball.[44]

Healthcare and education

Main article: Healthcare in Tokelau

Each atoll has a school and hospital. The health services have a Director of Health based in Apia and a Chief Clinical Advisor who moves from atoll to atoll as required to assist the doctors attached to each hospital. In 2007

there was not always a doctor on each island and locums were appointed to fill the gaps. Upcoming Tokelaun medical graduates should alleviate this shortage in the coming years.

Many Tokelauan youth travel to New Zealand to further their education and the ship is full around Christmas time with students returning home and then heading off for another year of study.

Communications and transportation

Tokelau has a radio telephone service between the islands and to Samoa. In 1997, a government-regulated telephone service (TeleTok) with three satellite earth stations was established. Each atoll has a radio-broadcast station that broadcasts shipping and weather reports and every household has a radio or access to one.



A barge leaves the landing ramp in Nukunono to collect cargo and passengers from the MV *Tokelau*

Tokelau is served by the MV *Tokelau*, owned by the country, with the trip from Apia in Samoa taking a little over a day. Ships load and unload cargo by motoring up to the down-wind (leeward) side of the islet where the people live and maintaining station, by intermittent use of engines, close to the reef edge so that a landing barge can be motored out to transfer cargo to or from the shore. On returning to shore, the barge negotiates a narrow channel through the reef to the beach. Usually this landing is subject to ocean swell and beaching requires considerable skill and, often, coral abrasions to bodies.

When bad weather prevents the barge making the trip, the ship stands off to wait suitable weather or goes off to one of the other atolls to attempt to load or unload its passengers or cargo, or both.

There is no airport in Tokelau, so boats are the only means of travel and transport.

Cyclone Percy

Cyclone Percy struck and severely damaged Tokelau in late February and early March 2005. Forecasters underestimated the cyclone's strength and the length of time it would be in vicinity to Tokelau. It coincided with a spring tide which put most of the area of the two villages on Fakaofo and Nukunonu under a metre of seawater. The cyclone also caused major erosion on several islets of all three atolls, damaging roads and bridges and disrupting electric power and telecommunications systems. The cyclone did significant and widespread damage to food crops including bananas, coconuts and pandanus. It did not seriously injure anyone but villagers lost significant amounts of property. The geographic future of Tokelau depends on the height of the ocean. No significant land is more than two metres above high water of ordinary tides. This means Tokelau is particularly vulnerable to any possible sea level rises.

Books and publications

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- *Tokelau: People, atolls, and history* by Peter McQuarrie (2007, Peter McQuarrie Press) ISBN 9781877449413

- *Where on Earth is Tokelau?* by Dr Maxwell H. Heller (2005) ISBN 0901100587

See also

- Outline of Tokelau
- Index of Tokelau-related articles
- Music of Tokelau

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Ross Dependency

Coordinates: 75°00′S 175°00′W

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Ross Dependency** is a region of Antarctica defined by a sector originating at the South Pole, passing along longitudes 160° east to 150° west, and terminating at latitude 60° south. New Zealand's claim to the region was formalized in 1923, when the Governor-General of New Zealand was appointed as the Governor of the Ross Dependency by an Imperial Order in Council made in London, United Kingdom. Since the Antarctic Treaty came into force in 1961, Article 1 of which states "The treaty does not recognize, dispute, nor establish territorial sovereignty claims; no new claims shall be asserted while the treaty is in force", most countries do not recognise territorial claims in Antarctica.

The Dependency takes its name from Sir James Clark Ross, who discovered the Ross Sea, and includes part of Victoria Land, and most of the Ross Ice Shelf. Ross Island, Balleny Islands and the small Scott Island also form part of the Dependency, as does the ice-covered Roosevelt Island.

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- 3 Postage stamps
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Habitation

The scientific bases of Scott Base (New Zealand) and McMurdo Station (USA) are the only permanently occupied human habitations in the area, though Amundsen–Scott South Pole Station is partially within the territory and dependent on logistics operations based in New Zealand. The Dependency has a snow runway at Williams Field, and depending on conditions and time of year, two Ice Runways. This guarantees accessibility by wheeled and ski equipped aircraft year round.

Italy conducts scientific research each summer at their Zucchelli Station in Terra Nova Bay, and from 1969 to 1995 New Zealand operated a summer-only base called Vanda

Ross Dependency	
 Flag	
Motto: Not applicable	
Anthem: Not applicable	
	
Major bases	Scott Base (NZ) McMurdo Station (USA)
Government	None
New Zealand dependency - British claim delegated to the Governor-General of New Zealand - Sector span	 1923 160°E - 150° W
Area - Total	 450,000 km^2 174,000 sq mi
Population - Seasonal estimate	 10 to 80[1] 200 to 1,000[2] 85 to 200[3] 0 to 90[4]
Currency	New Zealand dollar (NZD)

Station in the Dry Valley area of the dependency.

Greenpeace maintained its own Antarctic station in the Ross Dependency called World Park Base from 1987 to 1992, which was on Ross Island. As this base was a non-governmental entity, the official policy of the signatory nations of the Antarctic Treaty was not to give any support or assistance to it.

Time zone - Summer (DST)	NZST (UTC+12) NZDT (UTC+13) (Sep to Apr)
Internet TLD	.nz, .aq
Calling code	64 2409

[1] Scott Base
[2] McMurdo Station
[3] Amundsen-Scott South Pole Station
[4] Zucchelli Station

Jurisdiction

Following his discovery of Victoria Land in 1841, James Clark Ross took possession of this territory, along with the surrounding sea, on behalf of Britain. On 30 July 1923, the British government passed an Order in Council under the British Settlements Act 1887, which defined the current borders of the Ross Dependency as follows,

> "From and after the publication of this Order in the Government Gazette of the Dominion of New Zealand that part of His Majesty's Dominions in the Antarctic Seas, which comprises all the islands and territories between the 160th degree of East Longitude and the 150th degree of West Longitude which are situated south of the 60th degree of South Latitude shall be named the Ross Dependency."

The Order in Council then went on to appoint the Governor-General and Commander-in Chief of New Zealand as the Governor of the territory.[1] This Order in Council was published in the *New Zealand Gazette* on 16 August 1923, and on 14 November 1923, the Governor-General issued regulations extending New Zealand law to the Ross Dependency.

After the Order in Council was read in the New Zealand House of Representatives by the Rt. Hon. William Ferguson Massey, a clarification was made by the Attorney-General Hon. Sir Francis Bell in the legislative council. Sir Francis stated that,

> "The boundaries of New Zealand are not extended to include the Ross sea and adjacent lands. His Majesty's delegation to the Governor-General of New Zealand did not confer upon the government or parliament of New Zealand the same powers as were vested by the Constitution Act in respect of the Dominion itself. It might be assumed that in the administration of the Ross Dependency that he would invite advice from his New Zealand ministers and it was certain that details would be entrusted to the New Zealand government. But his excellency was required in all matters of legislation and regulation for the Ross Territory to comply with instructions from the colonial secretary. There was no reason to believe that the Colonial Office would give such instructions without prior consultation with the Government of the Dominion, but the part which the New Zealand Government had agreed to take in enabling His Majesty to exercise jurisdiction in and over the Ross Territory must be taken on behalf of the Empire as a whole and not specially in the interests of New Zealand."

At an Imperial conference in 1930,[2] it was agreed that the Governors-General of the Dominions would be appointed by the King on the advice of the Dominion in question. And following the passing of the Statute of Westminster in 1931 (which was adopted in full by New Zealand in 1947), the government of the United Kingdom relinquished all control over the government of New Zealand. This however had no bearing on the obligations of the Governor-General of New Zealand in his capacity as Governor of the Ross Dependency on the appointment of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom. Then in the year 1959, the Antarctic Treaty was signed by twelve nations which included both the United Kingdom and New Zealand.

The actual amount of land mass claimed is not large; most of the area defined as being in the Ross Dependency is either in the Ross Sea or the Antarctic Ocean. It is the second-smallest of the claims which were made prior to the implementation of the Antarctic Treaty System and the suspension of all territorial claims to Antarctica proper. Officers of the Government of the Ross Dependency are annually appointed to run the Dependency. The New Zealand Geographic Board has named many features within the Dependency.

In the summer of 1985, when the British non-governmental exploratory vessel *Southern Quest* sank in the Ross Sea, United States Coast Guard helicopters rescued the crew, who were taken to McMurdo Station. The expedition was criticised by scientists in the Antarctic because the rescue and return of the crew disrupted their work.[3]

In 2006, the New Zealand police reported that jurisdictional issues prevented them issuing warrants for potential American witnesses who were reluctant to testify during the Christchurch Coroner's investigation into the poisoning death of Rodney Marks at the South Pole base.[4][5]

Postage stamps

Further information: Postage stamps and postal history of the Ross Dependency

Flag

Currently, only the New Zealand national flag serves in an official capacity in the Ross Dependency. The only other 'official' flag seen in photographs was the New Zealand Post flag to denote Scott Base's post office.

Notes

1. ^ http://www.legislation.govt.nz/regulation/imperial/1923/0974/latest/DLM1195.html Order in Council Under the British Settlements Act, 1887 (50 & 51 Vict c 54), Providing for the Government of the Ross Dependency.
2. ^ Extracts from Imperial Conferences (http://www.statusquo.org/aru_html/html/impconf.html)
3. ^ "Robert Swan Expedition 1984-85" (http://gdl.cdlr.strath.ac.uk/scotia/gooant/gooant0207.htm) . Glasgow Digital Library. http://gdl.cdlr.strath.ac.uk/scotia/gooant/gooant0207.htm. Retrieved 2007-03-25.
4. ^ Hotere, Andrea. "South Pole death file still open". (http://www.stuff.co.nz/stuff/sundaystartimes/3902305a6442.html) *Sunday Star Times*, December 17, 2006. Retrieved on December 19, 2006.
5. ^ Deutsche Presse-Agentur. "Death of Australian astrophysicist an Antarctic whodunnit". (http://news.monstersandcritics.com/asiapacific/news/printer_1233162.php) *Monstersandcritics.com*, December 14, 2006. Retrieved on December 19, 2006.

External links

- New Zealand, Antarctica and the Southern Ocean (http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Foreign-Relations/1-Global-Issues/Antarctica/1-New-Zealand-Relationship-with-Antarctica/rossdependency.php) — Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade. Outline of NZ involvement
- Antarctica New Zealand (http://www.antarcticanz.govt.nz/) — Crown entity charged with administering, developing and managing Ross Dependency
- 50 years of Scott Base (http://www.scottbase50years.co.nz/)
- History - From University of Canterbury (http://www.anta.canterbury.ac.nz/resources/history.html)
- http://www.south-pole.com/homepage.html

Papua New Guinea

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Papua New Guinea (**PNG**; Tok Pisin: *Papua Niugini*), officially the **Independent State of Papua New Guinea**, is a country in Oceania, occupying the eastern half of the island of New Guinea and numerous offshore islands (the western portion of the island is a part of the Indonesian provinces of Papua and West Papua). It is located in the southwestern Pacific Ocean, in a region defined since the early 19th century as Melanesia. The capital is Port Moresby.

Papua New Guinea is one of the most culturally diverse countries on Earth, with over 850 indigenous languages and at least as many traditional societies,[*citation needed*] out of a population of just under seven million. It is also one of the most rural, as only 18% of its people live in urban centres.[6] The country is one of the world's least explored, culturally and geographically, and many undiscovered species of plants and animals are thought to exist in the interior of Papua New Guinea.[7]

The majority of the population live in traditional societies and practise subsistence-based agriculture. These societies and clans have some explicit acknowledgement within the nation's constitutional framework. The PNG Constitution (Preamble 5(4)) expresses the wish for "traditional villages and communities to remain as viable units of Papua New Guinean society",[8] and for active steps to be taken in their preservation.

After being ruled by three external powers since 1884, Papua New Guinea gained its independence from Australia in 1975. It remains a Commonwealth realm of Her Majesty Elizabeth II, Queen of Papua New Guinea. Many people live in extreme poverty, with about one third of the population living on less than US$1.25 per day.[9]

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- 2 Politics
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- 4 Economy

Independent State of Papua New Guinea

Independen Stet bilong Papua Niugini



Flag



Emblem

Motto: *Unity in diversity*[1]

Anthem: *O Arise, All You Sons*[2]



Capital (and largest city)	Port Moresby 9°30′S 147°07′E
Official language(s)	English Tok Pisin Hiri Motu[3]
Demonym	Papua New Guinean
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and Constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor General	Michael Ogio
- Prime Minister	Peter O'Neill
Independence	
- from Australia	16 September 1975
Area	

- 4.1 Land tenure
- 5 Demographics
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- 6 Culture
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- Total	462,840 km^2 (54th) 178,703 sq mi
- Water (%)	2
Population	
- 2011 estimate	6,187,591[4] (106th)
- 2000 census	5,190,783
- Density	13.37/km^2 (201st) 34.62/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate
- Total	$14.947 billion[5]
- Per capita	$2,300[5]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$9.668 billion[5]
- Per capita	$1,488[5]
Gini (1996)	50.9 (high)
HDI (2010)	▲ 0.431 (low) (140th)
Currency	Papua New Guinean kina (PGK)
Time zone	AEST (UTC+10)
- Summer (DST)	*not observed (as of 2005)* (UTC+10)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	PG
Internet TLD	.pg
Calling code	+675

History

Main article: History of Papua New Guinea

Human remains have been found which have been dated to about 50,000 BC although this is an estimate. These ancient inhabitants probably migrated from Southeast Asia, from people whose ancestors had originated in Africa 50,000 to 70,000 years ago. New Guinea was one of the first landmasses after Africa and Eurasia to be populated by modern humans, with the first migration at approximately the same time as that of Australia.



Kerepunu villagers, British New Guinea, 1885

Agriculture was independently developed in the New Guinea highlands around 7000 BC, making it one of the few areas in the world where people independently domesticated plants. A major migration of Austronesian speaking peoples came to coastal regions roughly 500 BC. This has been correlated with the introduction of pottery, pigs, and certain fishing techniques. More recently, in the 18th century, the sweet potato was taken to New Guinea, having been introduced to the Moluccas from South America by Portuguese traders, representing the locally dominant colonial power.[10] The far higher crop yields from sweet potato gardens radically transformed traditional agriculture; sweet potato largely supplanted the previous staple, taro, and gave rise to a significant increase in population in the highlands.

Although headhunting and cannibalism have been practically eradicated, in the past they occurred in many parts of the country as part of ritual practices.[11][12] For example, in 1901, on Goaribari Island in the Gulf of Papua, a missionary, Harry Dauncey, found 10,000 skulls in the island's Long Houses.[13] According to the writer Marianna Torgovnick, "The most fully documented instances of cannibalism as a social institution come from New Guinea, where head-hunting and ritual cannibalism survived, in certain isolated areas, into the fifties,

sixties, and seventies, and still leave traces within certain social groups."[14]

Little was known in the West about the island until the nineteenth century, although Portuguese and Spanish explorers, such as Dom Jorge de Meneses and Yñigo Ortiz de Retez, respectively, had encountered it as early as the sixteenth century. Traders from Southeast Asia had visited New Guinea as long as 5,000 years ago collecting bird of paradise plumes.[15] The country's dual name results from its complex administrative history before independence. The word *papua* is derived from *pepuah*, a Malay word describing the curly, coiled, Melanesian hair, and "New Guinea" (*Nueva Guinea*) was the name coined by the Spanish explorer Yñigo Ortiz de Retez. In 1545 he noted the resemblance of the people to those he had earlier seen along the Guinea coast of Africa. The northern half of the country was ruled as a colony for some decades by Germany, beginning in 1884, as German New Guinea.



Australian forces attack Japanese positions during the Battle of Buna–Gona. January 7, 1943.

During World War I, the territory was occupied by Australia, which had begun administering British New Guinea, the southern part, re-named Papua in 1904. After World War I, Australia was given a mandate to administer the former German New Guinea by the League of Nations. Papua, by contrast, was deemed to be an External Territory of the Australian Commonwealth, though as a matter of law it remained a British possession. This was significant for the country's post-independence legal system. The difference in legal status meant that Papua and New Guinea had entirely separate administrations, both controlled by Australia.

The New Guinea campaign (1942–1945) was one of the major military campaigns of World War II. Approximately 216,000 Japanese, Australian and U.S. soldiers, sailors and airmen died during the New Guinea Campaign.[16] The two territories were combined into the Territory of Papua and New Guinea after World War II, which later was simply referred to as "Papua New Guinea".

However, certain statutes[17] continued to have application only in one of the two territories. This territorial difference of law was complicated further by the adjustment of the former boundary among contiguous provinces with respect to road access and language groups. Some of such statutes apply on one side only of a boundary which no longer exists.[*citation needed*]

The administration of Papua became open to United Nations oversight; a peaceful independence from Australia occurred on September 16, 1975, and close ties remain (Australia continues as the largest bilateral aid donor to Papua New Guinea). Papua New Guinea was admitted to membership in the United Nations on 10 October 1975.[18]

A secessionist revolt in 1975–76 on Bougainville Island resulted in an eleventh-hour modification of the draft Constitution of Papua New Guinea to allow for Bougainville and the other eighteen districts to have quasi-federal status as provinces. A renewed uprising started in 1988 and claimed 20,000 lives until it was resolved in 1997. Following the revolt, the autonomous Bougainville elected Joseph Kabui as president. He was succeeded by his deputy John Tabinaman, who continued to be re-elected as leader until the election of December 2008, which James Tanis won.

Anti-Chinese rioting, involving tens of thousands of people, broke out in May 2009. The initial spark was a fight between Chinese and Papua New Guinean workers at a nickel factory under construction by a Chinese company. Native resentment against the numerous small businesses being run by Chinese led to the rioting.[19][20]

Politics

Main article: Politics of Papua New Guinea

Because it is a Commonwealth realm, Papua New Guinea's head of state is Queen Elizabeth II. It had been expected by the constitutional convention, which prepared the draft constitution, and by Australia, the outgoing metropolitan power, that Papua New Guinea would choose not to retain its link with the Commonwealth realms monarchy. The founders, however, considered that imperial honours had a cachet that the newly independent state would not be able to confer with a purely indigenous honours system – the Monarchy was thus maintained.[21] The Queen is represented by the Governor-General of Papua New Guinea, currently Michael Ogio. Papua New Guinea and the Solomon Islands are unusual among Commonwealth realms in that Governors-General are selected by the legislature rather than by the executive branch.

Actual executive power lies with the Prime Minister, who heads the cabinet. The current Prime Minister is Peter O'Neill. The unicameral National Parliament has 109 seats, of which 20 are occupied by the governors of the 19 provinces and the National Capital District (NCD). Candidates for members of parliament are voted upon when the prime minister asks the Governor-General to call a national election, a maximum of five years after the previous national election.

In the early years of independence, the instability of the party system led to frequent votes of no confidence in Parliament with resulting falls of the government of the day and the need for national elections, in accordance with the conventions of parliamentary democracy. In recent years, successive governments have passed legislation preventing such votes sooner than 18 months after a national election. This has arguably resulted in greater stability, though perhaps at a cost of reducing the accountability of the executive branch of government.

Elections in PNG attract large numbers of candidates. After independence in 1975, members were elected by the first past the post system, with winners frequently gaining less than 15% of the vote. Electoral reforms in 2001 introduced the Limited Preferential Vote system (LPV), a version of the Alternative Vote. The 2007 general election was the first to be conducted using LPV.

In foreign policy, Papua New Guinea was accorded Observer status within ASEAN in 1976 followed later by Special Observer status in 1981.

Since mid-2011, there has been an ongoing dispute between parliament and Peter O'Neill and the judiciary, governor-general and Sir Michael Somare. The crisis involved the status of the prime minister and who is the legitimate head of government between O'Neill and Somare.

Law

Main article: Law of Papua New Guinea

The unicameral Parliament enacts legislation in the same manner as in other jurisdictions that have "cabinet," "responsible government," or "parliamentary democracy": it is introduced by the executive government to the legislature, debated and, if passed, becomes law when it receives royal assent by the Governor-General. Most legislation is actually regulation implemented by the bureaucracy under enabling legislation previously passed by Parliament.

All ordinary statutes enacted by Parliament must be consistent with the Constitution. The courts have jurisdiction to rule on the constitutionality of statutes, both in disputes before them and on a reference where there is no dispute but only an abstract question of law. Unusual among developing countries, the judicial branch

of government in Papua New Guinea has remained remarkably independent, and successive executive governments have continued to respect its authority.



The Parliament building of Papua New Guinea in Port Moresby

The "underlying law" – that is, the common law of Papua New Guinea – consists of principles and rules of common law and equity in England[22] common law as it stood on September 16, 1975 (the date of Independence), and thereafter the decisions of PNG's own courts. The courts are directed by the Constitution and, latterly, the *Underlying Law Act*, to take note of the "custom" of traditional communities, with a view to determining which customs are common to the whole country and may be declared also to be part of the underlying law. In practice, this has proved extremely difficult and has been largely neglected. Statutes are largely adapted from overseas jurisdictions, primarily Australia and England. Advocacy in the courts follows the adversarial pattern of other common law countries.

This national court system used in towns and cities is supported by a village court system in the more remote areas. The law underpinning the village courts is 'customary law' and these courts are discussed further on the Law of Papua New Guinea page.

Administrative divisions

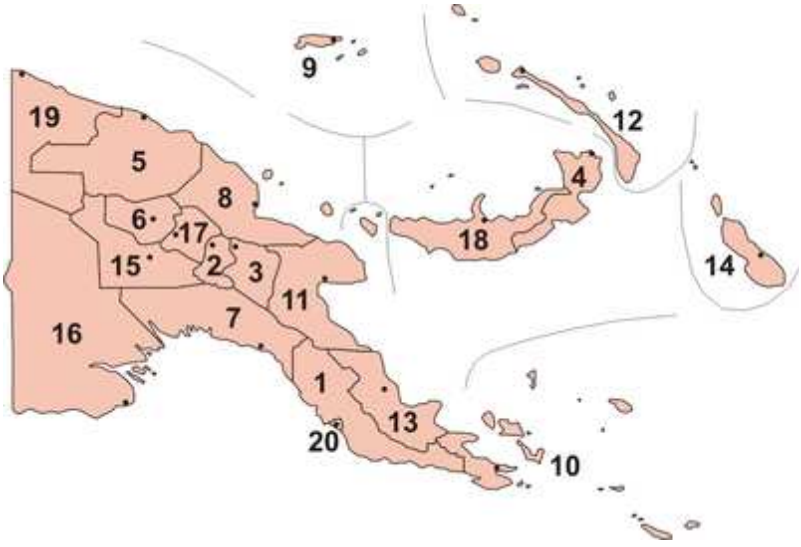
Main articles: Regions of Papua New Guinea, Provinces of Papua New Guinea, and Districts and LLGs of Papua New Guinea

Papua New Guinea is divided into four regions, which are not the primary administrative divisions but are quite significant in many aspects of government, commercial, sporting and other activities.

The nation has 20 province-level divisions: eighteen provinces, the Autonomous Region of Bougainville and the National Capital District. Each province is divided into one or more districts, which in turn are divided into one or more Local Level Government areas.

Provinces[23] are the primary administrative divisions of the country. Provincial governments are branches of the national government – Papua New Guinea is not a federation of provinces. The province-level divisions are as follows:

1. Central
2. Chimbu (Simbu)
3. Eastern Highlands
4. East New Britain
5. East Sepik
6. Enga
7. Gulf
8. Madang
9. Manus
10. Milne Bay
11. Morobe
12. New Ireland
13. Northern (Oro Province)
14. Bougainville (autonomous region)
15. Southern Highlands
16. Western Province (Fly)
17. Western Highlands
18. West New Britain
19. West Sepik (Sandaun)
20. National Capital



District

Parliament has approved the creation of two additional provinces by 2012: Hela Province, which will consist of part of the current Southern Highlands Province, and Jiwaka Province, which will be formed by dividing Western Highlands Province.[24]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Papua New Guinea

At 462,840 km^2 (178,704 sq mi), Papua New Guinea is the world's fifty-fourth largest country. Including all its islands, it lies between latitudes 0° and 12°S, and longitudes 140° and 160°E.



Map of Papua New Guinea

The country's geography is diverse and, in places, extremely rugged. A spine of mountains, the New Guinea Highlands, runs the length of the island of New Guinea, forming a populous highlands region mostly covered with tropical rainforest. Dense rainforests can be found in the lowland and coastal areas as well as very large wetland areas surrounding the Sepik and Fly rivers. This terrain has made it difficult for the country to develop transportation infrastructure. In some areas, airplanes are the only mode of transport. The highest peak is Mount Wilhelm at 4,509 metres (14,793 ft). Papua New Guinea is surrounded by coral reefs which are under close watch, in the interests of preservation.

The country is situated on the Pacific Ring of Fire, at the point of collision of several tectonic plates. There are a number of active volcanoes, and eruptions are frequent. Earthquakes are relatively common, sometimes accompanied by tsunamis.

The mainland of the country is the eastern half of New Guinea island, where the largest towns are also located, including the capital Port Moresby and Lae; other major islands within Papua New Guinea include New Ireland, New Britain, Manus and Bougainville.

Papua New Guinea is one of the few regions close to the equator that experiences snowfall, which occurs in the most elevated parts of the mainland.

Ecology

See also: Conservation in Papua New Guinea

Papua New Guinea is part of the Australasia ecozone, which also includes Australia, New Zealand, eastern Indonesia, and several Pacific island groups, including the Solomon Islands and Vanuatu.

Geologically, the island of New Guinea is a northern extension of the Indo-Australian tectonic plate, forming part

of a single landmass Australia-New Guinea (also called *Sahul* or *Meganesia*). It is connected to the Australian segment by a shallow continental shelf across the Torres Strait, which in former ages had lain exposed as a land bridge, particularly during ice ages when sea levels were lower than at present.



Mount Tavurvur in Papua New Guinea.

Consequently, many species of birds and mammals found on New Guinea have close genetic links with corresponding species found in Australia. One notable feature in common for the two landmasses is the existence of several species of marsupial mammals, including some kangaroos and possums, which are not found elsewhere.

Many of the other islands within PNG territory, including New Britain, New Ireland, Bougainville, the Admiralty Islands, the Trobriand Islands, and the Louisiade Archipelago, were never linked to New Guinea by land bridges. As a consequence, they have their own flora and fauna; in particular, they lack many of the land mammals and flightless birds that are common to New Guinea and Australia.

Australia and New Guinea are portions of the ancient supercontinent of Gondwana, which started to break into smaller continents in the Cretaceous era, 65-130 million years ago. Australia finally broke free from Antarctica about 45 million years ago. All the Australasian lands are home to the Antarctic flora, descended from the flora of southern Gondwana, including the coniferous podocarps and *Araucaria* pines, and the broadleafed southern beech (*Nothofagus*). These plant families are still present in Papua New Guinea.

As the Indo-Australian Plate (which includes landmasses of India, Australia, and the Indian Ocean floor in between) drifts north, it collides with the Eurasian Plate. The collision of the two plates pushed up the Himalayas, the Indonesian islands, and New Guinea's Central Range. The Central Range is much younger and higher than the mountains of Australia, so high that it is home to rare equatorial glaciers. New Guinea is part of the humid tropics, and many Indomalayan rainforest plants spread across the narrow straits from Asia, mixing together with the old Australian and Antarctic floras.

PNG includes a number of terrestrial ecoregions:

- Admiralty Islands lowland rain forests – forested islands to the north of the mainland, home to a distinct flora.
- Central Range montane rain forests
- Huon Peninsula montane rain forests
- Louisiade Archipelago rain forests
- New Britain-New Ireland lowland rain forests
- New Britain-New Ireland montane rain forests
- New Guinea mangroves
- Northern New Guinea lowland rain and freshwater swamp forests
- Northern New Guinea montane rain forests
- Solomon Islands rain forests (includes Bougainville Island and Buka)
- Southeastern Papuan rain forests
- Southern New Guinea freshwater swamp forests
- Southern New Guinea lowland rain forests
- Trobriand Islands rain forests
- Trans Fly savanna and grasslands



The green jungle of Papua New Guinea bears a sharp contrast to the nearby desert of Australia.

- Central Range sub-alpine grasslands

At current rates of deforestation, more than half of the country's forests could be lost or seriously degraded by 2021, according to a new satellite study of the region.[25] Nearly one quarter of Papua New Guinea's rainforests were damaged or destroyed between 1972 and 2002.[26]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Papua New Guinea


Port Moresby

Papua New Guinea is richly endowed with natural resources, but access has been hampered by rugged terrain, the high cost of developing infrastructure, serious law and order problems, and the system of land title which makes identifying the owners of land for the purpose of negotiating appropriate agreements problematic. Agriculture provides a livelihood for 85% of the population. Mineral deposits, including oil, copper, and gold, account for 72% of export earnings. The country also has a notable coffee industry and other crops include cocoa, oil palm and tea.

Former Prime Minister Sir Mekere Morauta tried to restore integrity to state institutions, stabilize the kina, restore stability to the national budget, privatize public enterprises where appropriate, and ensure ongoing peace on Bougainville following the 1997 agreement which ended Bougainville's secessionist unrest. The Morauta government had considerable success in attracting international support, specifically gaining the backing of the IMF and the World Bank in securing development assistance loans. Significant challenges face the current Prime Minister Sir Michael Somare, including gaining further investor confidence, continuing efforts to privatize government assets, and maintaining the support of members of Parliament.

In March 2006 the United Nations Development Programme Policy called for Papua New Guinea's designation of developing country to be downgraded to least-developed country because of protracted economic and social stagnation.[27] However, an evaluation by the International Monetary Fund in late 2008 found that "a combination of prudent fiscal and monetary policies, and high global prices for mineral commodity exports, have underpinned Papua New Guinea's recent buoyant economic growth and macroeconomic stability. Real GDP growth, at over 6% in 2007, was broad-based and is expected to continue to be strong in 2008."[28]

Land tenure

The PNG legislature has enacted various laws in which a type of tenure called "customary land title" is recognised, meaning that the traditional lands of the indigenous peoples have some legal basis to inalienable tenure. This customary land notionally covers most of the usable land in the country (some 97% of total land area);[29] alienated land is either held privately under State Lease or is government land. Freehold Title (also known as fee simple) can only be held by Papua New Guinea citizens.[30]

Only some 3% of the land of Papua New Guinea is in private hands; it is privately held under 99 year state lease, or it is held by the state. There is virtually no freehold title; the few existing freeholds are automatically converted to state lease when they are transferred between vendor and purchaser. Unalienated land is owned under customary title by traditional landowners. The precise nature of the seisin varies from one culture to another. Many writers portray land as in the communal ownership of traditional clans; however, closer studies usually show that the smallest portions of land whose ownership cannot be further divided are held by the

individual heads of extended families and their descendants, or their descendants alone if they have recently died.[*citation needed*]

This is a matter of vital importance because a problem of economic development is identifying the membership of customary landowning groups and the owners. Disputes between mining and forestry companies and landowner groups often devolve on the issue of whether the companies entered into contractual relations for the use of land with the true owners. Customary property – usually land – cannot be devised by will; it can only be inherited according to the custom of the deceased's people.[*citation needed*]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Papua New Guinea



Huli Wigman from the Southern Highlands

Papua New Guinea is one of the most heterogeneous nations in the world. There are hundreds of ethnic groups indigenous to Papua New Guinea, the majority being from the group known as Papuans, whose ancestors arrived in the New Guinea region tens of thousands of years ago. Many remote Papuan tribes still have only marginal contact with the outside world.

The others are Austronesians, their ancestors having arrived in the region less than four thousand years ago. There are also numerous people from other parts of the world now resident, including Chinese,[31] Europeans, Australians, Filipinos, Polynesians and Micronesians. At the brink of Papuan independence in 1975, there were 40,000 expatriates (mostly Australian and Chinese) in Papua New Guinea.[32]

Papua New Guinea has more languages than any other country, with over 820 indigenous languages, representing twelve percent of the world's total, but most have fewer than 1,000 speakers. The most widely-spoken indigenous language is Enga with about 200,000 speakers, followed by Melpa and Huli.[33] Indigenous languages are classified into two large groups: Austronesian languages and non-Austronesian (or Papuan languages). There are three official languages for Papua New Guinea. English is an official language and is the language of government and the education system, but it is not widely spoken.

The primary lingua franca of the country is Tok Pisin (commonly known in English as New Guinea Pidgin or Melanesian Pidgin), in which much of the debate in Parliament is conducted, many information campaigns and advertisements are presented, and until recently a national newspaper, *Wantok*, was published. The only area where Tok Pisin is not prevalent is the southern region of Papua, where people often use the third official language, Hiri Motu.

Although it lies in the Papua region, Port Moresby has a highly diverse population which primarily uses Tok Pisin, and to a lesser extent English, with Motu spoken as the indigenous language in outlying villages. With an average of only 7,000 speakers per language, Papua New Guinea has a greater density of languages than any other nation on earth except Vanuatu.[*citation needed*]

Health

Public expenditure was at 7.3% of all government expenditure in 2006,[34] whereas private expenditure was at 0.6 % of the GDP.[*citation needed*] There were five physicians per 100,000 people in the early 2000s.[35] Malaria is the leading cause of illness and death in New Guinea. In 2003, the most recently reported year, 70,226 cases of laboratory confirmed malaria were reported, along with 537 deaths. A total of 1,729,697 cases were probable.[36]

Papua New Guinea has the highest incidence of HIV and AIDS in the Pacific region and is the fourth country in the Asia Pacific region to fit the criteria for a generalised HIV/AIDS epidemic.[37] Lack of HIV/AIDS awareness is a major problem, especially in rural areas.

In June 2011, the United Nations Population Fund released a report on *The State of the World's Midwifery*. It contained new data on the midwifery workforce and policies relating to newborn and maternal mortality for 58 countries. The 2010 maternal mortality rate per 100,000 births for Papua New Guinea is 250. This is compared with 311.9 in 2008 and 476.3 in 1990. The under 5 mortality rate, per 1,000 births is 69 and the neonatal mortality as a percentage of under 5's mortality is 37. The aim of this report is to highlight ways in which the Millennium Development Goals can be achieved, particularly Goal 4 – Reduce child mortality and Goal 5 – Improve maternal health. In Papua New Guinea the number of midwives per 1,000 live births is 1 and 1 in 94 shows us the lifetime risk of death for pregnant women.[38]



Asaro mudman with his unique clay mask

Religion

Main article: Religion in Papua New Guinea

The courts and government practice uphold the constitutional right to freedom of speech, thought, and belief, and no legislation to curb those rights has been adopted. The 2000 census found that 96% of citizens identified themselves as members of a Christian church; however, many citizens combine their Christian faith with some pre-Christian traditional indigenous religious practices.[39] The census percentages were as follows:

- Catholic Church (27.0%)
- Evangelical Lutheran Church of Papua New Guinea (19.5%)
- United Church (11.5%)
- Seventh-day Adventist Church (10.0%)
- Pentecostal (8.6%)
- Evangelical Alliance (5.2%)
- Anglican Church of Papua New Guinea (3.2%)
- Baptist (0.5%)
- Church of Christ (0.4%)
- Bahá'í Faith (0.3%)
- Jehovah's Witnesses (0.3%)
- Salvation Army (0.2%)
- Other Christian (8.0%)

There are also approximately 4,000 Muslims in the country. Non-traditional Christian churches and non-Christian religious groups are active throughout the country. The Papua New Guinea Council of Churches has stated that both Muslim and Confucian missionaries are active, and foreign missionary activity in general is high.

Traditional religions, such as that of the Korowai, were often animist. Some also tended to have elements of ancestor worship, though generalisation is suspect given the extreme heterogeneity of Melanesian societies. Prevalent among traditional tribes is the belief in *masalai*, or evil spirits, which are blamed for "poisoning" people, causing calamity and death, and the practice of puripuri (sorcery).[40][41][42]

Culture

Main articles: Culture of Papua New Guinea and Music of Papua New Guinea

It is estimated that more than a thousand different cultural groups exist in Papua New Guinea. Because of this diversity, many different styles of cultural expression have emerged; each group has created its own expressive forms in art, dance, weaponry, costumes, singing, music, architecture and much more. Most of these different cultural groups have their own language. People typically live in villages that rely on subsistence farming. In some areas people hunt and collect wild plants (such as yam roots) to supplement their diets. Those who become skilled at hunting, farming and fishing earn a great deal of respect.



This rattle is made of leaves, seeds and coconut shell. The rattle is tied around a dancer's ankle and makes a sound when the dancer moves.

On the Sepik river, there is a tradition of wood carving, often in the form of plants or animals, representing ancestor spirits.

Sea shells are no longer the currency of Papua New Guinea, as they were in some regions – sea shells were abolished as currency in 1933. However, this heritage is still present in local customs; in some cultures, to get a bride, a groom must bring a certain number of golden-edged clam shells[43] as a bride price. In other regions, the bride price is paid in lengths of shell money, pigs, cassowaries or cash. Elsewhere, it is brides who traditionally pay a dowry.



Resident of Bago-Bago, an island in the southeast of Papua New Guinea



This bilum bag is from Goroka, in the Eastern Highlands Province of Papua New Guinea.

People of the highlands engage in colourful local rituals that are called "sing sings". They paint themselves and dress up with feathers, pearls and animal skins to represent birds, trees or mountain spirits. Sometimes an important event, such as a legendary battle, is enacted at such a musical festival.

Sport

Main article: Sport in Papua New Guinea

See also: Rugby league in Papua New Guinea

Sport is an important part of Papua New Guinean culture and rugby league is by far the most popular sport.[44] In a nation where communities are far apart and many people live at a minimal subsistence level, rugby league has been described as a replacement for tribal warfare as a way of explaining the local enthusiasm for the game

(a matter of life and death). Many Papua New Guineans have become instant celebrities by representing their country or playing in an overseas professional league. Even Australian rugby league players who have played in the annual (Australian) State of Origin clash, which is celebrated feverishly every year in PNG, are among the most well known people throughout the nation.

State of Origin is a highlight of the year for most Papua New Guineans, although the support is so passionate that many people have died over the years in violent clashes supporting their team.[45] The Papua New Guinea national rugby league team usually plays against the Australian Prime Minister's XIII (a selection of NRL players) each year, normally in Port Moresby.

Other major sports which have a part in the Papua New Guinea sporting landscape are Aussie rules, soccer (football), rugby union and, in eastern Papua, cricket. Its football team ranked worst on FIFA ranking of all countries.[46]



20th century wooden Abelam ancestor figure (nggwalndu).

Education

A large proportion of the population is illiterate.[34] Particularly women are affected.[34] Much of the education in the country is provided by church institutions.[47] This includes 500 schools of the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Papua New Guinea.[48] Papua New Guinea has six universities apart from other major tertiary institutions. The two founding universities are the University of Papua New Guinea based in the National Capital District,[49] and the Papua New Guinea University of Technology based outside of Lae, in Morobe Province.

The four other universities which were once colleges, were established recently after gaining government recognition. These are the University of Goroka in the Eastern Highlands province, Divine Word University (run by the Catholic Church's Divine Word Missionaries) in Madang Province, Vudal University in East New Britain Province and Pacific Adventist University (run by the Seventh Day Adventist Church) in the National Capital District.

Transport

Main article: Transport in Papua New Guinea

Transport in Papua New Guinea is heavily limited by the country's mountainous terrain. Port Moresby is not linked by road to any of the other major towns, and many remote villages can only be reached by light aircraft or on foot. As a result, air travel is the single most important form of transport for human and high value freight. In addition to two international airfields, Papua New Guinea has 578 airstrips, most of which are unpaved.[50] Assets are not maintained to good operating standards and poor transport remains a major impediment to the development of ties of national unity.

See also

- Outline of Papua New Guinea
- Biodiversity protection efforts in Papua New Guinea
- Commonwealth of Nations
- Communications in Papua New Guinea

- Education in Papua New Guinea
- Foreign relations of Papua New Guinea
- LGBT rights in Papua New Guinea
- Orders, decorations, and medals of Papua New Guinea
- Military of Papua New Guinea
- Tourism of Papua New Guinea

Lists:

- List of cities in Papua New Guinea & List of towns in Papua New Guinea & List of towns and cities in Papua New Guinea by population
- List of diplomatic missions in Papua New Guinea
- List of Districts and Local Level Governments of Papua New Guinea
- List of Papua New Guineans

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History of Papua New Guinea

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **prehistory of Papua New Guinea** can be traced back to about 60,000 years ago when people first migrated towards the Australian continent. The written history began when European navigators first sighted New Guinea in the early part of the 16th century.

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- 1 Archaeology
- 2 European discovery
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- 9 Independence
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Archaeology

Archeological evidence indicates that humans arrived on New Guinea perhaps 60,000 years ago, although this is under debate.[1][2] They came probably by sea from Southeast Asia during an Ice Age period when the sea was lower and distances between islands shorter. Although the first arrivals were hunters and gatherers, early evidence shows that people managed the forest environment to provide food. There also are indications of neolithic gardening having been practiced at Kuk at the same time that agriculture was developing in Mesopotamia and Egypt. Today's staples—sweet potatoes and pigs—were later arrivals, but shellfish and fish have long been mainstays of coastal dwellers' diets. Recent archaeological research suggests that 50,000 years ago, people may have occupied sites in the highlands at altitudes of up to 2000 metres, rather than being restricted to warmer coastal areas.[3]

European discovery

When Europeans first arrived, inhabitants of New Guinea and nearby islands – while still relying on bone, wood, and stone tools – had a productive agricultural system. They traded along the coast, mainly in pottery, shell ornaments and foodstuffs, and in the interior, where forest products were exchanged for shells and other sea products.

The first Europeans to sight New Guinea were probably the Portuguese and Spanish navigators sailing in the South Pacific in the early part of the 16th century. In 1526–27, the Portuguese explorer Jorge de Menezes accidentally came upon the principal island and is credited with naming it **Papua**, a Malay word for the frizzled quality of Melanesian hair. The term **New Guinea** was applied to the island in 1545 by a Spaniard, Yñigo Ortiz

de Retez, because of a resemblance between the islands' inhabitants and those found on the African Guinea coast.

Although European navigators visited the islands and explored their coastlines thereafter, little was known of the inhabitants by Europeans until the 1870s, when Russian anthropologist Nicholai Miklukho-Maklai made a number of expeditions to New Guinea, spending several years living among native tribes, and described their way of life in a comprehensive treatise.

Territory of Papua

Main article: Territory of Papua



British flag raised by Queensland 1883

In 1883, the Colony of Queensland purported to annex the southern half of eastern New Guinea. On 6 November 1884, a British protectorate was proclaimed over the southern coast of New Guinea and its adjacent islands. The protectorate, called **British New Guinea**, was annexed outright on 4 September 1888. The possession was placed under the authority of the Commonwealth of Australia in 1902. Following the passage of the Papua Act, 1905, British New Guinea became the **Territory of Papua**, and formal Australian administration began in 1906, although Papua remained *de jure* a British possession until the independence of Papua New Guinea in 1975. Papua was administered under the *Papua Act* until it was invaded by the Empire of Japan in 1941, and civil administration suspended. During the Pacific War, Papua was governed by an Australian military administration from Port Moresby, where General Douglas MacArthur occasionally made his headquarters.



Flag under German control of New Guinea.

German New Guinea

Main article: German New Guinea

With Europe's growing desire for coconut oil, Godeffroy's of Hamburg, the largest trading firm in the Pacific, began trading for copra in the New Guinea Islands. In 1884, the German Empire formally took possession of the northeast quarter of the island and put its administration in the hands of a chartered trading company formed for the purpose, the *German New Guinea Company*. In the charter granted to this company by the German Imperial Government in May 1885, it was given the power to exercise sovereign rights over the territory and other "unoccupied" lands in the name of the government, and the ability to "negotiate" directly with the native inhabitants. Relationships with foreign powers were retained as the preserve of the German government. The *Neu Guinea Kompanie* paid for the local governmental institutions directly, in return for the concessions which had been awarded to it.

In 1899, the German imperial government assumed direct control of the territory, thereafter known as **German New Guinea**. In 1914, Australian troops occupied German New Guinea, and it remained under Australian military control through World War I until 1921.

Territory of New Guinea

Main article: Territory of New Guinea

The Commonwealth of Australia assumed a mandate from the League of Nations for governing the former German territory of New Guinea in 1920. It was administered under this mandate until the Japanese invasion in December 1941 brought about the suspension of Australian civil administration. Much of the Territory of New Guinea, including the islands of Bougainville and New Britain, was occupied by Japanese forces before being recaptured by Australian and American forces during the final months of the war (see New Guinea campaign).

Exploration of Mandated Territory of New Guinea

Akmana Expedition 1929–1930

'The exploration of Papua–New Guinea has been a continuing process. Even today [April 1971] new groups of people occasionally are still contacted. Not until recent years has New Guinea's exploration been planned; much of it has been the work of miners, labour recruiters, missionaries, adventurers, with different objects in mind. Many of these people have been doers, not recorders of facts, with the result that our knowledge of the territory's exploration has not kept pace with the exploration itself.'[4]

An exception is the record of the Akmana Gold Prospecting Company's Field Party which carried out two expeditions from September to December 1929 and from mid February to the end of June 1930.[5] They journeyed on the "Banyandah", a cruiser of 38 feet (12 m) from Madang up the coast to the mouth of the Sepik River, travelling along that river to Marienberg and Moim, then along the Karosameri River to the Karrawaddi River and on to the Arrabundio River and Yemas, after which it was necessary to transport their stores and equipment by pinnace, canoe and ultimately on foot to their Mountain Base on the upper Arrabundio River.

During their first expedition the Akmana Field Party prospected the tributaries of the Arrabundio and then trekked across a spur of the Central Mountain Range to sample the Upper Karrawaddi River. Retracing their steps to the Arrabundio they then headed out across another spur of the Central Mountain Range to the Junction of the Yuat River with the Jimmi and Baiyer Rivers, again without finding gold in sufficient quantity. Returning to Madang at the end of December 1929, several of the party went back to Sydney to obtain instructions from the Akmana Gold Prospecting Company.

In mid February 1930 the second expedition quickly returned to their Mountain Base and on across the mountains to the junction of the Yuat with the Baiyer and Jimmi Rivers. They prospected south along the Baiyer River to its junction with the Maramuni and Tarua Rivers, where they established a palisaded forward camp naming the place 'Akmana Junction.' From this base they prospected along the Maramuni River and its tributaries, again without success. Finally they prospected the Tarua River south past the tributary which flows to Waipai, once more without success and on the advice of mining engineer Seale, it was decided there was nothing to justify further exploration. They had not progressed to any country on the southern watershed through which the early explorers and prospectors travelled to the Hagan Range and Wabag. The party returned to Madang, sailing for Sydney on 3 July 1930.

After leading the first expedition, Sam Freeman did not return and Reg Beazley became party leader of the second expedition, with Pontey Seale mining engineer, Bill MacGregor and Beazley prospectors and recruiters, and Ernie Shepherd in charge of transport and supplies, prospecting when opportunity arose. They had all served overseas during World War I with the AIF on the western front, in Egypt and the Levant and had previously been to New Guinea. In 1926 Freeman was near Marienberg with Ormildah drilling for oil; Shepherd was with Dr. Wade and R.J. Winters on their geological survey of a oil lease of 10,000 square miles (26,000 km^2) in the Bogia and Nubio to Ramu region and up the Sepik River to Kubka 60 miles (97 km) above Ambunto. Beazley

was drilling test sites for oil with Matahower in the lower Sepik and he and McGregor recruited labour on the Sepik and explored grass country to Wee Wak. Beazley also prospected the Arrabundio for gold and on his promising report to Freeman, Akmana Gold Prospecting Coy was floated in 1928.

The Akmana Gold Prospecting Field Party made contact with many peoples they called: grass country people, head hunters, pygmies, wig–men, Kanakas, Poomani. These contacts were often with the help of Drybow/Dribu, a leader and spokesman of the wig–men, a most intelligent man of goodwill, with a quiet authority that brought forth friendly cooperation. 'We made a peaceful entry into this new country, establishing a reputation for fair trade and decent behaviour ... but gold was our interest and we had traced the rivers and tributaries as far as practicable where conditions and results justified the effort and found nothing worthwhile. In the many years since, there have been quite a few reports of prospecting parties in the area. But nothing of note has been reported: So we did not leave much behind, it seems.'[6]

'Members of the Akmana party donated wigs they had brought back to various museums. Two of them went to The Australian Museum, Sydney (from Beazley and Shepherd). Current records at the Australian Museum show that Beazley's wig, described as "a cap composed of human hair from the headwaters of the U–at River, Central Mountains, Mandated Territory of NG", was lodged on 31 January 1930, presumably on his quick visit to Sydney after the first expedition. Shepherd presented another wig to Father Kirschbaum, who wanted to send it to Germany. The wigs at The Australian Museum were later confused with some brought out of the Highlands 10 years afterwards by Jim Taylor during his Hagen–Sepik patrol, and wrongly attributed to him when put on display. Seale presented two wigs to the National Museum Canberra in 1930.'[7]

World War Two

Main article: New Guinea Campaign



Australian troops at Milne Bay, Papua.The Australian garrison was the first to inflict defeat on the Imperial Japanese Army during World War II at the Battle of Milne Bay of Aug–Sep 1942.

Shortly after the start of the Pacific War, the island of New Guinea was invaded by the Japanese. Most of West Papua, at that time known as Dutch New Guinea, was occupied, as were large parts of the Territory of New Guinea (the former German New Guinea, which was also under Australian rule after World War I), but Papua was protected to a large extent by its southern location and the near-impassable Owen Stanley Ranges to the north.

The New Guinea campaign opened with the battles for New Britain and New Ireland in the Territory of New Guinea in 1942. Rabaul, the capital of the Territory was overwhelmed on 22–23 January and was established as a major Japanese base from whence they landed on mainland New Guinea and advanced towards Port Moresby and Australia.[8] Having had their initial effort to capture Port Moresby by a seaborne invasion disrupted by the U.S. Navy in the Battle of the Coral Sea, the Japanese attempted a landward invasion from the north via the Kokoda Trail. From July 1942, a few Australian reserve battalions, many of them very young and untrained, fought a stubborn rearguard action against a Japanese advance along the Kokoda Track, towards Port Moresby, over the rugged Owen Stanley Ranges.[9] Local Papuans, called Fuzzy Wuzzy Angels by the Australians, assisted and escorted injured Australian troops down the Kokoda trail. The militia, worn out and severely depleted by casualties, were relieved in late August by regular troops from the Second Australian Imperial Force, returning from action in the Mediterranean theater.

The Japanese were driven back. The bitter Battle of Buna-Gona followed in which Australian and United States

forces attacked the main Japanese beachheads in New Guinea, at Buna, Sanananda and Gona. Facing tropical disease, difficult terrain and well constructed Japanese defences, the allies only secured victory with heavy casualties.[10]

In early September 1942 Japanese marines attacked a strategic Royal Australian Air Force base at Milne Bay, near the eastern tip of Papua. They were beaten back by the Australian Army, and the Battle of Milne Bay is remembered as the first outright defeat on Japanese land forces during World War II.[11] The offensives in Papua and New Guinea of 1943–44 were the single largest series of connected operations ever mounted by the Australian armed forces.[12] The Supreme Commander of operations was the United States General Douglas Macarthur, with Australian General Thomas Blamey taking a direct role in planning and operations being essentially directed by staff at New Guinea Force headquarters in Port Moresby.[13] Bitter fighting continued in New Guinea between the largely Australian force and the Japanese 18th Army based in New Guinea until the Japanese surrender in 1945.



An Australian soldier, Private George "Dick" Whittington, is aided by Papuan orderly Raphael Oimbari, near Buna on 25 December 1942.

The New Guinea campaign was a major campaign of the Pacific War. In all, some 200,000 Japanese soldiers, sailors and airmen died during the campaign against approximately 7,000 Australian and 7,000 American service personnel.[14]

The Territory of Papua and New Guinea

Following the surrender of the Japanese in 1945, civil administration of Papua as well as New Guinea was restored, and under the Papua New Guinea Provisional Administration Act, (1945–46), Papua and New Guinea were combined in an administrative union.

The Papua and New Guinea Act 1949 formally approved the placing of New Guinea under the international trusteeship system and confirmed the administrative union under the title of **The Territory of Papua and New Guinea**. The act provided for a Legislative Council (established in 1951), a judicial organization, a public service, and a system of local government. A House of Assembly replaced the Legislative Council in 1963, and the first House of Assembly opened on 8 June 1964. In 1972, the name of the territory was changed to **Papua New Guinea**. Australia's change of policy towards Papua New Guinea largely commenced with the invitation from the Australian Government to the World Bank to send a mission to the Territory to advise on measures to be taken towards its economic development and political preparation. The mission's report, The Economic Development of the Territory of Papua New Guinea, published in 1964, set out the framework upon which much of later economic policy, up to and beyond independence, proceeded.

Independence

Elections in 1972 resulted in the formation of a ministry headed by Chief Minister Michael Somare, who pledged to lead the country to self-government and then to independence. Papua New Guinea became self-governing on 1 December 1973 and achieved independence on 16 September 1975. The 1977 national elections confirmed Michael Somare as Prime Minister at the head of a coalition led by the Pangu Party. However, his government lost a vote of confidence in 1980 and was replaced by a new cabinet headed by Sir Julius Chan as prime minister. The 1982 elections increased Pangu's plurality, and parliament again chose Somare as prime minister. In

November 1985, the Somare government lost another vote of no confidence, and the parliamentary majority elected Paias Wingti, at the head of a five-party coalition, as prime minister. A coalition, headed by Wingti, was victorious in very close elections in July 1987. In July 1988, a no-confidence vote toppled Wingti and brought to power Rabbie Namaliu, who a few weeks earlier had replaced Somare as leader of the Pangu Party.

Such reversals of fortune and a revolving-door succession of prime ministers continue to characterize Papua New Guinea's national politics. A plethora of political parties, coalition governments, shifting party loyalties and motions of no confidence in the leadership all lend an air of instability to political proceedings.

Under legislation intended to enhance stability, new governments remain immune from no-confidence votes for the first 18 months of their incumbency.

A nine-year secessionist revolt on the island of Bougainville claimed some 20,000 lives. The rebellion began in early 1989, active hostilities ended with a truce in October 1997 and a permanent ceasefire was signed in April 1998. A peace agreement between the Government and ex-combatants was signed in August 2001. A regional peace-monitoring force and a UN observer mission monitors the government and provincial leaders who have established an interim administration and are working toward complete surrender of weapons, the election of a provincial government and an eventual referendum on independence.

Although close relations have been maintained since peaceful independence and Australia remains the largest bilateral aid donor to Papua New Guinea, relations with Australia have recently shown signs of strain. While on a state visit in March 2005, Prime Minister Somare was asked to submit to a security check and remove his shoes upon arriving at the airport in Brisbane. Despite demands from the PNG government that Australia apologize, the latter refused. Additionally, problems have arisen with regard to Australia's latest aid package for the country. Valued at A$760 million, the program was to tackle crime and corruption in PNG by sending 200 Australian police to Port Moresby and installing 40 Australian officials within the national bureaucracy. However, after the first detachment of police arrived, Papua New Guinea's high court ruled that the arrangement was unconstitutional, and the police returned home. A new arrangement, by which only 30 officers will serve as a training force for the local force has been described by the Australian foreign minister as "second-best".[15]

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Monarchy of Papua New Guinea

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Papua New Guinea** (the **Papua New Guinean Monarchy**) is a system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign of Papua New Guinea. The present monarch of Papua New Guinea is Queen Elizabeth II. Papua New Guinea share the Sovereign with a number of Commonwealth realms.[1] The monarch is constitutionally represented by the Governor-General of Papua New Guinea, whose roles and powers are laid out by the *Constitution of the Independent State of Papua New Guinea*.

Queen of Papua New Guinea

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Papua New Guinea



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	September 16, 1975

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International and domestic role

One of the most complicated features of the Papua New Guinean Monarchy is that it is a shared monarchy.

54 states are members of the Commonwealth of Nations. Sixteen of these countries are specifically Commonwealth realms who recognise, individually, the same person as their Monarch and Head of State;Papua New Guinea is one of these.[2] Despite sharing the same person as their respective national monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms — including Papua New Guinea — is sovereign and independent of the others.

Development of shared monarchy

The *Balfour Declaration* of 1926 provided the dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of a shared Crown that operates independently in each realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the dominions were secondary. The Monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, legal, and of convenience. The *Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, 1927* was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the *Statute of Westminster, 1931*.

Papua New Guinea has a common monarchy with Britain and the other Commonwealth realms.

On all matters of the Papua New Guinean State, the Monarch is advised solely by Papua New Guinean ministers.

Title

In Papua New Guinea, the Queen's official title is: *Elizabeth the Second, Queen of Papua New Guinea and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*, as stated by section 85 of the *Constitution of the Independent State of Papua New Guinea*..

This style communicates Papua New Guinea's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the Monarch's role specifically as Queen of Papua New Guinea, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms. Typically, the Sovereign is styled "Queen of Papua New Guinea," and is addressed as such when in Papua New Guinea, or performing duties on behalf of Papua New Guinea abroad.

Constitutional role

The role and powers of the monarch are set out in the Constitution. The Preamble to the Constitution states ‘that all power belongs to the people—acting through their duly elected representatives’. Nevertheless , according to section 82 of the Constitution, ‘1) Her Majesty the Queen— (a) having been requested by the people of Papua New Guinea, through their Constituent Assembly, to become the Queen and Head of State of Papua New Guinea; and (b) having graciously consented so to become, is the Queen and Head of State of Papua New Guinea.' She is referred to in the Constitution as ‘Head of State’.

All powers of state are constitutionally derived from the people, (Preamble) through the Constituent Assembly (sec.82). These powers are entrusted to the Head of State, who is represented by the Governor General of Papua New Guinea — appointed by the Monarch upon the nomination of the National Parliament of Papua New Guinea the Monarch is informed of the Prime Minister's decision before the Governor General gives Royal Assent.

Duties

Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by the Governor General. The Governor-General represents the Queen on ceremonial occasions such as the opening of Parliament, the presentation of honours and military parades. Under the Constitution, he is given authority to act in some matters, for example in appointing and disciplining officers of the civil service, in proroguing Parliament. As in the other Commonwealth realms, however, the Monarch's role, and thereby the viceroy's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments operate, and the powers that are constitutionally hers are exercised almost wholly upon the advice of the Cabinet, made up of Ministers of the Crown. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". In exceptional circumstances, however, the Monarch or vice-regal can act against such advice based upon his or her reserve powers.

There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by the Queen. These include: signing the appointment papers of Governors General, the confirmation of awards of honours, and approving any change in her title.

It is also possible that if the Governor General decided to go against the Prime Minister's or the government's advice, the Prime Minister could appeal directly to the Monarch, or even recommend that the Monarch dismiss the Governor General.

Succession

The Constitution provides that the Queen's heirs shall succeed her as Head of State. Succession to the throne is



Charles, Prince of Wales, the current heir to the throne of Papua New Guinea

by male primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, as well as the English Bill of Rights.

This legislation lays out the rules that the Monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As Papua New Guinea's laws governing succession are currently identical to those of the United Kingdom see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, Prince of Wales.

Legal role

All laws in Papua New Guinea are enacted with the sovereign's, or the vice-regal's signature. The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it and proclamation are required for all acts of Parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor General. The Vice-Regals may reserve a bill for the Monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the Monarch to make a personal decision on the bill. The Monarch has the power to disallow a bill (within a time limit specified by the constitution).

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects. The Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the Monarch personally are not cognizable. The Sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In Papua New Guinea the legal personality of the State is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Papua New Guinea." For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Papua New Guinea. The monarch as an individual takes no more role in such an affair than in any other business of government.

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Categories: Politics of Papua New Guinea | Government of Papua New Guinea | Current monarchies | Monarchies of Oceania | Papua New Guinea–United Kingdom relations | Papua New Guinea and the Commonwealth of Nations

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Saint Kitts and Nevis

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Federation of Saint Kitts and Nevis** (/seɪnt ˌkɪts ænd ˈniːvɪs/; also known as the **Federation of Saint Christopher and Nevis**),[2] located in the Leeward Islands, is a federal two-island nation in the West Indies. It is the smallest sovereign state in the Americas, in both area and population.

The capital city and headquarters of government for the federated state is Basseterre on the larger island of Saint Kitts. The smaller state of Nevis lies about 2 miles (3 km) southeast of Saint Kitts, across a shallow channel called "The Narrows".

Historically, the British dependency of Anguilla was also a part of this union, which was then known collectively as Saint Christopher-Nevis-Anguilla. Saint Kitts and Nevis are geographically part of the Leeward Islands. To the north-northwest lie the islands of Sint Eustatius, Saba, Saint Barthélemy, Saint-Martin/Sint Maarten and Anguilla. To the east and northeast are Antigua and Barbuda, and to the southeast is the small uninhabited island of Redonda, and the island of Montserrat, which currently has an active volcano (see Soufrière Hills).

Saint Kitts and Nevis were among the first islands in the Caribbean to be settled by Europeans. Saint Kitts was home to the first English and French colonies in the Caribbean, and thus has also been titled "The Mother Colony of the West Indies".

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Federation of Saint Kitts and Nevis	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: "Country Above Self"	
Anthem: "O Land of Beauty!" **Royal anthem:** *God Save the Queen*	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Basseterre 17°18′N 62°44′W
Official language(s)	English
Demonym	*Kittitian* (or, Alternatively, Kittian); *Nevisian*; *Kitti-Nevi* (for citizens born on one island, but have parents who were born on the other one)
Government	Parliamentary democracy and Federal constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor-General	Sir Cuthbert Sebastian
- Prime Minister	Dr. Denzil Douglas
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	19 September 1983
Area	

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- Total	261 km^2 (207th) 104 sq mi
- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- July 2005 estimate	51,300 (209th)
- Density	164/km^2 (64th) 424/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate
- Total	$723 million[1]
- Per capita	$13,124[1]
GDP (nominal)	2009 estimate
- Total	$557 million[1]
- Per capita	$10,315[1]
HDI (2007)	▼ 0.838 (high) (62nd)
Currency	East Caribbean dollar (XCD)
Time zone	(UTC-4)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	KN
Internet TLD	.kn
Calling code	+1-869

1 Or "Federation of Saint Christopher and Nevis".

2 hdr.undp.org (http://hdr.undp.org/hdr2006/statistics/countries/data_sheets/cty_ds_KNA.html)

Etymology

Saint Kitts was named "Liamuiga" by the Kalinago Indians who inhabited the island. This name, roughly translated, in English means "fertile land," a testimony to the island's rich volcanic soil and high productivity .

Nevis's pre-Columbian name was "Oualie," which translates to "land of beautiful waters," presumably referring to the island's many freshwater springs and hot volcanic springs.

Christopher Columbus, upon sighting what we now call Nevis in 1498, gave that island the name *San Martin* (Saint Martin). However, the confusion of numerous, poorly charted small islands in the Leeward Island chain, meant that the name ended up being accidentally transferred to another island, the one which we now know as the French/Dutch island Saint-Martin/Sint Maarten.

The current name "Nevis" is derived from a Spanish name *Nuestra Señora de las Nieves* (The original name was the archaic Spanish *"Noestra Siñora delas Neves"*), by a process of abbreviation and anglicization. This Spanish name means Our Lady of the Snows. It is not known who chose this name for the island, but it is a reference to the story of a fourth-century Catholic miracle: a snowfall on the Esquiline Hill in Rome. Presumably the white clouds which usually wreathe the top of Nevis Peak reminded someone of the story of a miraculous snowfall in a hot climate. The island of Nevis, upon first British settlement was referred to as "Dulcina," a name meaning "sweet one." Its original Spanish name, "Nuestra Señora de las Nieves," was eventually kept however, though it was soon shortened to "Nevis."

There is some disagreement over the name which Columbus gave to St. Kitts. For many years it was thought that he named the island *San Cristobal*, after his patron saint Saint Christopher, the saint of travelling. However, new studies suggest that Columbus named the island *Sant Yago* (Saint James). The name "San Cristobal" was apparently given by Columbus to the island now known as Saba, 20 miles northwest. It seems that "San Cristobal" came to be applied to the island of St. Kitts only as the result of a mapping error. No matter the origin of the name, the island was well documented as "San Cristobal" by the 17th century. The first English colonists kept the English translation of this name, and dubbed it "St. Christopher's Island." In the 17th century Kit, or Kitt, was a common nickname for the name Christopher, and so the island was often informally referred to as "Saint Kitt's island," which was further shortened to "Saint Kitts."

Today, the Constitution refers to the nation as both "Saint Kitts and Nevis" and "Saint Christopher and Nevis," but the former is the one most commonly used.

History

Main article: History of Saint Kitts and Nevis



Battle of Saint Kitts, 1782, as described by an observer in a French engraving titled "Attaque de Brimstomhill".

Five thousand years prior to European arrival, the island was settled by Native Americans. The latest arrivals, the Kalinago peoples, arrived approximately three centuries before the Europeans. The islands were made known to the Europeans by a Spanish expedition under Columbus in 1493. In 1538, French Huguenots established a settlement on St. Kitts but the settlement was destroyed by the Spanish soon afterwards and the survivors were deported. In 1623, an English settlement was established, which was soon followed by French settlements, the island being divided by agreement. Dissimilar to many other islands, the local Kalinago people on the island allowed Europeans to colonise Saint Kitts. In 1626, the Anglo-French settlers massacred the Kalinago.

The island of Nevis was colonised in 1628 by English settlers from Saint Kitts. From there, Saint Kitts became the premier base for English and French expansion, as the islands of Antigua, Montserrat, Anguilla and Tortola for the English, and Martinique, the Guadeloupe archipelago and St. Barts for the French were colonised from it.

A Spanish expedition, sent to enforce Spanish claims, occupied both islands and deported the English and French settlers back to their respective countries in 1629. However, they soon returned and re-established their colonies. During the late 17th and early 18th century, the two nations battled for control over the island until it was ceded to the British in 1713.

Although small in size, and separated by only 2 miles (3 km) of water, the two islands were viewed and governed as different states until the late 19th century, when they were forcibly unified along with the island of Anguilla by the British. To this day relations are strained, with Nevis accusing Saint Kitts of neglecting its needs.

Saint Kitts and Nevis, along with Anguilla, became an associated state with full internal autonomy in 1967. Anguillians rebelled, and their island was allowed to separate from the others in 1971. St. Kitts and Nevis achieved independence in 1983. It is the newest sovereign nation in the Americas. In August 1998, a vote in Nevis on a referendum to separate from St. Kitts fell short of the two-thirds majority needed.[3] In late September 1998, Hurricane Georges caused approximately $458,000,000 in damages and property and limited GDP growth for the year and beyond. Georges was the worst hurricane to hit the region in the century.

Politics

Main article: Politics of Saint Kitts and Nevis

The country is an independent Commonwealth realm with Queen Elizabeth II as its head of state, represented in St. Kitts and Nevis by a Governor-General, who acts on the advice of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet. The prime minister is the leader of the majority party of the House, and the cabinet conducts affairs of state.

St. Kitts and Nevis has a unicameral legislature, known as the National Assembly. It is composed of fourteen members: eleven elected Representatives (three from the island of Nevis) and three Senators who are appointed by the Governor-General. Two of the senators are appointed on the advice of the Prime Minister, and one on the advice of the leader of the opposition. Unlike in other countries, senators do not constitute a separate Senate or

upper house of parliament, but sit in the National Assembly, alongside representatives. All members serve five-year terms. The Prime Minister and the Cabinet are responsible to the Parliament.

Saint Kitts and Nevis is a full and participating member of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) and the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS).

Administration

Main article: Parishes of Saint Kitts and Nevis

The federation of Saint Kitts and Nevis is divided into fourteen parishes: nine divisions on Saint Kitts and five on Nevis.



Parishes of Saint Kitts and Nevis.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Saint Kitts and Nevis

See also: List of cities in Saint Kitts and Nevis and List of volcanoes in Saint Kitts and Nevis

The country has two main islands, Saint Kitts and Nevis. The highest peak, at 1,156 metres, is Mount Liamuiga.

The islands are of volcanic origin, with large central peaks covered in tropical rainforest; the steeper slopes leading to these peaks are mostly uninhabited. The majority of the population on both islands lives closer to the sea where the terrain flattens out. There are numerous rivers descending from the mountains of both islands, which provide fresh water to the local population. St. Kitts also has one small lake.



Map of Saint Kitts and Nevis


View of Nevis from St. Kitts

Economy

Main article: Economy of Saint Kitts and Nevis

Saint Kitts and Nevis is a twin-island federation whose economy is characterised by its dominant tourism, agriculture and light manufacturing industries. Sugar was the primary export from the 1640s on, but rising production costs, low world market prices, and the government's efforts to reduce dependence on it have led to a growing diversification of the agricultural sector. In 2005, the government decided to close down the state-owned sugar company, which had experienced losses and was a significant contributor to the fiscal deficit. Former sugar plantations still dominate the St. Kitts landscape, however many of the cane fields are being burned to make room for land development, especially on the northern side of the island, in the parishes of Saint John Capisterre and Christchurch. The agricultural, tourism, export-oriented manufacturing, and offshore-banking sectors are being developed and are now taking larger roles in the country's economy. The growth of the tourism sector has become the main foreign exchange earner for Saint Kitts and Nevis. The country has also developed a successful apparel

assembly industry and one of the largest electronics assembly industries in the Caribbean.

St. Kitts is dependent on tourism to drive its economy. Tourism to the island has been expanding since 1978. In 2009 there were 587,479 arrivals to Saint Kitts compared to 379,473 in 2007. This growth represents an increase of just under 40% in a 2 year period. As tourism grows the demand for vacation property increases in conjunction.

St Kitts & Nevis also acquires foreign direct investment from their *citizenship by investment program*, outlined in their Citizenship Act of 1984. Interested parties can acquire Citizenship if they pass the government's background checks and make an investment into an approved real estate development.

Education

See also: List of schools in Saint Kitts and Nevis

There are eight publicly administered high/secondary level schools in St Kitts-Nevis, and several private secondary schools.

Public high/secondary schools

- Cayon High School (CHS)
- Basseterre High School (BHS)
- Washington Archibald High School (WAHS)
- Verchilds High School (VHS)
- Charles E. Mills Secondary School (CEMS)
- Charlestown Secondary School (CSS)
- Gingerland Secondary School (GSS)
- Saddlers Secondary School (SSS)

Private high/secondary schools

- St Theresa's Convent School and St. Joseph's School, which merged in 2010 to form the Immaculate Conception Catholic School (ICCS) – Kindergarten to Grade 11 (or 5th form) – the traditional Caribbean final secondary school grade.
- Lyn Jeffers Secondary School
- Lyn Jeffers Primary School
- Saint Christopher Preparatory school
- Montessori Academy

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Saint Kitts and Nevis

African descent 75.1%, Afro-European 12.3%, mulatto 5.3%, East Indian and Afro-East Indian 5%, Other 3.3%, South Asian ethnic groups 3%[4]

As of July 2000, there were 42,696 inhabitants; their average life expectancy was 72.4 years. Emigration has historically been very high, and high levels of such in the country has resulted in a continuous decrease in the nation's population by about 25% since its peak of about 51,100 in 1960.[*citation needed*]

Emigration from St. Kitts & Nevis to the United States:[5]

- 1986–1990: 3,513
- 1991–1995: 2,730
- 1996–2000: 2,101
- 2001–2005: 1,756
- 2006–2010: 1,817

Emigration from St. Kitts & Nevis to the United Kingdom:[6]

- The 2001 Census showed 7,091 Saint Kitts and Nevis born people in the UK, with almost 20,000 of direct descent.

Culture

Main article: Culture of St. Kitts and Nevis

See also: Music of Saint Kitts and Nevis, J'ouvert, and Saint Kitts Creole



The Mongoose Play, a popular production of folk theatre and music

Saint Kitts and Nevis is known for a number of musical celebrations including Carnival (18 December to 3 January on Saint Kitts). The last week in June features the St Kitts Music Festival, while the week-long Culturama on Nevis lasts from the end of July into early August.[7]

Additional festivals on the island of Saint Kitts include Inner City Fest, in February in Molineaux; Green Valley Festival, usually around Whit Monday in village of Cayon; Easterama, around Easter in village of Sandy Point; Fest-Tab, in July or August in the village of Tabernacle; and La festival de Capisterre, around Independence Day in Saint Kitts and Nevis (19 September), in the Capisterre region. These celebrations typically feature parades, street dances and salsa, jazz, soca, calypso and steelpan music.

The 1985 film *Missing in Action 2: The Beginning* was filmed in Saint Kitts.[8]

Sports

See also: Cricket in the West Indies and Rugby union in Saint Kitts and Nevis

Cricket is common in Saint Kitts and Nevis. Top players are contributed to the West Indies cricket team. Runako Morton , was from Nevis. Saint Kitts and Nevis is the smallest nation on Earth to ever host a World Cup event[*citation needed*]; it was one of the host venues of the 2007 Cricket World Cup.

The St. Kitts and Nevis national football team, also known as the "Sugar Boyz", has experienced some international success in recent years, progressing to the semifinal round of qualification for the 2006 FIFA World Cup in the CONCACAF region. Led by Glence Glasgow they defeated U.S. Virgin Islands and Barbados before they were outmatched by Mexico, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago.

The St. Kitts and Nevis Billiard Federation – SKNBF, is the governing body for cue sports across the two islands. The SKNBF is a member of the Caribbean Billiards Union – CBU, with the SKNBF President Ste Williams holding the post of CBU Vice President.

Kim Collins is the country's foremost track and field athlete. He has won gold medals in the 100 metres at both the World Championships in Athletics and Commonwealth Games, and at the 2000 Sydney Olympics he was the country's first athlete to reach an Olympic final. He and three other athletes represented St. Kitts and Nevis at the 2008 Summer Olympics in Beijing. The four by one hundred metre relay team won a bronze medal in the 2011 world championships.

American writer and former figure skater and triathlete Kathryn Bertine was granted dual citizenship in an attempt to make the 2008 Summer Olympics representing St. Kitts and Nevis in women's cycling. Her story was chronicled online at ESPN.com as a part of its E-Ticket feature entitled "So You Wanna Be An Olympian?" She ultimately failed to earn the necessary points for Olympic qualification.[9]

St. Kitts and Nevis had two athletes ride in the time trial at the 2010 UCI Road World Championships. Athletes included Reginald Douglas and James Weekes.[10]

See also

- Outline of Saint Kitts and Nevis
- Index of Saint Kitts and Nevis-related articles
- Caribbean Sea
- Commonwealth of Nations
- Leeward Islands

Notes

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History of Saint Kitts and Nevis

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Saint Kitts and Nevis has one of the longest written histories in the Caribbean, both islands being amongst Europe's first colonies in the archipelago. Despite being only 2 miles apart and quite diminutive in size, Saint Kitts and Nevis were widely recognized as being separate entities with separate identities, until they were forcefully unified in the late 19th century

Contents

- 1 Pre-Columbian Period (2900 B.C. to 1493 A.D.)
- 2 The First Europeans (1493 to 1623)
- 3 Saint Kitts, 1623 to 1700
- 4 Nevis, 1628 to 1700
- 5 Saint Kitts and Nevis, 1700 to 1883
- 6 Saint Kitts and Nevis 1883 to present
- 7 See also
- 8 References

Pre-Columbian Period (2900 B.C. to 1493 A.D.)

The first settlers to arrive to the islands, almost 3,000 years B.C., were a pre-agricultural, pre-ceramic people, who migrated down the archipelago from Florida. These hunter-gatherers for years were mistakenly thought to be the Ciboney, an Amerindian race from Cuba. However, archaeological evidence has proven that they were in actuality a group which has been labelled simply "Archaic people". In a few hundred years, these Archaic people disappeared.

Around 1000 B.C., the ceramic-using and agriculturalist Saladoid people came to the islands, migrating up the archipelago from the banks of the Orinoco River in Venezuela. These people were then replaced in 800 A.D. by the Igneri people, members of the Arawak tribe. They were a peace-loving pro-religious people who migrated up the same path from the Orinoco. They heavily settled it, climaxing to an estimated population of 5,000.

Around 1300 A.D., the Kalinago, or Carib people arrived on the islands. The war-like Kalinago people quickly dispersed the Igneri, and forced them northwards to the Greater Antilles. They named Saint Kitts *Liamuiga* meaning "fertile island", and Nevis *Oualie* meaning "land of beautiful waters". The islands of Liamuiga and Oualie marked the furthest the Kalinago ever reached northwards, in terms of permanent residence, and probably would have succeeded in occupying the entire archipelago had the Europeans not come. Both islands, were major bases used by the Kalinago from the South to raid the Eastern Taino peoples of the Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico, and were critically important for the Kalinago trade routes to the North.

The First Europeans (1493 to 1623)

The first Europeans to see and name the islands were the Spanish under Christopher Columbus. He named Saint Kitts *Sant Jago* (Saint James). However, misinterpretations of maps by subsequent Spanish explorers led Saint Kitts to be named *San Cristobal* (Saint Christopher), a name originally applied to Saba 20 miles north. Nevis was

named "Nuestra Señora de las **Nieves**", or "Our Lady of the Snows", because the wreath of white clouds that usually covers the top of its volcanic peak reminded the Spaniards of the ancient Catholic miracle Our Lady of the Snows.

The first non-Spanish settlement attempt in the Caribbean occurred on Saint Kitts, when French Huguenot [1][2][3] refugees from the fishing town of Dieppe established a town on a harbour on the island's north coast, which they also named Dieppe, in 1538. However, only months after the founding, the settlement was raided by the Spanish and all the inhabitants were deported. The remains of one of the buildings is now the basement for the Main house in the Golden Lemon Hotel.

The next European encounter occurred in 1607 when Captain John Smith stopped at Nevis for five days before founding the colony of Virginia. Captain Smith documented the many hot springs in Nevis, whose waters had remarkable curative abilities against skin ailments and bad health.

Saint Kitts, 1623 to 1700

In the early 17th century, an English captain, Thomas Warner, set sail with a crew to found a colony on the Guiana coast. His colony proved a failure as his crew was ravaged by disease, unfamiliar weather conditions, and Carib raids. A friend of Warner's then suggested that he should instead try to colonise one of the islands in the Lesser Antilles because of their favourable conditions. In 1623 Warner abandoned his Guiana post and set sail North through the archipelago. After checking each island, Warner decided that Saint Kitts would prove to be the best-suited site for an English colony, because of its strategic central position ideal for expansion, friendly native population, fertile soil, abundant fresh water, and large salt deposits. He and his family landed on the island and made peace with the local Kalinago peoples, whose leader was Ouboutou Tegremante. Warner then left his family behind and returned to England to gather more men to officially establish a colony. In 1624, he returned and established the colony of Saint Christopher, the first English colony in the Caribbean. They established a port town at Old Road, downhill from Tegremante's capital village.



European propagandist illustration of the Kalingo people. Engraving in British cartographer John Hamilton Moore's 1778 book *Voyages and Travels* labeled "Natives of the Caribee, feasting on human flesh".

In 1625, a French captain, Pierre Belain d'Esnambuc, arrived on the island. He had left France hoping to establish an island colony after hearing about the success of the English on Saint Kitts, but his fleet was destroyed in a clash with the Spanish Armada, leaving him with only his flagship. Warner took pity on the French settlers and allowed them to settle on the island as well, thus making Saint Kitts the site of the first permanent French colony in the Caribbean as well. French settlers lodged themselves in the ruins of the town of Dieppe, which they rebuilt. Warner also willingly accepted the French in an attempt to out-populate the local Kalinago, of whom he was growing suspicious.

Warner's suspicions proved to be accurate. As the European population on Saint Kitts continued to increase, Tegremante grew suspicious of the foreigners. In 1626, after a secret meeting with Kalinago heads from neighbouring Waitikubuli (Dominica) and Oualie, it was decided that in a secret raid they would ambush the

European settlements. The secret plan was revealed to the Europeans however, by an Igneri woman named Barbe. Barbe had only recently been brought to St. Kitts as a slave-wife after a raid on an Arawak island. She despised the Kalinago and had fallen in love with Warner, and thus told him of the planned ambush. The Europeans acted by attacking the Kalinago first. At a site now called Bloody Point, which housed the island's main Kalinago settlement, over 2,000 Kalinago men were massacred, many of whom were from Waitikubuli, who had come overnight planning to attack the Europeans the day after. The many dead bodies were dumped in a river, on the site which housed the Kalinago place of worship. For weeks, blood flowed down the river like water, giving it its nickname, Bloody River. The remaining Kalinago Indians were deported to Waitikubuli.

After the Kalinago Genocide of 1626, the island was formally partitioned between the English and French, with the French gaining the ends, Capisterre in the North and Basseterre in the south, and the English gaining the centre. Both powers then proceeded to colonise neighbouring islands from their base. The English settled Nevis (1628), Antigua (1632), Montserrat (1632) and later Anguilla (1650) and Tortola (1672). The French colonised Martinique (1635), the Guadeloupe archipelago (1635), St. Martin (1648), and St. Barths (1648) and Saint Croix (1650).

Saint Kitts suffered heavily from a Spanish raid in 1629, from which all of the island's inhabitants fled as the Spaniards pillaged. They returned shortly after, however, and developed a series of fortifications along the Caribbean coast.

The island soon became a centre of production of tobacco. The planters grew prosperous. However when the colony of Virginia began to dominate world tobacco production and profits started declining, the island switched to producing sugar cane, starting in 1640. To provide the large amounts of labour needed for the industry, African slaves were imported in large numbers. The slaves had very harsh living conditions, and thousands perished working the fields.

Phillippe de Longvilliers de Poincy became governor of the French portion of the island in 1638 Owing greater allegiance to the Knights of St John, he soon refused to accept the authority of the King of France. He died on the island in 1660.

During the Second Anglo-Dutch War, the relationship between the French and English settlers soured, as their home countries warred. Warfare soon broke out on the island itself. The overwhelming French troops attacked the English settlements and gained control of the whole island from 1665-1667. The Treaty of Breda restored the English portion of the island to its owners.

In 1671, English Saint Kitts was joined with Nevis, Antigua and Montserrat to form the Leeward Caribee Island Government, headquartered in Antigua. The island still enjoyed full autonomy, however.

In 1689, during the War of the Grand Alliance, France re-occupied the entire island, and decimated the English farms. An English retaliation by General Codrington defeated the French forces and deported them to Martinique. The Treaty of Rijswijk in 1697 restored pre-war conditions. The war devastated St. Kitts's economy.

Nevis, 1628 to 1700

The history of Nevis was less tumultuous. The island was colonised by Anthony Hilton and 80 settlers from Saint Kitts in 1628. The island quickly grew very profitable from tobacco trading, and was able to secure prime investment from Britain. It was able to evade much of the conflict and devastation that nearby Saint Kitts suffered, and its riches were so great it was nicknamed "Queen of the Caribees." In 1629 during the Anglo-Spanish war of 1625, the Spanish occupied both islands and deported the English and French inhabitants back to their countries. However, the island was returned to England by the Treaty of Madrid in 1630. In 1640, Nevis,

like St. Kitts switched over to sugar cane production and its wealth continued to grow. By 1660, it was officially the most profitable colony in the English crown per capita. Its gross profits were great as well, as they surpassed that of all 13 American colonies combined, up until the 19th century, despite being thousands of times smaller. Nevis' riches however, made it a target for pirates and other European nations.

In 1690, a massive earthquake and tsunami destroyed the city of Jamestown, then the capital of Nevis. So much damage was done to it that the city was completely abandoned. It is reputed that the whole city sank into the sea, but since then, the land has moved over at least 100 yards to the west. That means that anything left of Jamestown would now be underground. The capital was moved south to the town of Charlestown, and the island's successful sugar trade quickly bounced back.

Saint Kitts and Nevis, 1700 to 1883

Saint Kitts was to face even greater devastation with the turn of the century. The French made one more major attack on English troops in 1705 during the War of the Spanish Succession, as the over 8,000 French troops on the island easily defeated the 1,000 English posts. The French held St. Kitts for 8 years, until the Treaty of Utrecht was signed (1713). The treaty ceded the entire island of St. Kitts to the British. Upon receiving full control in 1713, the British soon moved the island's capital to the town of Basseterre in 1727, and St. Kitts quickly took off as a leader in sugar production in the Caribbean.



Battle of Saint Kitts, 1782, as described by an observer in a French engraving titled "Attaque de Brimstomhill".

Whilst conditions on St. Kitts improved, Nevis was seeing a decline. The years of monocrop cultivation, as well as heavy amounts of soil erosion due to the high slope grade on the island, caused its sugar production to continuously decrease. A heavy French raid in 1706 further complicated the situation, and damaged the island's agriculture extensively. It proved to never fully recover.

To make up for sugar losses in Nevis, the island opened its first hotel in 1778. The first such establishment in the Western Hemisphere, the Bath Hotel was constructed over the site of one of the island's famous hot springs. The island thus became the first place in the Americas to officially practice tourism. Nevis's popularity as a destination grew, and it continued to be in the favour of the British elite.

By 1776, Saint Kitts had become the richest British colony in the Caribbean, per capita. It retained this status until the late 19th century, despite a myriad of attacks by the French throughout the 18th century, including the battle of St. Kitts in 1782. The consolidation of British rule was recognized finally under the Treaty of Versailles in 1783. In 1806, the Leeward Islands Caribee government was split into two groups, with Antigua, Barbuda, Redonda and Montserrat in one group, and St. Kitts, Nevis, Anguilla and the British Virgin Islands in the other. The islands in the new grouping however, were able to keep their great degrees of autonomy. The grouping then split entirely in 1816.

Slavery was abolished in the British Empire in 1834. Profits from sugar began sinking even further, and this was made even worse with new countries, namely Brazil, Cuba and India beginning to dominate the market. Nevis' economy, as well as that of most Caribbean islands, suffered extensively from this. St. Kitts escaped the plight of its neighbours because of its good soils, and massive projects undertaken to reduce soil erosion.

In 1833, the Leeward Islands were reunited as a single administrative entity, and was renamed the **Federal Colony of the Leeward Islands** in 1871. In 1883, St. Kitts, Nevis and Anguilla were linked under one

"presidency," based in St. Kitts. Both Nevis and Anguilla disliked the union, as they had previously had their separate presidencies. An uneasy relationship followed.

Alexander Hamilton, the first United States Secretary of the Treasury, was born in Nevis; he spent his childhood there and on St. Croix, then belonging to Denmark, and now one of the United States Virgin Islands.

Saint Kitts and Nevis 1883 to present

Sugar production continued to dominate the lives of the islanders. The dominance by estate owners of the island's only and extremely limited natural resource, the land, and the single-minded application of that resource to one industry precluded the development of a stable peasant class. Instead, the system produced a large class of wage labourers generally resentful of foreign influence. The nature of the sugar industry itself—the production of a nonstaple and essentially nonnutritive commodity for a widely fluctuating world market—only served to deepen this hostility and to motivate Kittitian labourers to seek greater control over their working lives and their political situation. The collapse of sugar prices brought on by the Great Depression precipitated the birth of the organized labour movement in St. Kitts and Nevis. The Workers League, organized by Thomas Manchester of Sandy Point in 1932, tapped the popular frustration that fueled the labor riots of 1935-36. Rechristened the St. Kitts and Nevis Trades and Labour Union in 1940 and under the new leadership of Robert Llewellyn Bradshaw, the union established a political arm, the St. Kitts and Nevis Labour Party, which put Bradshaw in the Legislative Council in 1946. The Labour Party would go on to dominate political life in the twin-island state for more than thirty years.

The islands remained in the Leeward Islands Federation until they joined the failed West Indies Federation from 1958 to 1962, in which Saint Christopher-Nevis-Anguilla was a separate state. Robert Bradshaw was the Minister of Finance for the short-lived country.

In 1967, the islands became an Associated State of Britain.

In the same year Anguilla had a major secession movement supported by St. Kitts political opposition party, The People's Action Movement (PAM). Both forces, working together, invaded the island from an Anguillian base in an attempted coup d'état. Anguilla was able to successfully break away from the union in 1971.

During Bradshaw's long tenure, his government slowly moved into a statist approach to economic development. All sugar lands were bought by the government, as well as the central sugar factory. Opposition to Bradshaw's rule began to build, especially by the families and supporters of former estate owners, who founded the People's Action Movement party in 1964, after frustration over a failed demonstration against a raise in electricity rates. Opposition was especially great in Nevis, who felt that their island was being neglected and unfairly deprived of revenue, investment and services by its larger neighbour. Bradshaw mainly ignored Nevis' complaints, but Nevisian disenchantment with the Labour Party proved a key factor in the party's eventual fall from power.

In 1978 the labour party's longtime leader, Robert Bradshaw, died of Prostate cancer. He was succeeded by his former deputy, Paul Southwell, but Southwell himself passed a few months later, in 1979. The party then fell into a crisis of leadership. The position of premier was then handed over to Lee Moore, who, despite being recognized regionally as a legal scholar, seemed unable to lead (he once told a PAM heckler, on Church Street in front of Government Headquarters [House of Parliament] that he will "root like a pig in mud" in the House of Parliament).

Taking advantage of the labour party's confusion, the PAM party was very successful in the 1980 elections, winning 3 seats on St. Kitts, compared to the labour party's 4. The Nevis Reformation Party, under the leadership of Simeon Daniel, won 2 of the 3 seats on Nevis. PAM and NRP then formed a coalition government, naming

Kennedy Simmonds, a medical doctor and one of the founders of the PAM, premier (Simmonds had won Bradshaw's former seat in a 1979 by-election). The change in government reduced the demand for Nevis' secession. In 1983, the federation was granted independence from Britain, with a constitution that granted Nevis a large degree of autonomy as well as the guaranteed right of secession. To take advantage of this landmark, early elections were called in 1984, in which the NRP captured all 3 seats on Nevis, and the PAM party capturing 6 seats on St. Kitts, compared to the labour party's 2, despite overall the labour party winning the nationwide popular vote. The new coalition government now had a strong 9 to 2 mandate in parliament.

Economic improvement for St. Kitts followed, with the PAM party shifting focus from the sugar industry to tourism. However, much of the island's poorest people, mainly the sugar workers, were neglected. Opposition to PAM began to build from this, as well as on accusations of corruption. In the 1993 elections, both PAM and labour took 4 seats each, whilst on Nevis, a new party, the Concerned Citizens Movement, took 2 seats, beating the NRP's 1. The stalemate on St. Kitts proved unresolvable when the CCM in Nevis refused to form a coalition with PAM. Rioting soon followed on the islands, which was finally resolved in a special set of elections held in 1995, in which the labour party overwhelmingly defeated the PAM party, winning 7 seats compared to PAM's 1. Dr. Denzil Douglas became the new prime minister of the federation, and retains the post to this day.

On September 21, 1998, Hurricane Georges severely damaged the islands leaving nearly $500 millions damages and property. Georges was the worst hurricane to hit the regional in the last century.

In 2005, St. Kitts saw the closure of its sugar industry, after 365 years in the monoculture. This was stated as due to the industry's huge losses, as well as market threats by the E.U., who plan to cut sugar prices by large amounts in the near future

See also

- British colonization of the Americas
- French colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of the British West Indies
- History of North America
- History of the Caribbean
- List of Prime Ministers of Saint Kitts and Nevis
- Politics of Saint Kitts and Nevis
- Spanish colonization of the Americas

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Categories: History of Saint Kitts and Nevis | British colonization of the Americas | French colonization of the Americas

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Monarchy of Saint Kitts and Nevis

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Saint Kitts and Nevis** (the **Kittitian and Nevisian monarchy**) is a system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign of Saint Kitts and Nevis. The present monarch of Saint Kitts and Nevis is Queen Elizabeth II.[2] Saint Kitts and Nevis share the Sovereign with a number of Commonwealth realms.[2][1] The Queen's constitutional roles are mostly delegated to the Governor-General of Saint Kitts and Nevis. Royal succession is governed by the English Act of Settlement of 1701, which is part of constitutional law. [3] [4]

Queen of Saint Kitts and Nevis

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Saint Kitts and Nevis



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	September 19, 1983 [1]

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International and domestic role

One of the most complicated features of the Saint Kitts and Nevis Monarchy is that it is a shared monarchy.

54 states are members of the Commonwealth of Nations. Sixteen of these countries are specifically Commonwealth realms who recognise, individually, the same person as their Monarch and Head of State;Saint Kitts and Nevis is one of these.[5] Despite sharing the same person as their respective national monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms — including Saint Kitts and Nevis — is sovereign and independent of the others.

Development of shared monarchy

The *Balfour Declaration* of 1926 provided the dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of, in theory, a shared Crown that operates independently in each realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the dominions were secondary. The Monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, legal, and of convenience. The *Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, 1927* was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the *Statute of Westminster, 1931*.

Under the *Statute of Westminster*, Saint Kitts and Nevis has a common monarchy with Britain and the other Commonwealth realms, and though laws governing the line of succession to the Saint Kitts and Nevis throne lie within the control of the Saint Kitts and Nevis Parliament, Saint Kitts and Nevis cannot change the rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship by means of a constitutional amendment. This situation applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the UK.

On all matters of the Saint Kitts and Nevis State, the Monarch is advised solely by Saint Kitts and Nevis ministers.

Title

In Saint Kitts and Nevis, the Queen's official title is: *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Saint Christopher and Nevis and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth.*

This style communicates Saint Kitts and Nevis's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the Monarch's role specifically as Queen of Saint Kitts and Nevis, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms. Typically, the Sovereign is styled "Queen of Saint Kitts and Nevis," and is addressed as such when in Saint Kitts and Nevis, or performing duties on behalf of Saint Kitts and Nevis abroad.

Constitutional role

The Saint Kitts and Nevis constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Saint Kitts and Nevis in origin, which gives Saint Kitts and Nevis a similar parliamentary system of government as the other Commonwealth realms.

All powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the Monarch, who is represented by the Governor General of Saint Kitts and Nevis — appointed by the Monarch upon the advice of the Prime Minister of Saint Kitts and Nevis the Monarch is informed of the Prime Minister's decision before the Governor General gives Royal Assent.

Duties

Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by the Governor General. The Governor-General represents the Queen on ceremonial occasions such as the opening of Parliament, the presentation of honours and military parades. Under the Constitution, he is given authority to act in some matters, for example in appointing and disciplining officers of the civil service, in proroguing Parliament. As in the other Commonwealth realms, however, the Monarch's role, and thereby the vice-regent's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments operate, and the powers that are constitutionally hers are exercised almost wholly upon the advice of the Cabinet, made up of Ministers of the Crown. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". In exceptional circumstances, however, the Monarch or vice-regal can act against such advice based upon his or her reserve powers.

There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by the Queen. These include: signing the appointment papers of Governors General, the confirmation of awards of honours, and approving any change in her title.

It is also possible that if the Governor General decided to go against the Prime Minister's or the government's advice, the Prime Minister could appeal directly to the Monarch, or even recommend that the Monarch dismiss

the Governor General.

Succession



Charles, Prince of Wales, the current heir to the throne of Saint Kitts and Nevis

Succession to the throne is by male-preference primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, as well as the English Bill of Rights. These documents, though originally passed by the Parliament of England, are now part of the Saint Kitts and Nevis constitutional law, under control of the Saint Kitts and Nevis parliament only.

This legislation lays out the rules that the Monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As Saint Kitts and Nevis's laws governing succession are currently identical to those of the United Kingdom (by the *Statute of Westminster*) see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, who has no official title outside of the UK, but is accorded his UK title, Prince of Wales, as a courtesy title.

Legal role

All laws in Saint Kitts and Nevis are enacted with the sovereign's, or the vice-regal's signature. The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it and proclamation are required for all acts of Parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor General. The Vice-Regals may reserve a bill for the Monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the Monarch to make a personal decision on the bill. The Monarch has the power to disallow a bill (within a time limit specified by the constitution).

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects. The Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the Monarch personally are not cognizable. The Sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In Saint Kitts and Nevis the legal personality of the State is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Saint Kitts and Nevis." For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Saint Kitts and Nevis. The monarch as an individual takes no more role in such an affair than in any other business of government.

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3. ^ Official text of the Act of Settlement (http://www.legislation.gov.uk//aep/Will3/12-13/2/contents) as in force today (including any amendments) within the United Kingdom, from the UK Statute Law Database
4. ^ Text of the Act of Settlement as originally passed (http://www.british-history.ac.uk/report.aspx?compid=46986) [Chapter II. Rot. Parl. 12 & 13 Gul. III. p. 1. n. 2.]', *Statutes of the Realm*: vol 7: 1695-1701 (1820), pp. 636–38.
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Saint Lucia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Saint Lucia /seɪnt ˈluːʃə/ (French: *Sainte-Lucie*) is an island country in the eastern Caribbean Sea on the boundary with the Atlantic Ocean.[4] Part of the Lesser Antilles, it is located north/northeast of the island of Saint Vincent, northwest of Barbados and south of Martinique. It covers a land area of 617 km^2 (238.23 sq mi) and has a population of 174,000 (2010). Its capital is Castries. The island nation has been the home of two Nobel laureates, Arthur Lewis and Derek Walcott. It is the nation with the second most such honorees per capita after the Faroe Islands.

One of the Windward Islands, it was named after Saint Lucy of Syracuse by the French, the first European colonizers. They signed a treaty with the native Carib peoples in 1660. England took control of the island from 1663 to 1667; in ensuing years, it was at war with France 14 times and rule of the island changed frequently (Seven times French and British each). In 1814, the British took definitive control of the island. Because it switched so often between British and French control, Saint Lucia was also known as the "Helen of the West Indies".

Saint Lucia has a legal system based on British common law. The judiciary is independent and conducts generally fair public trials. The financial sector has weathered the global financial crisis, but the recession has hurt tourism.

Representative government came about in 1924 (with universal suffrage from 1953). From 1958 to 1962 the island was a member of the Federation of the West Indies. Finally, on February 22, 1979, Saint Lucia became an independent state of the Commonwealth of Nations.[4] The island nation celebrates this every year with a public holiday. It is also a member of la Francophonie.[5]

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- 2 Politics
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Saint Lucia	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: "The Land, The People, The Light""	
Anthem: *Sons and Daughters of Saint Lucia*	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Castries 14°1′N 60°59′W
Official language(s)	English[1][2]
Vernacular languages	Saint Lucian Creole French[1][2]
Ethnic groups (2001)	black 82.5% mixed 11.9% East Indian 2.4% other or unspecified 3.1%
Demonym	Saint Lucian
Government	Parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor-General	Pearlette Louisy
- Prime Minister	Kenny Anthony
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	22 February 1979
Area	
-	617 km^2 (191st) 238.23 sq mi
- Water (%)	1.6

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Population	
- 2009 census	173,765
- Density	298/km^2 (41st) 672/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2009 estimate
- Total	$1.746 billion[3]
- Per capita	$10,177[3]
GDP (nominal)	2009 estimate
- Total	$973 million[3]
- Per capita	$5,671[3]
HDI (2009)	▼ 0.821 (high) (69th)
Currency	East Caribbean dollar (XCD)
Time zone	(UTC−4)
Drives on the	Left
ISO 3166 code	LC
Internet TLD	.lc
Calling code	+1-758

History

Main article: History of Saint Lucia

Europeans first landed on the island in either 1492 or 1502 during Spain's early exploration of the Caribbean.

In 1643 a French expedition under the direction of Jacques du Parquet the Governor of Martinique established a permanent settlement on the island under the Govenor De Rousselan, who signed a treaty with the local Caribs in 1660. Like the English and Dutch, the French began to develop the island for the cultivation of sugar cane on extensive plantations. After the Seven Years' War between Great Britain and the France-Spanish coalition was brought to an end by the treaty of Paris (10 February 1763) in which the signatories agreed to an exchange of colonial territories. When the British acquired the island trying to use the Caribs as labourers, they imported enslaved Africans as workers. Many of the Caribs died because of lack of immunity to Eurasian diseases, such as smallpox and measles, and as a result of being overworked and maltreated by the Europeans.

Caribbean conditions were hard, and many slaves died as well. The British continued to import slaves until they abolished the trade. By that time, people of ethnic African and Carib descent greatly outnumbered those of ethnic European background.

Thereafter Saint Lucia was much contested by the two European powers until the British secured it in 1814. It was part of the British Windward Islands colony.

It joined the West Indies Federation (1958–62) when the colony was dissolved. In 1967, Saint Lucia became one of the six members of the West Indies Associated States, with internal self-government. In 1979 it gained full independence under Sir John Compton. Compton, of the conservative United Workers party (UWP), was again prime minister from 1982 to 1996, when he was succeeded by Vaughn Lewis.

Kenny Anthony of the Labour Party was prime minister from 1997 to 2006, when the UWP, again led by Compton, won control of parliament. In May 2007, after Compton suffered a series of ministrokes, Finance and External Affairs Minister Stephenson King became acting prime minister. He became prime minister after Compton died in September 2007.

Politics

Main article: Politics of Saint Lucia

See also: Foreign relations of Saint Lucia

Saint Lucia is a Commonwealth realm; Queen Elizabeth II is the Head of State of Saint Lucia, represented on the island by a Governor-General. Executive power, however, is in the hands of the Prime Minister and his cabinet.[4] The prime minister is normally the head of the party commanding the support of the majority of the members of the House of Assembly, which has 17 seats.[6] The other chamber of Parliament, the Senate, has 11 appointed members. Saint Lucia is a two-party parliamentary democracy. Five political parties participated in the November 28, 2011 General Election. Dr Kenny Davis Anthony of the St Lucia Labour Party won eleven of the seventeen seats. Saint Lucia is a full and participating member of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) and La Francophonie.

Quarters

Main article: Quarters of Saint Lucia

Saint Lucia has 11 quarters, or parishes of the island, under the French colonial government which was continued by the British: No. 1 Anse-la-Raye Quarter 31.0 km², No. 2 Castries Quarter 79.5 km², No. 3 Choiseul Quarter 31.3 km², No. 4 and 6 Gros Islet Quarter 101.5 km², No. 5 Dennery Quarter 69.7 km², No. 7 Laborie Quarter 37.8 km², No. 9 Micoud Quarter 77.7 km², No. 10 Soufrière Quarter 50.5 km², No. 11 Vieux Fort Quarter 43.8 km², No. ??? between 1 and 10 Canaries Quarter 15.9 km², No. ??? between 1 and 5 Forest Reserve Area Quarter 78.3 km²

Saint Lucia has 17 electoral segments for the 17 seats in the House of Assembly (each with title "Parliamentary Representative"):[6]

- Canaries & Anse-la-Raye
- Babonneau
- Castries Central
- Castries North
- Castries North East
- Castries South
- Castries South East
- Choiseul
- Dennery North
- Dennery South
- Gros Islet
- Laborie
- Micoud North
- Micoud South
- Soufriere
- Vieux Fort North
- Vieux Fort South



Quarters of Saint Lucia

Geography

Main article: Geography of Saint Lucia

The volcanic island of Saint Lucia is more mountainous than many other Caribbean islands, with the highest point being Mount Gimie, at 950 metres (3,120 ft) above sea level. Two other mountains, the Pitons, form the island's most famous landmark. They are located between Soufrière and Choiseul on the western side of the island. Saint Lucia is also one of the few islands in the world that boasts a drive-in volcano.

The capital city of Saint Lucia is Castries (Population 9,400), where 5.4 % of the population lives. Major towns include Gros Islet, Soufrière and Vieux Fort. The local climate is tropical, moderated by northeast trade winds,



View of Soufrière

with a dry season from December 1 to May 31, and a wet season from June 1 to November 30.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Saint Lucia

An educated workforce and improvements in roads, communications, water supply, sewerage, and port facilities have attracted foreign investment in tourism and in petroleum storage and transshipment. However, with the U.S., Canada, and Europe in recession, tourism declined by double digits in early 2009. The recent change in the European Union import preference regime and the increased competition from Latin American bananas have made economic diversification increasingly important in Saint Lucia. The island nation has been able to attract foreign business and investment, especially in its offshore banking and tourism industries, which is the island's main source of revenue. The manufacturing sector is the most diverse in the Eastern Caribbean area, and the government is trying to revitalize the banana industry. Despite negative growth in 2011, economic fundamentals remain solid, and GDP growth should recover in the future.



Saint Lucia

Inflation has been relatively low, averaging 5.5 percent between 2006 and 2008. Saint Lucia's currency is the Eastern Caribbean Dollar (EC$), a regional currency shared among members of the Eastern Caribbean Currency Union (ECU). The Eastern Caribbean Central Bank (ECCL) issues the EC$, manages monetary policy, and regulates and supervises commercial banking activities in member countries. In 2003, the government began a comprehensive restructuring of the economy, including elimination of price controls and privatization of the state banana company.[7]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Saint Lucia



Castries is the capital city of Saint Lucia

The population of 174,000(in 2010) is evenly divided between urban and rural areas, although the capital, Castries, contains more than one-third of the population. Saint Lucia's population is predominantly of African and mixed African-European descent, with a small Indo-Caribbean minority (3%). Members of other or

unspecified ethnicity groups, account for about 2% of the population.

The official language is English;[1][2] however Saint Lucian Creole French (Kwéyòl), which is a French-based Creole colloquially referred to as "Patwah" (Patois), is spoken by 95% of the population.[*citation needed*] This Antillean Creole is used in literature and music, and is gaining official acknowledgement.[8] It is derived chiefly from French and West African languages, with some vocabulary from Carib and other sources. Saint Lucia is a member of *La Francophonie*.[9]

Saint Lucia boasts the highest ratio of Nobel laureates produced with respect to the total population of any sovereign country in the world. Two winners have come from Saint Lucia: Sir Arthur Lewis won the Nobel Prize in Economics in 1979, and Derek Walcott received the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1992. Both were born on the same day in 1915 and 1930, respectively: January 23.

About 70% of the population is Roman Catholic, influenced from the days of French Catholic rule and evangelization. Most of the rest belong to other Christian denominations, including Seventh-day Adventisms (7%), Pentecostalism (6%), Anglicanism (2%), Evangelical Christianity (2%), and the Baptist faith; in addition, about 2% of the population adheres to the Rastafari movement.[10]

Despite a high emigration rate, the population is growing rapidly, about 1.2% per year. Migration from Saint Lucia is primarily to Anglophone countries, with the United Kingdom having almost 10,000 Saint Lucian-born citizens, and over 30,000 of Saint Lucian heritage. The second most popular destination for Saint Lucian expatriates is the United States, where combined (foreign and national born Saint Lucians) almost 14,000 reside. Canada is home to a few thousand Saint Lucians. Most other countries in the world have fewer than 50 citizens of Saint Lucian origin (the exceptions being Spain and France with 124 and 117 Saint Lucian expats respectively).[11]

Health

Public expenditure on health was at 3.3 % of the GDP in 2004, whereas private expenditure was at 1.8 %.[12] Health expenditure was at US$ 302 (PPP) per capita in 2004.[12] Infant mortality was at 12 per 100,000 births in 2005.[12] There is one public hospital and one private hospital in St Lucia. There was a second, but it was burnt down in a fire in the early hours of September 9, 2009.[13]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Saint Lucia

See also: Derek Walcott and Music of Saint Lucia

The culture of Saint Lucia has been influenced by African, East Indian, French and English heritage. One of the secondary languages is an Creole, a form of French patois.[1][2]



Saint Lucia Jazz Festival in Castries

Festivals

Saint Lucian cultural festivals include *La Rose* and *La Marguerite*, the first's representing the Rosicrucian order, and the second's representing Freemasonry.[14] This can be seen on a mural painted by Dunstan St

Omer, depicting the holy trinity of Osiris, Horus and Isis.

The biggest festival of the year is the Saint Lucian Jazz Festival. Held in early May at multiple venues throughout the island, it draws visitors and musicians from around the world.

Traditionally in common with other Caribbean countries, Saint Lucia held a carnival before Lent. In 1999, the government moved Carnival to mid-July to avoid competing with the much larger Trinidad and Tobago carnival. It wanted to attract more overseas visitors.

In May 2009, Saint Lucians commemorated the 150th Anniversary of West Indian Heritage on the island.

Music and dance

A popular folk dance is the *Quadrille*.

Together with Caribbean music genres such as Calypso, Soca, Dancehall, Reggae, Compas, Zouk and Salsa, Saint Lucia has a strong indigenous folk music tradition. Each May since 1991, Saint Lucia has hosted an internationally renowned Jazz Festival.

The dancing in Saint Lucia comes from the Caribbean and is quite active.

There Is a very rich culture in Saint Lucia descendance from our Fore fathers.



Cricket is a popular sport in the country.Seen here is the Beausejour Cricket Stadium which hosts international cricket matches for the West Indies

Education

The Education Act provides for free and compulsory education in Saint Lucia from the ages of 5 to 15.[12][15] Public spending on education was at 5.8 % among the 2002–2005 GDP.[12] Saint Lucia has one university; University of the West Indies Open Campus,[16] and a few medical schools – International American University − College of Medicine, Destiny University School of Medicine and Health Sciences, and the oldest of which is Spartan Health Sciences University. The leading secondary school for boys is St Mary's College which taught both Sir Arthur Lewis and Derek Walcott and for girls St. Joseph's Convent, alma mater of Dame Pearlette Louisy, their Governor General.

Tourism

Main article: Tourism in Saint Lucia

Tourism is vital to Saint Lucia's economy. Its economic importance is expected to continue to increase as the market for bananas becomes more competitive. Tourism tends to be more substantial during the dry season (January to April). Saint Lucia tends to be popular due to its tropical weather and scenery and its numerous beaches and resorts.

Other tourist attractions include a drive-in volcano, Sulphur Springs (in Soufrière), the Botanical Gardens, the Majestic twin Peaks "The Pitons", A world heritage site, the rain forests, and Pigeon Island National Park, which is home to Fort Rodney, an old British military base.

The majority of tourists visit Saint Lucia as part of a cruise. Most of their time tends to be spent in Castries, although Soufriere, Marigot Bay and Gros Islet are popular locations to visit.



A panorama of Marigot Bay

Gallery



Gros Piton seen from the Ladera Hotel restaurant – September 2007



Petit Piton seen from the Ladera Hotel restaurant – December 2004



Soufrière Bay – February 2006



Hilltop view of resort – June 2006



Typical sight in Canaries: houses on hills, June 2006



St Lucia beach – February 2006



View from the Le Sport resort – March 2006

See also

- Outline of Saint Lucia
- Index of Saint Lucia-related articles
- Caribbean Sea
- Commonwealth of Nations
- Saint Lucian British
- Windward Islands

History of Saint Lucia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Saint Lucia's first known inhabitants were Arawaks, believed to have come from northern South America around 200-400 CE. Numerous archaeological sites on the island have produced specimens of the Arawaks' well-developed pottery. There is evidence to suggest that these first inhibitors called the island **Iouanalao**, which meant 'Land of the Iguanas', due to the island's high number of iguanas.

Caribs gradually replaced Arawaks during the period from 800 to 1000 CE[*citation needed*] They called the island *Hewanarau*, and later *Hewanorra*. This is the origin of the name of the Hewanorra International Airport in Vieux Fort. The Caribs had a complex society, with hereditary kings and shamans. Their war canoes could hold more than 100 men and were fast enough to catch a sailing ship. They were later feared by the invading Europeans for their ferocity in battle.

Contents

- 1 European invasion
- 2 Early European Contacts
- 3 French Colony
- 4 18th century
- 5 19th century
- 6 20th century to 21st century
- 7 See also
- 8 References

European invasion

Europeans first landed on the island in either 1492 or 1502 during Spain's early exploration of the Caribbean. The Dutch, English, and French all tried to establish trading outposts on St. Lucia in the 17th century but faced opposition from Caribs whose land they were occupying.

Early European Contacts

The French pirate Francois El Clerc (also known as *Jambe de Bois*, due to his wooden leg) frequented Saint Lucia in the 1550s. It was not until years later, around 1600, that the first European camp was started by the Dutch, at what is now Vieux Fort. In 1605, an English vessel called the *Olive Branch* was blown off-course on its way to Guyana, and the 67 colonists started a settlement on Saint Lucia. After five weeks, only 19 survived, due to disease and conflict with the Caribs, so they fled the island. The French officially claimed the island in 1635 but it was the English who started the next European settlement in 1639, which was wiped out by the Caribs

French Colony

In 1643 a French expedition under the direction of Jacques du Parquet the Governor of Martinique established a

permanent settlement on the island under the Govenor De Rousselan who took a Carib wife and remained in post until his death in 1654.

In 1664, Thomas Warner (son of the governor of St Kitts) claimed Saint Lucia for England. He brought 1,000 men to defend it from the French, but after two years, only 89 survived, mostly due to disease. In 1666 the French administration returned and resumed control of the island. For years after this, the island was officially traded back and forth between the English and the French in various treaties, as a bargaining chip in negotiations although the French settlements remained and the island was a de facto French Colony well into the eighteenth century.

18th century

Political control from 1674-1814[1]

Date	Country
1674	French crown colony
1723	Neutral territory (agreed by Britain and France)
1743	French colony (Sainte Lucie)
1748	Neutral territory (de jure agreed by Britain and France)
1756	French colony (Sainte Lucie)
1762	British occupation
1763	Restored to France
1778	British occupation
1783	Restored to France
1796	British occupation
1802	Restored to France
1803	British occupation
1814	British possession confirmed

The English, with their headquarters in Barbados, and the French, centered on Martinique, found St Lucia attractive after the sugar industry developed. The French assumed ownership again of Saint Lucia by the Treaty of Paris in 1763 and introduced the sugar cane industry in 1765. Colonists who came over were mostly indentured white servants serving a small percentage of wealthy merchants or nobles.

The Battle of the Saints, in which Admiral Rodney, who sailed out of his port in St. Lucia, defeated the French Admiral De Grasse, took place between the French and British navies during the American War of Independence on 12 April 1782. The British victory ensure their naval dominance of the Caribbean henceforth.



A 1758 map of Saint Lucia

Near the end of the century, the French Revolution occurred. A revolutionary tribunal was sent to Saint Lucia, headed by captain La Crosse. However, prior to this, the slaves had simply walked off their jobs in 1790-1 to work for themselves. Bringing the ideas of the revolution to Saint Lucia, La Crosse set up a guillotine used to execute Royalists. In 1794, the French governor of the island declared that all slaves were free.



December 15, 1778. The 12 French ships of Estaing (left) attacking seven English ships of Admiral Barrington (right). The English fleet was not destroyed because d'Estaing prefers to land its troops on the island.

A short time later, the British invaded in response to the concerns of the wealthy plantation owners. After years

of fighting, they restored slavery. Castries was burned in 1796 as part of that battle between the British and the slaves and French republicans.

19th century

Britain eventually triumphed in 1803, and acquired Saint Lucia permanently in 1814. The British abolished the African slave trade in 1807, three years after former slaves in Haiti had gained their independence as the first black republic in the Caribbean. It was not until 1834 that they abolished the institution of slavery. Even after abolition, all former slaves had to serve a four-year "apprenticeship" which forced them to work for free for their former masters for at least three-quarters of the work week. They achieved full freedom in 1838.

Also in 1838, Saint Lucia was incorporated into the British Windward Islands administration, headquartered in Barbados. This lasted until 1885, when the capital was moved to Grenada.

20th century to 21st century

Increasing self-government has marked St Lucia's 20th century history. A 1924 constitution gave the island its first form of representative government, with a minority of elected members in the previously all-nominated legislative council. Universal adult suffrage was introduced in 1951, and elected members became a majority of the council. Ministerial government was introduced in 1956, and in 1958 St. Lucia joined the short-lived West Indies Federation, a semi-autonomous dependency of the United Kingdom. When the federation collapsed in 1962, following Jamaica's withdrawal, a smaller federation was briefly attempted. After the second failure, the United Kingdom and the six windward and leeward islands—Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, Antigua, St. Kitts and Nevis and Anguilla, and St. Lucia—developed a novel form of cooperation called associated statehood.

As an associated state of the United Kingdom from 1967 to 1979, St. Lucia had full responsibility for internal self-government but left its external affairs and defense responsibilities to the United Kingdom. This interim arrangement ended on February 22, 1979, when St. Lucia achieved full independence. St. Lucia continues to recognize Queen Elizabeth II as titular head of state and is an active member of the Commonwealth of Nations. The island continues to cooperate with its neighbors through the Caribbean community and common market (CARICOM), the East Caribbean Common Market (ECCM), and the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS).

See also

- British colonization of the Americas
- French colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of the British West Indies
- History of North America
- History of the Caribbean
- List of Prime Ministers of Saint Lucia
- Politics of Saint Lucia
- Spanish colonization of the Americas

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Monarchy of Saint Lucia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Saint Lucia** (the **Saint Lucian monarchy**) is a system of government in which a hereditary, constitutional monarch is the sovereign of Saint Lucia. The present monarch of Saint Lucia is Queen Elizabeth II. Saint Lucia share the Sovereign with a number of Commonwealth realms. The Queen's constitutional roles are mostly delegated to the Governor-General of Saint Lucia.

Royal succession is governed by the English Act of Settlement of 1701, which is part of constitutional law.

The present queen Elizabeth II has reigned over the separate Saint Lucian monarchy since 22 February 1979. She along with her husband and other members of the Royal Family undertake various official, ceremonial and representational duties.

Queen of Saint Lucia

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Saint Lucia



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	February 22, 1979

Contents

- 1 International and domestic role
  - 1.1 Development of the monarchy
  - 1.2 Title
  - 1.3 Duties
  - 1.4 Succession
- 2 Legal role
- 3 Royal presence
- 4 References
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  - 5.2 Other

International and domestic role

Fifty-four states are members of the Commonwealth of Nations. Sixteen of these countries are specifically Commonwealth realms who recognise, individually, the same person as their Monarch and Head of State;Saint Lucia is one of these. Despite sharing the same person as their respective national monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms — including Saint Lucia — is sovereign and independent of the others.

As a constitutional monarch Queen Elizabeth II entirely on the advice of her Saint Lucian ministers. The monarch is briefed by regular communication for her Saint Lucian government. Most of the Queen's daily constitutional roles are mostly delegated to the Governor-General of Saint Lucia.[1]

[2] The governor general is appointed entirely upon the advice of her Saint Lucian government. The monarch maintains direct contact with the governor general. The present Governor-General is Her Excellency Dame Pearlette Louisy GCMG.[3]

Development of the monarchy

Control of St Lucia was disputed between the British and French from 1659 until 1814 when it was ceded to the British.[4]

The *Balfour Declaration* of 1926 provided the dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of, in theory, a shared Crown that operates independently in each realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the dominions were secondary. The Monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, legal, and of convenience. The *Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, 1927* was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the *Statute of Westminster, 1931*.

Under the *Statute of Westminster*, Saint Lucia has a common monarchy with Britain and the other Commonwealth realms, and though laws governing the line of succession to the Saint Lucian throne lie within the control of the Saint Lucian Parliament, Saint Lucia cannot change the rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship by means of a constitutional amendment. This situation applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the UK.

The island became self-governing in 1967 and achieved independence in 1979.[5]

Title

In Saint Lucia, the Queen's official title is: *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Saint Lucia and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*.[6]

This style communicates Saint Lucia's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the Monarch's role specifically as Queen of Saint Lucia, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms. Typically, the Sovereign is styled "Queen of Saint Lucia," and is addressed as such when in Saint Lucia, or performing duties on behalf of Saint Lucia abroad.

Duties

Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by the Governor General. The Governor-General represents the Queen on ceremonial occasions such as the opening of Parliament, the presentation of honours and military parades. Under the Constitution, he is given authority to act in some matters, for example in appointing and disciplining officers of the civil service, in proroguing Parliament. As in the other Commonwealth realms, however, the Monarch's role, and thereby the vice-regent's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments operate, and the powers that are constitutionally hers are exercised almost wholly upon the advice of the Cabinet, made up of Ministers of the Crown. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". In exceptional circumstances, however, the Monarch or vice-regal can act against such advice based upon his or her reserve powers.

There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by the Queen. These include: signing the appointment papers of Governors General, the confirmation of awards of honours, and

approving any change in her title.

It is also possible that if the Governor General decided to go against the Prime Minister's or the government's advice, the Prime Minister could appeal directly to the Monarch, or even recommend that the Monarch dismiss the Governor General.

Succession

Succession to the throne is by male-preference primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, as well as the English Bill of Rights. These documents, though originally passed by the Parliament of England, are now part of the Saint Lucian constitutional law, under control of the Saint Lucian parliament only.

This legislation lays out the rules that the Monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As Saint Lucia's laws governing succession are currently identical to those of the United Kingdom (by the *Statute of Westminster*) see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, who has no official title outside of the UK, but is accorded his UK title, Prince of Wales, as a courtesy title.

Legal role

All laws in Saint Lucia are enacted with the sovereign's, or the vice-regal's signature. The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it and proclamation are required for all acts of Parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor General. The Vice-Regals may reserve a bill for the Monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the Monarch to make a personal decision on the bill. The Monarch has the power to disallow a bill (within a time limit specified by the constitution).

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects. The Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the Monarch personally are not cognizable. The Sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In Saint Lucia the legal personality of the State is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Saint Lucia." For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Saint Lucia. The monarch as an individual takes no more role in such an affair than in any other business of government.

Royal presence

Elizabeth II first visited Saint Lucia as part of her Caribbean tour of 1966. During her visit she opened the new Winban Research Centre. The Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh travelled on HMY Britannia. They were treated to traditional Saint Lucian Dances and a firework display. In 1985 The Queen and Duke returned to Saint Lucia: The Queen laid the foundation stone for the new Red Cross headquarters and visited residential homes for the elderly and schools.

Other members have also visited Saint Lucia: In 1979 Princess Alexandra, The Honourable Lady Ogilvy

represented the royal family during the official independence celebrations. The Prince of Wales visited in 1989 to commemorate the tenth anniversary of these celebrations.[7]

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See also

Other realms

- Current Commonwealth realms

Other

- Figurehead
- Prime Ministers of Queen Elizabeth II
- List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II
- Monarchies in the Americas
- List of monarchies

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Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (/seɪnt ˈvɪnsənt æn ðə ɡrɛnəˈdiːnz/) is an island country in the Lesser Antilles chain, namely in the southern portion of the Windward Islands, which lie at the southern end of the eastern border of the Caribbean Sea where the latter meets the Atlantic Ocean.

Its 389-square-kilometre (150 sq mi) territory consists of the main island of Saint Vincent and the northern two-thirds of the Grenadines, which are a chain of smaller islands stretching south from Saint Vincent Island to Grenada.

To the north of Saint Vincent lies Saint Lucia, to the east Barbados. Saint Vincent and the Grenadines is densely populated (over 300 inhabitants/km^2) with its 120,000 people.

Its capital is Kingstown, also its main port. The country has a French and British colonial history and is now part of the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States, CARICOM, the Commonwealth of Nations and the Bolivarian Alliance for the Americas.

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History

Main article: History of Saint Vincent and the

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: *Pax et justitia* (Latin) "Peace and justice"	
Anthem: "Saint Vincent Land so Beautiful"	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Kingstown 13°10′N 61°14′W
Official language(s)	English
Ethnic groups	Black 66% Mixed 19% East Indian 6% European 4% Carib Amerindian 2% Other 3%
Demonym	Vincentian
Government	Parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor-General	Sir Frederick Ballantyne
- Prime Minister	Ralph Gonsalves
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	27 October 1979
Area	
- Total	389 km^2 (198th) 150 sq mi

Grenadines

The island now known as Saint Vincent was originally named *Hairouna (http://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/hairouna)* ("The Land of the Blessed") by the native Caribs. The Caribs aggressively prevented European settlement on Saint Vincent until 1719. Prior to this, formerly enslaved Africans, who had either been shipwrecked or who had escaped from Barbados, Saint Lucia and Grenada and sought refuge in mainland Saint Vincent, intermarried with the Caribs and became known as Garifuna or *Black Caribs*.

Beginning in 1719, French settlers from Martinique gained control of the island and began cultivating coffee, tobacco, indigo, cotton, and sugar on plantations. These plantations were worked by enslaved Africans. In 1763, France ceded control of Saint Vincent to Britain. However, France re-invaded the island in 1779. The French regained control after landing at Calliaqua, near Fort Duvernette. The British then finally regained Saint Vincent under the Treaties of Versailles (1783). These treaties were ancillary treaties to the Treaty of Paris (1783), through which Great Britain officially recognised the end of the American Revolution.

- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- 2008 estimate	120,000 (182nd)
- Density	307/km^2 (39th) 792/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2009 estimate
- Total	$1.069 billion[1]
- Per capita	$9,976[1]
GDP (nominal)	2009 estimate
- Total	$567 million[1]
- Per capita	$5,291[1]
HDI (2007)	▲ 0.772 (medium) (91st)
Currency	East Caribbean dollar (XCD)
Time zone	(UTC-4)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	VC
Internet TLD	.vc
Calling code	+1-784

Between 1783 and 1796, there was conflict between the British and the Black Caribs, who were led by defiant Paramount Chief Joseph Chatoyer. In 1796 British General Sir Ralph Abercromby put an end to the open conflict by crushing a revolt which had been fomented by the French radical Victor Hugues. More than 5,000 Black Caribs were eventually deported to Roatán, an island off the coast of Honduras.

Slavery was abolished in Saint Vincent 1834. An apprenticeship period followed which ended in 1838. After its end, labour shortages on the plantations resulted, and this was initially addressed by the immigration of indentured servants. In the late 1840s many Portuguese immigrants arrived from Madeira and between 1861 and 1888 shiploads of East Indian labourers arrived. Conditions remained harsh for both former slaves and immigrant agricultural workers, as depressed world sugar prices kept the economy stagnant until the turn of the century.

From 1763 until its independence in 1979, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines passed through various stages of colonial status under the British. A representative assembly was authorised in 1776, Crown Colony government was installed in 1877, a legislative council was created in 1925, and universal adult suffrage was granted in 1951.

During the period of its control of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, the British made several unsuccessful attempts to affiliate the island with other Windward Islands. This would have simplified Britain's control over the region through a unified administration. In the 1960s, several regional islands under British control, including Saint Vincent, also made an independent attempt to unify. The unification was to be called the West Indies Federation and was driven by a desire to gain freedom from British rule. The attempt collapsed in 1962.

Saint Vincent was granted "associate statehood" status by Britain on October 27, 1969. This gave Saint Vincent complete control over its internal affairs but was short of full independence. On October 27, 1979, following a referendum under Milton Cato, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines became the last of the Windward Islands to gain independence. Independence came on the 10th anniversary of Saint Vincent's associate statehood status.

Natural disasters have featured in the country's history. In 1902, La Soufrière volcano erupted, killing 2,000 people. Much farmland was damaged, and the economy deteriorated. In April 1979, La Soufrière erupted again. Although no one was killed, thousands were evacuated, and again there was extensive agricultural damage. In 1980 and 1987, hurricanes compromised many banana and coconut plantations. Hurricane seasons were also very active in 1998 and 1999, with Hurricane Lenny in 1999 causing extensive damage to the west coast of the island.

On November 25, 2009, voters were asked to approve a new constitution in a referendum. The new constitution proposed to make the country a republic and replacing Queen Elizabeth II as head of state with a non-executive President. A two-thirds majority was required, but it was defeated by 29,019 votes (55.64 per cent) to 22,493 (43.13 per cent).[2]

Politics

Main article: Politics of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines is a parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy with Queen Elizabeth II as head of state, bearing the title Queen of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. The Queen does not reside in the islands and is represented in the country by the Governor General of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, currently Sir Frederick Ballantyne.

The office of Governor General has mostly ceremonial functions including the opening of the islands' House of Assembly and the appointment of various government officials. Control of the government rests with the elected Prime Minister and his or her cabinet. The current Prime Minister is Ralph Gonsalves. Parliamentary opposition made of the largest minority stakeholder in general elections, headed by the leader of the opposition. The current opposition leader is Arnhim Eustace.

The country has no formal armed forces, although the Royal Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Police Force includes a Special Service Unit as well as a militia that has a supporting role on the island.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines



Kingstown

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines lies to the west of Barbados south of Saint Lucia and north of Grenada in the Windward Islands of the Lesser Antilles, an island arc of the Caribbean Sea. The islands of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines include the main island of Saint Vincent (344 km^2/133 sq mi) and the northern two-thirds of the Grenadines (45 km^2/17 sq mi), which are a chain of small islands stretching south from Saint Vincent to Grenada.

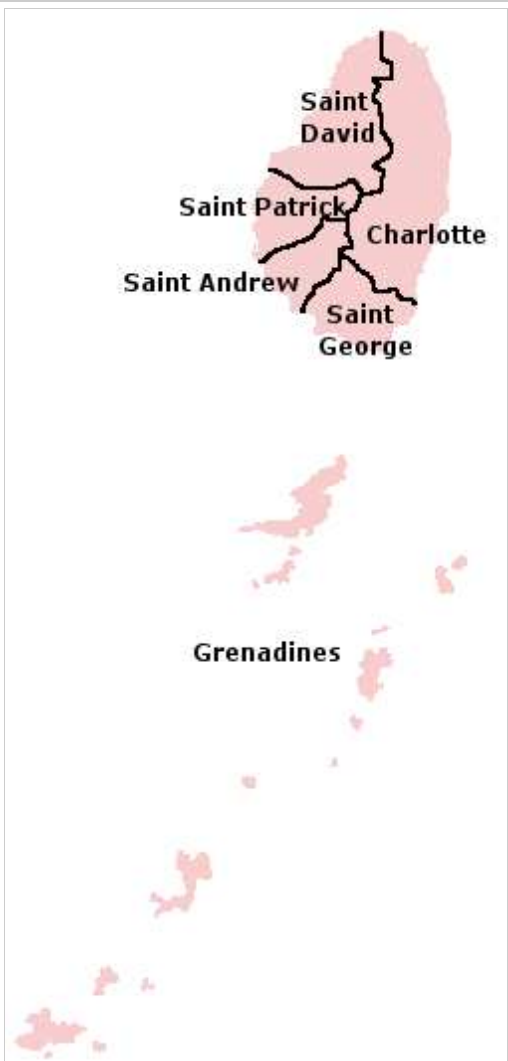
The island of Saint Vincent is volcanic and includes little level ground. The leeward side of the island is very rocky and steep, while the windward side has more sandy beaches and bays.[*citation needed*] The country's highest peak is La Soufrière volcano at 1,234 m (4,049 ft).

Administrative divisions

Main article: Parishes of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

Administratively, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines is divided into six parishes. Five parishes are on Saint Vincent, while the sixth is made up of the Grenadine islands. Kingstown is located in the Parish of Saint George and is the capital city and central administrative centre of the country.

Parish	Area (km²)	Population (2000)	Capital	Density(km²)
Charlotte Parish	149	38,000	Georgetown	255.03/km²
Grenadines Parish	43	9,200	Port Elizabeth	213.95/km²
Saint Andrew Parish	29	6,700	Layou	231.03/km²
Saint David Parish	80	6,700	Chateaubelair	83.75/km²
Saint George Parish	52	52,400	Kingstown	1007.69/km²
Saint Patrick Parish	37	5,800	Barrouallie	156.76/km²



Map exhibiting the six parishes of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

Economy

Main article: Economy of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines


Mustique in the Grenadines.

Agriculture, dominated by banana production, is the most important sector of this lower-middle-income economy. The services sector, based mostly on a growing tourist industry, is also important. The government has been relatively unsuccessful at introducing new industries, and the unemployment rate remains high at 19.8% in the 1991 census[3] to 15% in 2001.[4] The continuing dependence on a single crop represents the biggest obstacle to the islands' development as tropical storms wiped out substantial portions of crops in many years.

The tourism sector has considerable potential for development. The recent filming of the Pirates of the Caribbean movies on the island has helped to expose the country to more potential visitors and investors. Recent growth has been stimulated by strong activity in the construction sector and an improvement in tourism.[5]

An international airport is currently under construction. There is a small manufacturing sector and a small offshore financial sector whose particularly restrictive secrecy laws have caused some international concern. [*citation needed*] In addition, the natives of Bequia are permitted to hunt up to four Humpback Whales per year under IWC subsistence quotas.

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

The population as established in July 2009 was 104,574. The ethnic composition was 66% African descent, 20% of mixed descent, 6% East Indian, 4% Caucasian (mainly Portuguese), 2% Carib Amerindian and 2% others according to the CIA Handbook *de dato* October 9, 2008. Most Vincentians are the descendants of African people brought to the island to work on plantations. There are other ethnic groups such as Portuguese (from Madeira) and East Indians, both brought in to work on the plantations after the abolishing of slavery by the British, and Syrians[*citation needed*] living on the island. There is also a growing Chinese population.[*citation needed*]



Port Elizabeth, Bequia.

Languages

Main article: Vincentian Creole

While the official language is English, most Vincentians speak a creole language known as Vincentian Creole.[6][7] Standard English is the language used in education, government and other formal domains, while Vincentian Creole, commonly referred to as 'dialect', is used in informal situations such at home and among friends. The various ethnic groups may also still use their native languages such as Bhojpuri.[*citation needed*]

Sport

See also: Cricket in the West Indies

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines has its own soccer league, the NLA Premier League, and also a national (association) football team. A notable Vincentian footballer is Ezra Hendrickson, former national team captain who played at several Major League Soccer clubs in the United States and is now an assistant coach with the Seattle Sounders FC.[8]

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines also has its own national rugby union team which is ranked 73rd in the world.

Music

Main article: Music of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

Music popular in Saint Vincent and the Grenadine includes big drum, calypso, soca, steelpan and reggae. String band music, quadrille and bele music and traditional storytelling are also popular.

The national anthem of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines is "Saint Vincent Land so Beautiful", adopted upon independence in 1979.

Communications

In 2010, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines had 21,700 telephone land lines. Its land telephone system is fully automatic and covers the entire island and all of the inhabited Grenadine islands.[4] In 2002, there were 10,000 mobile phones.[9] By 2010, this number had increased to 131,800.[4] Mobile phone service is available in most areas of Saint Vincent as well as the Grenadines.

The country has only ten FM radio stations. It has one television broadcast station ZBG-TV (SVGTV)[10] and one cable television provider.

The country has two ISPs, Digicel and LIME, that provide cellular telephone and internet service.[11]

See also

- Outline of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
- Index of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines-related articles
- Commonwealth of Nations

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History of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia



Kingstown, St. Vincent, 1890s

Before the arrival of Europeans and Africans in the 16th century, various Amerindian groups passed through or settled on St. Vincent and the Grenadines, including the Ciboney, Arawak, and Carib peoples. These groups likely originated in the Orinoco Valley of South America and migrated north through Trinidad and the Lesser Antilles. By the time Christopher Columbus passed near St. Vincent on his fourth voyage in 1502, the Caribs occupied the island after displacing the Arawaks a few centuries earlier.

Columbus and the Spanish conquistadors largely ignored St. Vincent and the smaller Grenadine islands nearby, but focused instead on the pursuit of gold and silver in Central and South America. They did embark on slaving expeditions in and around St. Vincent following royal sanction in 1511, driving the Carib inhabitants to the rugged interior, but the Spanish made no attempt to settle the island.[1] Carib Indians aggressively prevented European settlement on St. Vincent until the 18th century. African slaves, whether shipwrecked or escaped from St. Lucia or Grenada and seeking refuge in St. Vincent, intermarried with the Caribs and became known as "black Caribs". Now those of mixed African-Carib ancestry are known as *Garifuna*.

While the English were the first to lay claim to St. Vincent in 1627, the French would be the first European settlers on the island when they established their first colony at Barrouallie on the Leeward side of St. Vincent in 1719.[2] The French settlers cultivated coffee, tobacco, indigo, corn, and sugar on plantations worked by African slaves. St. Vincent was ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Paris (1763), restored to French rule in 1779 and regained by the British under the Treaty of Versailles (1783).

Conflict between the British and the black Caribs continued until 1796, when General Abercrombie crushed a revolt fomented by the French radical Victor Hugues. The British deported more than 5,000 black Caribs to Roatán, an island off the coast of Honduras.

From 1763 until independence, St. Vincent passed through various stages of colonial status under the British. A representative assembly was authorized in 1776. Decades after the success of the Haitian Revolution, the British abolished slavery in 1834. The resulting labour shortages on the plantations attracted Portuguese immigrants in the 1840s and East Indians in the 1860s as laborers. Conditions remained harsh for both former slaves and immigrant agricultural workers, as depressed world sugar prices kept the economy stagnant until the turn of the century.

A Crown Colony government was installed in 1877, a Legislative Council created in 1925, and universal adult suffrage granted in 1951.

During this period, the British made several unsuccessful attempts to affiliate St. Vincent with other Windward Islands in order to govern the region through a unified administration. The most notable was the West Indies Federation, which collapsed in 1962.

St. Vincent was granted associate statehood status on October 27, 1969, giving it complete control over its internal affairs. Following a referendum in 1979, St. Vincent and the Grenadines became the last of the Windward Islands to gain independence. It celebrates independence on 27 October 1979.

Natural disasters have plagued the country throughout the 20th century. In 1902, Soufrière volcano erupted, killing 2,000 people. Much farmland was damaged, and the economy deteriorated. In April 1979, La Soufriere erupted again. Although no one was killed, thousands had to be evacuated, and there was extensive agricultural damage. The island also suffers from hurricanes. On September 11, 1898, six hours of a terrible hurricane devastated Barrouallie, which was almost completely destroyed. More recently, in 1980 and 1987, hurricanes devastated banana and coconut plantations; 1998 and 1999 also saw very active Hurricane seasons, with hurricane Lenny in 1999 causing extensive damage to the west coast of the island.

Contents

- 1 See also
- 2 References
- 3 Further Reading
- 4 External links

See also

- British colonization of the Americas
- French colonization of the Americas
- History of the Americas
- History of the British West Indies
- History of North America
- History of the Caribbean
- List of Prime Ministers of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
- Politics of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
- Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
- Spanish colonization of the Americas

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Monarchy of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines** is the constitutional system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign and head of state of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines,[2] forming the core of the country's Westminster-style parliamentary democracy. The Crown is thus is the foundation of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of the Vincentian government. While Royal Assent and the royal sign-manual are required to enact laws, letters patent, and orders in council, the authority for these acts stems from the Vincentian populace, and, within the conventional stipulations of constitutional monarchy, the sovereign's direct participation in any of these areas of governance is limited,[2] with most related powers entrusted for exercise by the elected and appointed parliamentarians, the ministers of the Crown generally drawn from amongst them, and the judges and Justices of the Peace.[3][4]

Queen of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	27 October 1979[1]

The Vincentian monarchy has its roots in the French and British crowns, from which it has evolved over numerous centuries to become a distinctly Vincentian institution represented by unique symbols.[2][4] The Vincentian monarch – since 27 October 1979, Elizabeth II – is today shared equally with fifteen other countries within the Commonwealth of Nations, all being independent and the monarchy of each legally distinct. For Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, the monarch is officially titled *Queen of Vincent and the Grenadines*, and she, her consort, and other members of the Royal Family undertake various public and private functions across the country. However, the Queen is the only member of the Royal Family with any constitutional role. While several powers are the sovereign's alone, because she lives predominantly in the United Kingdom, most of the royal constitutional and ceremonial duties in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines are carried out by the Queen's representative, the Governor-General.[4][5]

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- 1 International and domestic aspects
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- 2 Personification of the state
- 3 Constitutional role
  - 3.1 Executive
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- 5 Debate
- 6 See also
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International and domestic aspects

Further information: Commonwealth realm > Relationship of the realms

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines shares the same monarch with each of 15 monarchies in the 54-member Commonwealth of Nations, a grouping known informally as the Commonwealth realms. Upon its independence from the United Kingdom, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines entered into this arrangement that had earlier emerged following the passage of the Statute of Westminster in 1931, since when the pan-national Crown has had both a shared and separate character,[6] and the sovereign's role as monarch of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines has been distinct to his or her position as monarch of the United Kingdom.[2] The monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, though it is still often misnomered as "British" in both legal and common language, for reasons historical, political, and of convenience; this conflicts with not only the Royal Household's recognition and promotion of a distinctly Vincentian Crown,[2] but also the sovereign's distinct Vincentian title, *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith*.

Effective with the Constitution of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, no British or other realm government can advise the sovereign on any matters pertinent to Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, meaning that on all matters of the Vincentian state, the monarch is advised solely by Vincentian Ministers of the Crown.[2] As the monarch lives predominantly outside of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, one of the most important of these state duties carried out on the advice of the Vincentian Prime Minister is the appointment of the viceroy, who is titled as *Governor-General*, and performs most of the Queen's domestic duties in her absence.

Succession

Succession is by male-preference primogeniture governed by both the Act of Settlement, 1701, and Bill of Rights, 1689, legislation that limits the succession to the natural (i.e. non-adopted), legitimate descendants of Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and stipulates that the monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. Though, via adopting the Statute of Westminster, these constitutional laws as they apply to Saint Vincent and the Grenadines now lie within the full control of the Vincentian parliament, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines also agreed not to change its rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship; a situation that applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the United Kingdom, and has been likened to a treaty amongst these countries.[7] Thus, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines' line of succession remains identical to that of the United Kingdom; however, the rules for succession are not fixed, but may be changed within Saint Vincent and the Grenadines by a constitutional amendment by the Vincentian parliament.

Upon a *demise of the Crown* (the death or abdication of a sovereign), the late sovereign's heir immediately and automatically succeeds, without any need for confirmation or further ceremony – hence arises the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!." Following an appropriate period of mourning, the monarch is also crowned in



Charles, Prince of Wales, is the heir apparent to the Vincentian throne.

the United Kingdom in an ancient ritual, but one not necessary for a sovereign to reign.[n 1] After an individual ascends the throne, he or she typically continues to reign until death, being unable to unilaterally abdicate per the tenets of constitutional monarchy.

Personification of the state

As the living embodiment of the Crown, the sovereign is regarded as the personification, or legal personality, of the Vincentian state,[n 2] with the state therefore referred to as *Her Majesty in right of Her Government in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines*,[9] *The Queen (Saint Vincent and the Grenadines)*, or simply *The Queen*.[10] As such, the monarch is the owner of all state property – for instance, prisons in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines are called *Her Majesty's Prisons*[11] – though, this is all in his or her position as sovereign, and not as an individual; all such property is held by the Crown in perpetuity and cannot be sold by the sovereign without the proper advice and consent of his or her ministers.

Constitutional role

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines' constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Vincentian in origin, and together give Saint Vincent and the Grenadines a parliamentary system of government wherein the role of the Queen is both legal and practical. The Crown is regarded as a corporation, with the sovereign, vested as she is with all powers of state,[12] as the centre of a construct in which the power of the whole is shared by multiple institutions of government acting under the sovereign's authority.[13] Though her authority stems from the people, all Vincentians live under the authority of the monarch. The vast powers that belong to the Crown are collectively known as the Royal Prerogative, the exercise of which does not require parliamentary approval, though it is not unlimited; for example, the monarch does not have the prerogative to impose and collect new taxes without the authorization of an Act of Parliament. Also, per convention, the sovereign reigns according to Vincentian law; this is illustrated in the sovereign's Coronation Oath, wherein he or she promises to govern her peoples "according to their respective laws and customs."[14]

The Crown also sits at the pinnacle of the Royal Saint Vincent Police Force. All new recruits into the force must swear allegiance to the monarch as the embodiment of the state and its authority, the oath including the words: "I, [name], do swear that I will well and truly serve Our Sovereign Lady the Queen as a member of the Police Force in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines without favour or affection, malice or ill will; and that I will cause Her Majesty's Peace to be preserved..."[15]

Executive

The government of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines is the Queen's government,[9] and is defined by the constitution as the Queen acting on the advice of her Cabinet[16] – a committee charged with advising the Crown on the exercise of the Royal Prerogative. One of the main duties of the Crown is to appoint a prime minister to thereafter head this group;[17] the Queen is informed by her viceroy of the swearing-in and resignation of prime ministers and other members of the ministry, remains fully briefed through regular communications from her Vincentian ministers, and holds audience with them whenever possible.[4]

In the construct of constitutional monarchy and responsible government, the ministerial advice tendered is typically binding, meaning the monarch *reigns* but does not *rule*; this has been the case in Saint Vincent and the

Grenadines since the Treaty of Paris ended the reign of the territory's last absolute monarch, King Louis XV. It is important to note, however, that the Royal Prerogative belongs to the Crown and not to any of the ministers,[13] and the royal and viceroyal figures may unilaterally use these powers in exceptional constitutional crisis situations.[13] There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by, the Queen; these include applying the royal sign-manual and Great Seal to the appointment papers of governors general, the creation of Vincentian honours, and the approval of any change in her Vincentian title.



Ralph Gonsalves, the Queen's chief minister in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

Parliament

The sovereign is one of the two components of parliament,[18] and all laws are the monarch's laws, as illustrated in the enacting formula for Vincentian acts of parliament, which reads: "BE IT ENACTED by the Queen's Most Excellent Majesty by and with the advice and consent of the House of Assembly of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and by the authority of the same as follows."[19] The monarch and viceroy do not, however, participate in the legislative process, save for the granting of Royal Assent, which is necessary for a bill to be enacted as law.[20]

Courts

The sovereign is responsible for rendering justice for all her subjects, and is thus traditionally deemed the *fount of justice*. However, she does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead the judicial functions of the Royal Prerogative are performed in trust and in the Queen's name by Officers of Her Majesty's Court. Extending from this is the notion in common law that the sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the Queen-in-Council) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the monarch personally are not cognizable. The monarch, and by extension the Governor General, also grants immunity from prosecution, exercises the *Royal Prerogative of Mercy*, and may pardon offences against the Crown, either before, during, or after a trial.

As the judges and courts are the sovereign's judges and courts, and as all law in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines derives from the Crown, the monarch stands to give legitimacy to courts of justice, and is the source of their judicial authority. An image of the Queen and/or the Arms of Her Majesty in Right of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines is always displayed in Vincentian federal courtrooms.

Cultural role

Further information: List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II

Members of the Royal Family undertake official royal tours. Usually important milestones, anniversaries, or celebrations of Vincentian culture will warrant the presence of the monarch – such as when Queen Elizabeth II and her husband, Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, toured the country to mark its anniversary of independence[21] – while other royals will be asked to participate in lesser occasions. Apart from Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, the Queen and other members of the Royal Family regularly perform public duties in the other fifteen nations of the Commonwealth in which the Queen is head of state.

Debate

There had been little debate on the monarchy of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines before Prime Minister Ralph Gonsalves initiated in 2002, the year of Queen Elizabeth's Golden Jubilee, a republican movement against what he deemed to be "the remnants of colonialism," eventuating in a constitutional referendum in 2009, just days before the Queen was in the Caribbean for a Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting. Despite heavy campaigning by the Ministers of the Crown, the referendum was defeated with only 43.13% of voters supporting the idea, well short of the required two-thirds threshold.[22]

See also

- Current Commonwealth realms
- Prime Ministers of Queen Elizabeth II
- List of Commonwealth visits made by Queen Elizabeth II
- Monarchies in the Americas
- List of monarchies

Notes

1. ^ For example, Edward VIII was never crowned, yet was undoubtedly king during his short time on the throne.
2. ^ This is a concept akin to that expressed by King Louis XIV: "*l'État, c'est moi*", or, "I am the state."[8]

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Solomon Islands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Solomon Islands (/ˈsɒləmən ˈaɪləndz/ (listen)[3]) is a sovereign state in Oceania, east of Papua New Guinea, consisting of nearly one thousand islands. It covers a land mass of 28,400 square kilometres (11,000 sq mi). The capital, Honiara, is located on the island of Guadalcanal. The nation of the Solomon Islands is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

The Solomon Islands are believed to have been inhabited by Melanesian people for many thousands of years. Spanish navigator Álvaro de Mendaña was the first European to arrive in Solomon islands in 1568 and named them *Islas Salomón*. The United Kingdom established a protectorate over the Solomon Islands in 1893. In the Second World War there was fierce fighting between the Americans and the Japanese in the Solomon Islands campaign of 1942–45, including the Battle of Guadalcanal.

Self-government was achieved in 1976 and independence two years later. The Solomon Islands is a constitutional monarchy with the Queen of the Solomon Islands, at present Elizabeth II, as the head of state. Gordon Lilo Darcy is the eleventh and current Prime Minister of the Solomon Islands.

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Solomon Islands	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: "To Lead is to Serve"	
Anthem: *God Save Our Solomon Islands*	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Honiara 9°28′S 159°49′E
Official language(s)	English
Ethnic groups (1999)	Melanesian 94.5% Polynesian 3% Micronesian 1.2% other 1.1% unspecified 0.2%
Demonym	Solomon Islander
Government	Constitutional monarchy and parliamentary system
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor General	Frank Kabui
- Prime Minister	Gordon Darcy Lilo
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	7 July 1978
Area	
- Total	28,400 km^2 (142nd) 10,965 sq mi

Name

The country's official name, as established in the *Constitution of Solomon Islands*[3] and as used by government[4][5] as well as by the country's press,[6][7] is "Solomon Islands", with no definite article. Its name is thus reflected in international organisations such as Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands.[8] In other English-speaking countries, however, the definite article is often added.[9]

- Water (%)	3.2%
Population	
- 2009 estimate	523,000[1] (170th)
- Density	18.1/km^2 (189th) 46.9/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2009 estimate
- Total	$1.514 billion[2]
- Per capita	$2,818[2]
GDP (nominal)	2009 estimate
- Total	$657 million[2]
- Per capita	$1,223[2]
HDI (2011)	0.510 (low) (142nd)
Currency	Solomon Islands dollar (SBD)
Time zone	(UTC+11)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	SB
Internet TLD	.sb
Calling code	+677

History

Main article: History of Solomon Islands



Solomon Island warriors with spears in ornamented war canoe in 1895

It is believed that Papuan-speaking settlers began to arrive around 30,000 BC. Austronesian speakers arrived c. 4000 BC also bringing cultural elements such as the outrigger canoe. It is between 1200 and 800 BC that the ancestors of the Polynesians, the Lapita people, arrived from the Bismarck Archipelago with their characteristic ceramics.[10]

The first European to visit the islands was the Spanish navigator Álvaro de Mendaña de Neira, coming from Peru in 1568. The people of Solomon Islands were notorious for headhunting and cannibalism before the arrival of the Europeans.[11]

Missionaries began visiting the Solomons in the mid-19th century. They made little progress at first, because "blackbirding" (the often brutal recruitment or kidnapping of labourers for the sugar plantations in Queensland and Fiji) led to a series of reprisals and massacres. The evils of the labour trade prompted the United Kingdom to declare a protectorate over the southern Solomons in June 1893.[*citation needed*]

In 1898 and 1899, more outlying islands were added to the protectorate; in 1900 the remainder of the archipelago, an area previously under German jurisdiction, was transferred to British administration apart from the islands of Buka and Bougainville, which remained under German administration as part of German New Guinea. Traditional trade and social intercourse between the western Solomon Islands of Mono and Alu (the Shortlands) and the traditional societies in the south of Bougainville, however, continued without hindrance.

Under the protectorate, missionaries settled in the Solomons, converting most of the population to Christianity. In the early 20th century, several British and Australian firms began large-scale coconut planting. Economic growth was slow, however, and the islanders benefited little.

In 1908, the islands were visited by Jack London, who was cruising the Pacific Ocean on his boat, the Snark.

Second World War

Main articles: Solomon Islands campaign and Battle of Guadalcanal

With the outbreak of the Second World War, most planters and traders were evacuated to Australia, and most cultivation ceased. Some of the most intense fighting of the war occurred in the Solomons. The most significant of the Allied Forces' operations against the Japanese Imperial Forces was launched on August 7, 1942, with simultaneous naval bombardments and amphibious landings on the Florida Islands at Tulagi[12] and Red Beach on Guadalcanal.



US marines rest in the field during the Guadalcanal Campaign in 1942.

The Battle of Guadalcanal became an important and bloody campaign fought in the Pacific War as the Allies began to repulse Japanese expansion. Of strategic importance during the war were the coastwatchers operating in remote locations, often on Japanese held islands, providing early warning and intelligence of Japanese naval, army and aircraft movements during the campaign.[13]

Sergeant-Major Jacob Vouza was a notable coastwatcher who after capture refused to divulge Allied information in spite of interrogation and torture by Japanese Imperial forces. He was awarded a Silver Star Medal by the Americans, which is the United States' third-highest decoration for valor in combat. Islanders Biuku Gasa and Eroni Kumana would be noted by National Geographic for being the first to find the shipwrecked John F. Kennedy and his crew of the PT-109. They suggested using a coconut to write a rescue message for delivery by dugout canoe, which was later kept on his desk when he became the president of the United States.

The Solomon Islands was one of the major staging areas of the South Pacific and was home to the famous VMF-214 "Black Sheep" Squadron commanded by Major Greg "Pappy" Boyington. **The Slot** was a name for New Georgia Sound, when it was used by the Tokyo Express to supply the Japanese garrison on Guadalcanal. Of more than 36,000 Japanese on Guadalcanal, about 26,000 were killed or missing, 9,000 died of disease, and 1,000 were captured.[14]



The aircraft carrier USS *Enterprise* (CV-6) under aerial attack during the Battle of the Eastern Solomons.

Independence

Local councils were established in the 1950s as the islands stabilised from the aftermath of the Second World War. A new constitution was established in 1970 and elections were held, although the constitution was contested and a new one was created in 1974. In 1973 the first oil price shock occurred, and the increased cost of running a colony became apparent to British administrators.

Following the independence of neighbouring Papua New Guinea from Australia in 1975, the Solomon Islands gained self government in 1976. Independence was granted on 7 July 1978. The first Prime Minister was Sir Peter Kenilorea, and the Solomon Islands retained the Monarchy.

Civil War

Commonly referred to as *the tensions* or *the ethnic tension*, the initial civil unrest was mainly characterised by fighting between the Isatabu Freedom Movement (also known as the Guadalcanal Revolutionary Army) and the Malaita Eagle Force (as well as the Marau Eagle Force). (Although much of the conflict was between Guales and Malaitans, Kabutaulaka (2001) (http://rspas.anu.edu.au/papers/melanesia/working_papers/tarcisiusworkingpaper.htm) and Dinnen (2002) argue that the 'ethnic conflict' label is an oversimplification.

In late 1998, militants on the island of Guadalcanal commenced and had a campaign of intimidation and violence towards Malaitan settlers. During the next year, thousands of Malaitans fled back to Malaita or to the capital, Honiara

(which, although situated on Guadalcanal, is predominantly populated by Malaitans and Solomon Islanders from other provinces). In 1999, the Malaita Eagle Force (MEF) was established in response.

The reformist government of Bartholomew Ulufa'alu struggled to respond to the complexities of this evolving conflict. In late 1999, the government declared a four month state of emergency. There were also a number of attempts at reconciliation ceremonies but to no avail. He also requested assistance from Australia and New Zealand in 1999 but this was rejected.

In June 2000, Ulufa'alu was kidnapped by militia members of the MEF who felt that although he was a Malaitan, he was not doing enough to protect their interests. Ulufa'alu subsequently resigned in exchange for his release. Manasseh Sogavare, who had earlier been Finance Minister in Ulufa'alu's government but had subsequently joined the opposition, was elected as Prime Minister by 23–21 over Rev. Leslie Boseto. However Sogavare's election was immediately shrouded in controversy because six MPs (thought to be supporters of Boseto) were unable to attend parliament for the crucial vote (Moore 2004, n.5 on p. 174).

In October 2000, the Townsville Peace Agreement,[15] was signed by the Malaita Eagle Force, elements of the IFM and the Solomon Islands Government. This was closely followed by the Marau Peace agreement in February 2001, signed by the Marau Eagle Force, the Isatabu Freedom Movement, the Guadalcanal Provincial Government and the Solomon Islands Government. However, a key Guale militant leader, Harold Keke, refused to sign the Agreement, causing a split with the Guale groups. Subsequently, Guale signatories to the Agreement led by Andrew Te'e joined with the Malaitan-dominated police to form the 'Joint Operations Force'. During the next two years the conflict moved to the Weathercoast of Guadalcanal as the Joint Operations unsuccessfully attempted to capture Keke and his group.

New elections in December 2001 brought Sir Allan Kemakeza into the Prime Minister's chair with the support of his People's Alliance Party and also the Association of Independent Members. Law and order deteriorated as the nature of the conflict shifted: there was continuing violence on the Weathercoast while militants in Honiara increasingly turned their attention to crime and extortion. The Department of Finance would often be surrounded by armed men when funding was due to arrive. In December 2002, Finance Minister Laurie Chan resigned after being forced at gunpoint to sign a cheque made out to some of the militants. Conflict also broke out in Western Province between locals and Malaitan settlers. Renegade members of the Bougainville Revolutionary Army (BRA) were invited in as a protection force but ended up causing as much trouble as they prevented.

The prevailing atmosphere of lawlessness, widespread extortion and ineffective police prompted a formal request by the Solomon Islands Government for outside help. With the country bankrupt and the capital in chaos, the request was unanimously supported in Parliament.

In July 2003, Australian and Pacific Island police and troops arrived in the Solomon Islands under the auspices of the Australian-led Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI). A sizable international security contingent of 2,200 police and troops, led by Australia and New Zealand, and with representatives from about 20 other Pacific nations began arriving the next month under Operation Helpem Fren. Since this time some commentators have considered the country a failed state.[16] However, other academics argue that rather than being a 'failed state', it is an unformed state: a state that never consolidated after decades since independence.[17]

In April 2006, allegations that the newly elected Prime Minister Snyder Rini had used bribes from Chinese businessmen to buy the votes of members of Parliament led to mass rioting in the capital Honiara. A deep underlying resentment against the minority Chinese business community led to much of Chinatown in the city being destroyed. Tensions had also been increased by the belief that large sums of money were being exported to China. China sent chartered aircraft to evacuate hundreds of Chinese who fled to avoid the riots. Evacuation of Australian and British citizens was on a much smaller scale. Further Australian, New Zealand and Fijian police and troops were dispatched to try to quell the unrest. Rini eventually resigned before facing a motion of no-confidence in Parliament, and Parliament elected Manasseh Sogavare as Prime Minister.

2007 earthquake and tsunami

Main article: 2007 Solomon Islands earthquake and tsunami

On 2 April 2007, the Solomon Islands were struck by a major earthquake followed by a large tsunami. Initial reports indicated that the tsunami, which mainly affected the small island of Gizo, was several metres high (perhaps as high as 10 metres (33 ft) according to some reports, 5 metres (16 1/3 ft) according to the Foreign Office). The tsunami was triggered by an 8.1 magnitude earthquake, with a hypocenter 349 kilometres (217 miles) northwest of the island's capital, Honiara, at Lat −8.453 Long 156.957 and at a depth of 10 kilometres (6.2 miles).[18]

According to the United States Geologic Survey the earthquake struck at 20:39:56 UTC on Sunday, 1 April 2007. Since the initial event and up until 22:00:00 UTC on Wednesday, 4 April 2007, more than 44 aftershocks of a magnitude of 5.0 or greater were recorded in the region.

The death toll from the resulting tsunami was at least 52 people, and the tsunami destroyed more than 900 homes and has left thousands of people homeless.[19]

Land thrust from the quake has extended out from the shoreline of one island, Ranongga, by up to 70 metres (230 ft) according to local residents.[20] This has left many once pristine coral reefs exposed on the newly formed beaches.

Politics

Main article: Politics of the Solomon Islands

The Solomon Islands is a constitutional monarchy and has a parliamentary system of government. Queen Elizabeth II is the Monarch of the Solomon Islands and the head of state; she is represented by the Governor-General who is chosen by the Parliament for a five-year term. There is a unicameral parliament of 50 members, elected for four-year terms. However, Parliament may be dissolved by majority vote of its members before the completion of its term.



The National Parliament building was a gift from the United States.

Parliamentary representation is based on single-member constituencies. Suffrage is universal for citizens over age 21.[21] The head of government is the Prime Minister, who is elected by Parliament and chooses the other members of the cabinet. Each ministry is headed by a cabinet member, who is assisted by a permanent secretary, a career public servant, who directs the staff of the ministry.

Solomon Islands governments are characterized by weak political parties (see List of political parties in Solomon Islands) and highly unstable parliamentary coalitions. They are subject to frequent votes of no confidence, and government leadership changes frequently as a result. Cabinet changes are common.

Land ownership is reserved for Solomon Islanders. The law provides that resident expatriates, such as the Chinese and Kiribati, may obtain citizenship through naturalization. Land generally is still held on a family or village basis and may be handed down from mother or father according to local custom. The islanders are reluctant to provide land for nontraditional economic undertakings, and this has resulted in continual disputes over land ownership.

No military forces are maintained by the Solomon Islands, although a police force of nearly 500 includes a border protection unit. The police also are responsible for fire service, disaster relief, and maritime surveillance. The police force is headed by a commissioner, appointed by the governor-general and responsible to the prime minister. On 27 December 2006, the Solomon Islands Government said it had taken steps to prevent the country's Australian police chief from returning to the Pacific nation. On 12 January 2007, Australia replaced its top diplomat expelled from the Solomon Islands for political interference in a conciliatory move aimed at easing a four-month dispute between the two countries.

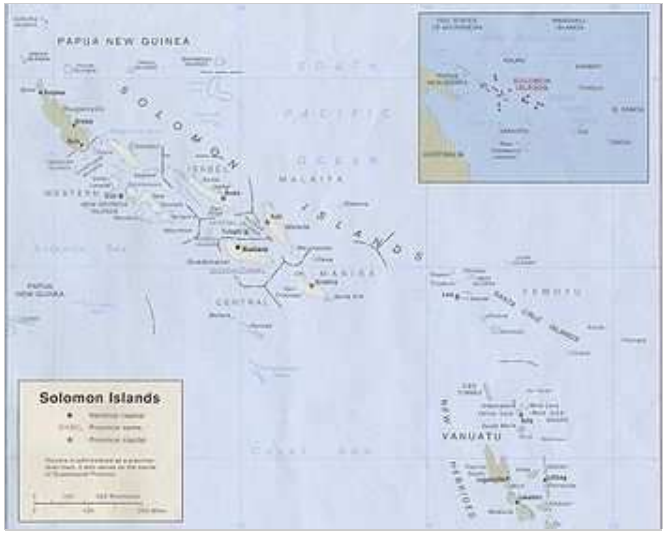
On 13 December 2007, Prime Minister Manasseh Sogavare was toppled by a vote of no confidence in Parliament,[22] following the defection of five Ministers to the Opposition. It was the first time a Prime Minister lost office in this way in the Solomon Islands. On 20 December, Parliament elected the Opposition's candidate (and former Minister for Education) Derek Sikua as Prime Minister, with 32 votes to 15.[23][24]

Provinces

Main article: Provinces of the Solomon Islands

For local government, the country is divided into 10 administrative areas, of which nine are provinces administered by elected provincial assemblies, and the 10th is the town of Honiara, administered by the Honiara Town Council.

1. Central
2. Choiseul
3. Guadalcanal
4. Isabel
5. Makira-Ulawa
6. Malaita
7. Rennell and Bellona
8. Temotu
9. Western
10. Honiara City



Provinces of the Solomon Islands, as of 1989 (click to enlarge).

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of the Solomon Islands

Solomon Islands is a member of the United Nations, Commonwealth, South Pacific Commission, South Pacific Forum, International Monetary Fund, and the European Union/African, Caribbean, and Pacific (ACP) countries (EEC/ACP) (Lomé Convention).

The political stage of the Solomon Islands is further influenced by its diplomatic importance to the Republic of China and the People's Republic of China. The Solomon Islands gives diplomatic recognition to the ROC, recognizing it as the sole-legitimate government of all of China, giving Taiwan vital votes in the United Nations. Lucrative investments, political funding and preferential loans from both the ROC and PRC are increasingly manipulating the political landscape of the Solomon Islands.

Relations with Papua New Guinea, which had become strained because of an influx of refugees from the Bougainville rebellion and attacks on the northern islands of the Solomon Islands by elements pursuing Bougainvillean rebels, have been repaired. A peace accord on Bougainville confirmed in 1998 has removed the armed threat, and the two nations regularized border operations in a 2004 agreement.

Military

Although the locally recruited British Solomon Islands Protectorate Defence Force was part of Allied forces taking part in fighting in the Solomons during the Second World War, the country has not had any regular military forces since independence. The various paramilitary elements of the Royal Solomon Islands Police Force (RSIPF) were disbanded in 2003 following the intervention of the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI), and the RSIPF was

disarmed. RAMSI has a small military detachment headed by an Australian commander with responsibilities for assisting the police element of RAMSI in internal and external security. The RSIPF still operates two Pacific class patrol boats (RSIPV *Auki* and RSIPV *Lata*), which constitute the de facto navy of the Solomon Islands.

In the long-term it is anticipated that the RSIPF will resume the defense role. The police force is headed by a commissioner, appointed by the governor general and responsible to the Minister of Police, National Security & Correctional Services.

The police budget of the Solomon Islands has been strained due to a four-year civil war. Following Cyclone Zoe's strike on the islands of Tikopia and Anuta in December 2002, Australia had to provide the Solomon Islands government with 200,000 Solomon dollars ($50,000 Australian) for fuel and supplies for the patrol boat *Lata* to sail with relief supplies. (Part of the work of RAMSI includes assisting the Solomon Islands Government to stabilise its budget.)

Geography

Main article: Geography of the Solomon Islands


The Solomon Islands from the air.

The Solomon Islands is an island nation that lies east of Papua New Guinea and consists of many islands: Choiseul, the Shortland Islands; the New Georgia Islands; Santa Isabel; the Russell Islands; Nggela (the Florida Islands); Malaita; Guadalcanal; Sikaiana; Maramasike; Ulawa; Uki; Makira (San Cristobal); Santa Ana; Rennell and Bellona; the Santa Cruz Islands and three remote, tiny outliers, Tikopia, Anuta, and Fatutaka.

The country's islands lie between latitudes 5° and 13°S, and longitudes 155° and 169°E. The distance between the westernmost and easternmost islands is about 1,500 kilometres (930 mi). The Santa Cruz Islands (of which Tikopia is part), are situated north of Vanuatu and are especially isolated at more than 200 kilometres (120 mi) from the other islands. Bougainville is geographically part of the Solomon Islands, but politically Papua New Guinea.

The islands' ocean-equatorial climate is extremely humid throughout the year, with a mean temperature of 27 °C (80 °F) and few extremes of temperature or weather. June through August is the cooler period. Though seasons are not pronounced, the northwesterly winds of November through April bring more frequent rainfall and occasional squalls or cyclones. The annual rainfall is about 3050 mm (120 in).

The Solomon Islands archipelago is part of two distinct terrestrial ecoregions. Most of the islands are part of the Solomon Islands rain forests ecoregion, which also includes the islands of Bougainville and Buka, which are part of Papua New Guinea, these forests have come under pressure from forestry activities. The Santa Cruz Islands are part of the Vanuatu rain forests ecoregion, together with the neighboring archipelago of Vanuatu. Soil quality ranges from extremely rich volcanic (there are volcanoes with varying degrees of activity on some of the larger islands) to relatively infertile limestone. More than 230 varieties of orchids and other tropical flowers brighten the landscape.

The islands contain several active and dormant volcanoes. The Tinakula and Kavachi volcanoes are the most active.

Economy

Main article: Economy of the Solomon Islands

Its per capita GDP of $600 ranks Solomon Islands as a lesser developed nation, and more than 75% of its labour force is engaged in subsistence and fishing. Most manufactured goods and petroleum products must be imported. Until 1998,

when world prices for tropical timber fell steeply, timber was Solomon Islands' main export product, and, in recent years, Solomon Islands forests were dangerously overexploited. Other important cash crops and exports include copra and palm oil. In 1998 Ross Mining of Australia began producing gold at Gold Ridge on Guadalcanal. Minerals exploration in other areas continued. However in the wake of the ethnic violence in June 2000, exports of palm oil and gold ceased while exports of timber fell. The islands are rich in undeveloped mineral resources such as lead, zinc, nickel, and gold.

Solomon Islands' fisheries also offer prospects for export and domestic economic expansion. However, a Japanese joint venture, Solomon Taiyo Ltd., which operated the only fish cannery in the country, closed in mid-2000 as a result of the ethnic disturbances. Though the plant has reopened under local management, the export of tuna has not resumed. Negotiations are underway that may lead to the eventual reopening of the Gold Ridge mine and the major oil-palm plantation.

Tourism, particularly diving, is an important service industry for Solomon Islands. Growth in that industry is hampered, however, by lack of infrastructure and transportation limitations.

The Solomon Islands Government was insolvent by 2002. Since the RAMSI intervention in 2003, the government has recast its budget. It has consolidated and renegotiated its domestic debt and with Australian backing, is now seeking to renegotiate its foreign obligations. Principal aid donors are Australia, New Zealand, the European Union, Japan, and the Republic of China.

Recently, the Solomons courts have re-approved the export of live dolphins for profit, most recently to Dubai, United Arab Emirates. This practice was originally stopped by the government in 2004 after international uproar over a shipment of 28 live dolphins to Mexico. The move has resulted in criticism from both Australia and New Zealand as well as several conservation organisations.

Energy

A team of renewable energy developers working for the Pacific Islands Applied Geoscience Commission (SOPAC) and funded by the Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership (REEEP), have hatched a scheme that enables these communities to access renewable energy, such as solar, without raising substantial sums of ready cash. They also use water and wind power. If the islanders were not able to pay for solar lanterns with cash, reasoned the project developers, they can pay with crops.[25]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of the Solomon Islands

As of 2006, the majority 552,438 people on the Solomon Islands are ethnically Melanesian (94.5%). Polynesian (3%) and Micronesian (1.2%) are the two other significant groups.[26] There are a few thousand ethnic Chinese.[27]

The number of local languages listed for Solomon Islands is 74, of which 70 are living languages and 4 are extinct, according to *«Ethnologue, Languages of the World»*.[28] On the central islands, Melanesian languages (predominantly of the Southeast Solomonic group) are spoken. On the outliers, Rennell and Bellona to the south, Tikopia, Anuta and Fatutaka to the far east, Sikaiana to the north east, and Luaniua to the north (Ontong Java Atoll, also known as Lord Howe Atoll), Polynesian languages are spoken. Immigrant populations of Gilbertese (i-Kiribati) and Tuvaluans speak Micronesian languages. While English is the official language, only 1–2% of the population speak English; the lingua franca is Solomons Pijin.

Health

Female life expectancy at birth was at 66.7 years and male life expectancy at birth at 64.9 in 2007.[29] 1990–1995

fertility rate was at 5.5 births per woman.[29] Government expenditure on health per capita was at US$ 99 (PPP).[29] Healthy life expectancy at birth is at 60 years.[29]

Religion

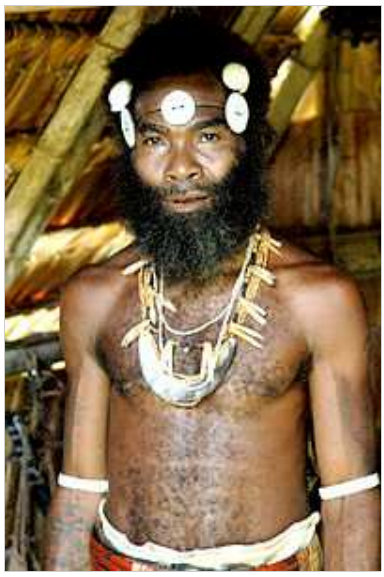
Main article: Religion in the Solomon Islands

The religion of Solomon Islands is about 97% Christian with following denominations: the Anglican Church of Melanesia 32.8%, Roman Catholic 19%, South Seas Evangelical Church 17%, Seventh-day Adventist 11.2%, United Church 10.3%, Christian Fellowship Church 2.4%, other Christian 4.4%. The remaining 2.9% practice indigenous religious beliefs.[30] According to the most recent reports, Islam in the Solomon Islands is made up of approximately 350 Muslims,[31] including members of the Ahmadiyya Muslim Community.[32]

Culture

Main article: Culture of the Solomon Islands

In the traditional culture of the Solomon Islands, age-old customs are handed down from one generation to the next, allegedly from the ancestral spirits themselves, to form the cultural values of the Solomon Islands.


A Malaitan Chief.

Radio is the most influential type of media in the Solomons Islands due to language differences, illiteracy,[33] and the difficulty of receiving television signals in some parts of the country. The Solomon Islands Broadcasting Corporation (SIBC) operates public radio services, including the national stations *Radio Happy Isles* and *Wantok FM*, and the provincial stations *Radio Happy Lagoon* and, formerly, *Radio Temotu*. There is one commercial station, PAOA FM, that broadcasts in the Solomons.

There is one daily newspaper *Solomon Star (www.solomonstarnews.com)* and one daily online news website *Solomon Times Online (www.solomontimes.com (http://www.solomontimes.com))*, 2 weekly papers *Solomons Voice* and *Solomon Times*, and 2 monthly papers *Agrikalsa Nius* and the *Citizen's Press*. There are no TV services based in the Solomon Islands, although satellite TV stations can be received. There is free-to-air access to ABC Asia Pacific (from Australia's ABC) and BBC World News.

Solomon Islands writers include the novelists Rexford Orotaloa and John Saunana and the poet Jully Makini.

See also: Music of the Solomon Islands

Sport

See also: Rugby union in the Solomon Islands

Solomon Islands national teams in football and related sports (futsal and beach soccer) have proved among the most successful in Oceania.

The Solomon Islands national football team became the first team to beat New Zealand into qualifying for a play-off spot against Australia for qualification to the World Cup 2006. They were defeated 7–0 in Australia and 2–1 at home.

On 14 June 2008, the Solomon Islands national futsal team, the Kurukuru, won the Oceania Futsal Championship in Fiji

to qualify them for the 2008 FIFA Futsal World Cup, which was held in Brazil from 30 September to 19 October 2008. Solomon Islands is the futsal defending champions in the Oceania region. In 2008 and 2009 the Kurukuru won the Oceania Futsal Championship in Fiji. In 2009 they defeated the host nation Fiji, 8–0, to claim the title. The Kurukuru currently hold the world record for the fastest ever goal scored in an official futsal match. It was set by Kurukuru captain Elliot Ragomo, who scored against New Caledonia three seconds into the game in July 2009.[34] They also, however, hold the less enviable record for the worst defeat in the history of the Futsal World Cup, when in 2008 they were beaten by Russia with two goals to thirty-one.[35]

The Solomon Islands' beach soccer team, the Bilikiki Boys, are statistically the most successful team in Oceania. They have won all three regional championships to date, thereby qualifying on each occasion for the FIFA Beach Soccer World Cup. The Bilikiki Boys are ranked fourteenth in the world as of 2010, higher than any other team from Oceania.[36]

In January 2011, the Bilikiki Boys played the Kurukuru in a friendly beach soccer match. The Bilikiki won 4–1. Previously, the two teams had met for a friendly futsal match, which the Kurukuru had won 5–3.[37][38]

The Solomon Islands national rugby union team has been playing internationals since 1969. It took part in the Oceania qualifying tournament for the 2003 and 2007 Rugby World Cups, but failed to qualify on each occasion.

Education

Education in the Solomon Islands is not compulsory and only 60 per cent of school-age children have access to primary education.[39][40]

From 1990 to 1994, the gross primary school enrolment rose from 84.5 percent to 96.6 percent.[39] Primary school attendance rates were unavailable for the Solomon Islands as of 2001.[39] While enrolment rates indicate a level of commitment to education, they do not always reflect children's participation in school.[39] Efforts and plans made by the Department of Education and Human Resource Development to expand educational facilities and increase enrolment have been hindered by a lack of government funding, misguided teacher training programs, poor coordination of programs, and a failure of the government to pay teachers.[39] The percentage of the government's budget allocated to education was 9.7 percent in 1998, down from 13.2 percent in 1990.[39]

Male educational attainment tends to be higher than female educational attainment.[40] The University of the South Pacific has a Campus in Solomon Islands while the University of Papua New Guinea has also established a foothold in the country at Guadalcanal.[41]

See also

- Outline of the Solomon Islands
- Lau Lagoon
- LGBT rights in the Solomon Islands
- States headed by Elizabeth II

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History of the Solomon Islands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The human history of the Solomon Islands, in the Melanesia subregion of Oceania in the western Pacific Ocean, spans over 30,000 years.

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- 2 European exploration
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The Solomon Islands in Oceania.

Original Natives

The human **history of the Solomon Islands** begins with the first Papuans settlement at least 30,000 years ago from New Guinea. They represented the furthest expansion of humans into the Pacific until the expansion of Austronesian-language speakers through the area around 4000 BC, bringing new agricultural and maritime technology. Most of the languages spoken today in the Solomon Islands derive from this era, but some thirty languages of the pre-Austronesian settlers survive *(see East Papuan languages)*.



Two warriors in battle dress (1895)

There are preserved numerous pre-European cultural monuments in Solomon Islands, notably Bao megalithic shrine complex (13th century AD), Nusa Roviana fortress and shrines (14th - 19th century), Vonavona Skull island - all in Western province. Nusa Roviana fortress, shrines and surrounding villages served as a hub of regional trade networks in 17th - 19th centuries. Skull shrines of Nusa Roviana are sites of legends. Better known is Tiola shrine - site of legendary stone dog which turned towards the direction where enemy of Roviana was coming from.[1] This complex of archaeological monuments characterises fast development of local Roviana culture, through trade and head hunting expeditions turning into regional power in 17th - 18th

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centuries.[2]

European exploration

Ships of the Spanish explorer Álvaro de Mendaña de Neira first sighted Santa Isabel island on 6 February 1568. Finding signs of alluvial gold on Guadalcanal, Mendaña believed he had found the source of King Solomon's wealth, and consequently named the islands "The Islands of Solomon". In 1595 and 1605 Spain again sent several expeditions to find the islands and establish a colony, however these were unsuccessful. In 1767 Captain Philip Carteret rediscovered the Santa Cruz Islands and Malaita. Later, Dutch, French and British navigators visited the islands; their reception was often hostile.

Colonization

Sikaiana, then known as the Stewart Islands, was annexed to the Hawaiian Kingdom in 1856.

Missionary activity then started at the mid 19th century and European colonial ambitions led to the establishment of a German Protectorate over the Northern Solomons, following an Anglo-German Treaty of 1886. A British Solomon Islands Protectorate over the southern islands was proclaimed in June 1893. German interests were transferred to the United Kingdom under the Samoa Tripartite Convention of 1899, in exchange for recognition of the German claim to Western Samoa.

World War II

Main articles: Solomon Islands campaign and Guadalcanal Campaign

Japanese forces occupied the Solomon Islands in January 1942. The counter-attack was led by the United States; the 1st Division of the US Marine Corps landed on Guadalcanal and Tulagi in August 1942. Some of the bitterest fighting of World War II took place on the islands for almost three years.



American B-17 bombers over Gizo.

Tulagi, the seat of the British administration on the island of Nggela Sule in Central Province was destroyed in the heavy fighting following landings by the US Marines. Then the tough battle for Guadalcanal, which was centred on the capture of the airfield, Henderson field, led to the development of the adjacent town of Honiara as the United States logistics centre.

Biuku Gasa and Eroni Kumana

Islanders Biuku Gasa (deceased 2005) and Eroni Kumana (Gizo) were Allies scouts during the war. They became famous when they were noted by National Geographic for being the first men to find the shipwrecked John F. Kennedy and his crew of the PT-109 using a traditional dugout canoe. They suggested the idea of using a coconut which was later kept on the desk of the president to write a rescue message for delivery. Their names had not been credited in most movie and historical accounts, and they were turned back before they could visit President Kennedy's inauguration, though the Australian coastwatcher would also meet the president. They were visited by a member of the Kennedy family in 2002, where they still lived in traditional huts without electricity.

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War consequences

The impact of the war on islanders was profound. The destruction caused by the fighting and the longer-term consequences of the introduction of modern materials, machinery and western cultural artefacts, transformed traditional isolated island ways of life. The reconstruction was slow in the absence of war reparations and with the destruction of the pre-war plantations, formerly the mainstay of the economy. Significantly, Solomon Islanders experience as labourers with the Allies led some to a new appreciation of the importance of economic organisation and trade as the basis for material advancement. Some of these ideas were put into practice in the early post-war political movement "Maasina Ruru" - often corrupted to "Marching Rule".[17]

Towards independence

Stability was restored during the 1950s, as the British colonial administration built a network of official local councils. On this platform Solomon Islanders with experience on the local councils started participation in central government, initially through the bureaucracy and then, from 1960, through the newly established Legislative and Executive Councils. Positions on both Councils were initially appointed by the High Commissioner of the British Protectorate but progressively more of the positions were directly elected or appointed by electoral colleges formed by the local councils. The first national election was held in 1964 for the seat of Honiara, and by 1967 the first general election was held for all but one of the 15 representative seats on the Legislative Council (the one exception was the seat for the Eastern Outer Islands, which was again appointed by electoral college).

Elections were held again in 1970 and a new constitution was introduced. The 1970 constitution replaced the Legislative and Executive Councils with a single Governing Council. It also established a 'committee system of government' where all members of the Council sat on one or more of five committees. The aim of this system was to reduce divisions between elected representatives and the colonial bureaucracy, provide opportunities for training new representatives in managing the responsibilities of government. It was also claimed that this system was more consistent with the Melanesian style of government, however this was quickly undermined by opposition to the 1970 constitution and the committee system by elected members of the council. As a result, a new constitution was introduced in 1974 which established a standard Westminster form of government and gave the Islanders both Chief Ministerial and Cabinet responsibilities. Solomon Mamaloni became the country's first Chief Minister in July 1974.

Independence

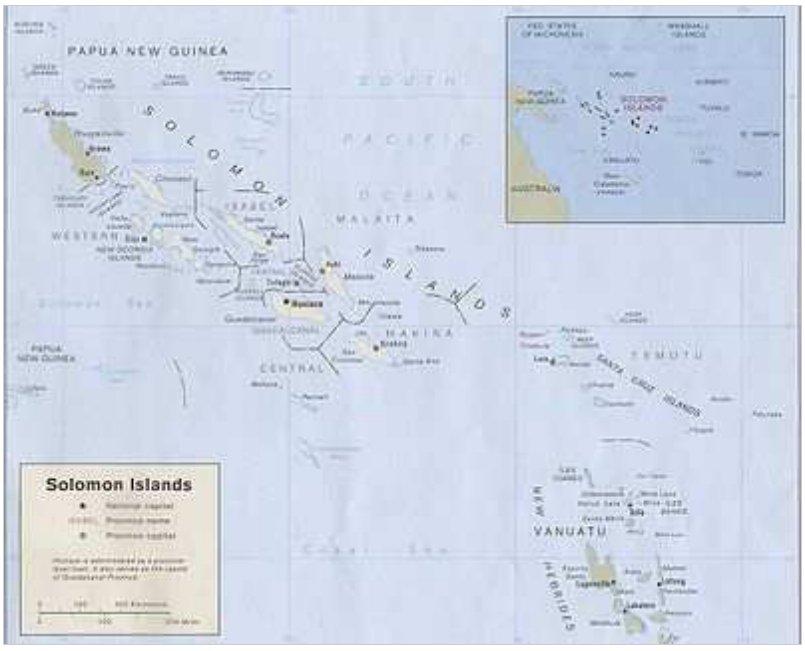
Even as late as 1970, the British Protectorate did not envisage independence for Solomon Islands in the foreseeable future but shortly thereafter, the financial costs of supporting the Protectorate became more trying, as the world economy was hit by the first oil price shock of 1973. The imminent independence of Papua New Guinea (in 1975) was also thought to have influenced the Protectorate's administrators, however, outside of a very small educated elite in Honiara, there was little in the way of an indigenous independence movement in Solomons. Nonetheless, self-government was achieved in January 1976 and after July 1976, Sir Peter Kenilorea became the Chief Minister who would lead the country to independence. This was achieved on 7 July 1978 and Kenilorea automatically became the country's first Prime Minister.

Civil war

In early 1999 long-simmering tensions between the local Gwale people on Guadalcanal and more recent migrants from the neighbouring island of Malaita erupted into violence. The ‘Guadalcanal Revolutionary Army’, later called Isatabu Freedom Movement (IFM), began terrorising Malaitans in the rural areas of

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them leave their homes. About 20,000 Malaitans fled to the capital and others returned to their home island; Gwale residents of Honiara fled. The city became a Malaitan enclave.



The Solomon Islands, circa 1989 (click to enlarge).

Meanwhile, the Malaita Eagle Force (MEF) was formed to uphold Malaitan interests. The Government appealed to the Commonwealth Secretary General for assistance. The Honiara Peace Accord was agreed on 28 June 1999. Despite this apparent success the underlying problems remained unresolved. The accord soon broke down and fighting broke out again in June 2000.

Malaitans took over some armouries at their home island and Honiara and helped by that, on 5 June 2000 the MEF seized the parliament by force. Through their spokesman Andrew Nori, they claimed that the government of the then Prime Minister, Bartholomew Ulufa'alu, had failed to secure compensation for loss of Malaitan life and property. Ulufa'alu was forced to step down.

On 30 June 2000 Parliament elected by a narrow margin a new Prime Minister, Manasseh Sogavare. He established a Coalition for National Unity, Reconciliation and Peace, which released a program of action focused on resolving the ethnic conflict, restoring the economy and distributing the benefits of development more equally. However, Sogavare's government was deeply corrupt and its actions led to the downward economic spiral and the deterioration of law and order.

The conflict was foremost about access to land and other resources and was centered around Honiara. Since the beginning of the civil war it is estimated that 100 have been killed. About 30,000 refugees, mainly Malaitans, had to leave their homes, and economic activity on Guadalcanal was severely disrupted.

Continuing civil unrest led to an almost complete breakdown in normal activity: civil servants remained unpaid for months at a time, and cabinet meetings had to be held in secret to prevent local warlords from interfering. The security forces were unable to reassert control, largely because many police and security personnel are associated with one or another of the rival gangs.

In July 2003 the Governor General of Solomon Islands issued an official request for international help, which was subsequently endorsed by a unanimous vote of the parliament. Technically, only the Governor General's request for troops was necessary. However, the government then passed legislation to provide the international force with greater powers and resolve some legal ambiguities.

On 6 July 2003, in response to a proposal to send 300 police and 2,000 troops from Australia, New Zealand, Fiji and Papua New Guinea to Guadalcanal, warlord Harold Keke announced a ceasefire by faxing a signed copy of the announcement to the Solomons Prime Minister, Allan Kemakeza. Keke ostensibly leads the Guadalcanal Liberation Front, but has been described as marauding bandit based on the isolated southwestern coast (Weather Coast) of Guadalcanal. Despite this ceasefire, on 11 July 2003 the Solomon Islands Broadcasting Corporation broadcast unconfirmed reports that supporters of Harold Keke razed two villages.

In mid-July 2003, the Solomons parliament voted unanimously in favour of the proposed i

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international force began gathering at a training facility in Townsville. In August 2003, an international peacekeeping force, known as the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI) and Operation Helpem Fren, entered the islands. Australia committed the largest number of security personnel, but with substantial numbers also from other South Pacific Forum countries such as New Zealand, Fiji, and Papua New Guinea (PNG). It acts as an interim police force and is responsible for restoring law and order in the country because the Royal Solomon Islands Police force failed to do so for a variety of reasons. Peacekeeping forces have been successful in improving the country's overall security conditions, including brokering the surrender of a notorious warlord Harold Keke in August 2003.

In 2009, the government is scheduled to set up a Truth and Reconciliation Commission, with the assistance of South African Archbishop Desmond Tutu, to "address people's traumatic experiences during the five year ethnic conflict on Guadalcanal".[3][4]

The government continues to face serious problems, including an uncertain economic outlook, deforestation, and malaria control. At one point, prior to the deployment of RAMSI forces, the country was facing a serious financial crisis. While economic conditions are improving, the situation remains unstable.

Cyclones

In 1992, Cyclone Tia struck the island of Tikopia, wiping out most housing and food crops. In 1997, the Government asked for help from the USA and Japan to clean up more than 50 sunken World War II shipwrecks polluting coral reefs and killing marine life.

In December 2002, Severe Tropical Cyclone Zoe struck the island of Tikopia and Anuta, cutting off contact with the 3,000 inhabitants. Due to funding problems, the Solomon Islands government could not send relief until the Australian government provided funding.

See also

- History of Oceania
- List of Prime Ministers of the Solomon Islands
- Politics of the Solomon Islands

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Monarchy of the Solomon Islands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of the Solomon Islands** is a system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the sovereign of the Solomon Islands. The present monarch of the Solomon Islands is Queen Elizabeth II. The Solomon Islands share the Sovereign with a number of Commonwealth realms. The Queen's constitutional roles have been almost entirely delegated to the Governor-General of the Solomon Islands. Royal succession is governed by the English Act of Settlement of 1701, which is part of constitutional law.

The country has been working on a new constitution for several years now, and a constitutional convention was expected to finish their work in October 2008.[1] The draft from 2004 declared the Solomon Islands a republic, and it is expected that this change will be part of the final new constitution.[2]

Queen of the Solomon Islands

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of the Solomon Islands



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	July 7, 1978

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- 1 International and domestic role
  - 1.1 Development of shared monarchy
  - 1.2 Title
- 2 Constitutional role
  - 2.1 Duties
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International and domestic role

One of the most complicated features of the Solomon Island monarchy is that it is a shared monarchy.

54 states are members of the Commonwealth of Nations. Sixteen of these countries are specifically Commonwealth realms who recognise, individually, the same person as their Monarch and Head of State; the Solomon Islands is one of these. Despite sharing the same person as their respective national monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms — including the Solomon Islands — is sovereign and independent of the others.

Development of shared monarchy

The *Balfour Declaration* of 1926 provided the dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of, in theory, a shared Crown that operates independently in each

realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the dominions were secondary. The Monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both legal and common language) for reasons historical, legal, and of convenience. The *Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, 1927* was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the *Statute of Westminster, 1931*.

Under the *Statute of Westminster*, the Solomon Islands have a common monarchy with Britain and the other Commonwealth realms, and though laws governing the line of succession to the Solomon Island throne lie within the control of the Solomon Island Parliament, Solomon Island cannot change the rules of succession without the unanimous consent of the other realms, unless explicitly leaving the shared monarchy relationship by means of a constitutional amendment. This situation applies symmetrically in all the other realms, including the UK.

On all matters of the Solomon Island State, the Monarch is advised solely by Solomon Island ministers.

Title

In the Solomon Islands, the Queen's official title is: *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of the Solomon Islands and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*.

This style communicates the Solomon Islands's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the Monarch's role specifically as Queen of the Solomon Islands, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms. Typically, the Sovereign is styled "Queen of the Solomon Islands," and is addressed as such when in the Solomon Islands, or performing duties on behalf of the Solomon Islands abroad.

Constitutional role

The Solomon Islands constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Solomon Islands in origin, which gives the Solomon Islands a similar parliamentary system of government as the other Commonwealth realms.

All powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the Monarch, who is represented by the Governor-General of the Solomon Islands — appointed by the Monarch upon the advice of the National Parliament of the Solomon Islands. The Monarch is informed of the Prime Minister's decision before the Governor General gives Royal Assent.

Duties

Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by the Governor General. The Governor-General represents the Queen on ceremonial occasions such as the opening of Parliament, the presentation of honours and military parades. Under the Constitution, he is given authority to act in some matters, for example in appointing and disciplining officers of the civil service, in proroguing Parliament. As in the other Commonwealth realms, however, the Monarch's role, and thereby the vice-regent's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments operate, and the powers that are constitutionally hers are exercised almost wholly upon the advice of the Cabinet, made up of Ministers of the Crown. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". In exceptional circumstances, however, the Monarch or vice-regal can act against such advice based upon his or her reserve powers.

There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by the Queen. These include: signing the appointment papers of Governors General, the confirmation of awards of honours, and approving any change in her title.

It is also possible that if the Governor General decided to go against the Prime Minister's or the government's advice, the Prime Minister could appeal directly to the Monarch, or even recommend that the Monarch dismiss the Governor General.

Succession

Succession to the throne is by male-preference primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, as well as the English Bill of Rights. These documents, though originally passed by the Parliament of England, are now part of the Solomon Islands constitutional law, under control of the Solomon Islands parliament only.

This legislation lays out the rules that the Monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As Solomon Islands's laws governing succession are currently identical to those of the United Kingdom (by the *Statute of Westminster*) see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, who has no official title outside of the UK, but is accorded his UK title, Prince of Wales, as a courtesy title.

Legal role

All laws in the Solomon Islands are enacted with the sovereign's, or the vice-regal's signature. The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it and proclamation are required for all acts of Parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor General. The Vice-Regals may reserve a bill for the Monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the Monarch to make a personal decision on the bill. The Monarch has the power to disallow a bill (within a time limit specified by the constitution).

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects. The Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the Monarch personally are not cognizable. The Sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In the Solomon Islands the legal personality of the State is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of the Solomon Islands." For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Solomon Islands. The monarch as an individual takes no more role in such an affair than in any other business of government.

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Tuvalu

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Tuvalu (/tuːˈvɑːluː/ (listen) *too-vah-loo* or /ˈtuːvəluː/ *too-və-loo*), formerly known as the **Ellice Islands**,[2] is a Polynesian island nation located in the Pacific Ocean, midway between Hawaii and Australia. It comprises four reef islands and five true atolls spread out from 6° to 10° south.[3] Its nearest neighbours are Kiribati, Nauru, Samoa and Fiji. Its population of 10,544 makes it the third-least populous sovereign state in the world, with only Vatican City and Nauru having fewer inhabitants. In terms of physical land size, at just 26 square kilometres (10 sq mi) Tuvalu is the fourth smallest country in the world, larger only than the Vatican City at 0.44 km^2 (0.17 sq mi), Monaco at 1.98 km^2 (0.76 sq mi) and Nauru at 21 km^2 (8.1 sq mi).

The first inhabitants of Tuvalu were Polynesian people. In 1568 Spanish navigator Álvaro de Mendaña sailed through the islands and is understood to have sighted Nui during his expedition in search of Terra Australis. In 1819 the island of Funafuti was named Ellice's Island; the name Ellice was applied to all nine islands after the work of English hydrographer Alexander George Findlay (1812–1876).[4] The islands came under Britain's sphere of influence in the late 19th century, when the Ellice Islands were declared a British protectorate by Captain Gibson, R. N. of HMS *Curaçao* between 9th and 16 October 1892. The Ellice Islands were administered as British protectorate by a Resident Commissioner from 1892 to 1916 as part of the British Western Pacific Territories (BWPT), and later as part of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands colony from 1916 to 1974.

In 1974, the Ellice Islanders voted for separate British dependency status. As a consequence Tuvalu separated from the Gilbert Islands which became Kiribati. Tuvalu became fully independent within the Commonwealth on October 1, 1978. On September 5, 2000, Tuvalu became the 189th member of the United Nations.

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- 1 History
  - 1.1 Trading firms and traders

Tuvalu



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: *"Tuvalu mo te Atua"* (Tuvaluan)
"Tuvalu for the Almighty"

Anthem: *Tuvalu mo te Atua* (Tuvaluan)
Tuvalu for the Almighty
Royal anthem: *God Save the Queen*



Capital	Funafuti 8°31′S 179°13′E
Official language(s)	Tuvaluan English
Demonym	Tuvaluan
Government	Parliamentary democracy (Constitutional monarchy)
- Monarch	Elizabeth II
- Governor General	Iakoba Italeli
- Prime Minister	Willy Telavi
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	1 October 1978
Area	
- Total	26 km^2 (226th) 10 sq mi

- 1.2 Scientific expeditions and travellers
- 2 Politics
- 3 Defence and law enforcement
- 4 Districts
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- 14 See also
- 15 References
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- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- July 2011 estimate	10,544[1] (224th)
- Density	475.88/km^2 (22nd) 1,142/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 (est.) estimate
- Total	$36 million (223rd)
- Per capita	$3,400 (2010 est.) (164)
HDI (2003)	n/a (unranked) (n/a)
Currency	Tuvaluan dollar Australian dollar (AUD)
Time zone	(UTC+12)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	TV
Internet TLD	.tv
Calling code	688

History

Main article: History of Tuvalu



Tuvaluan man in traditional costume drawn by Alfred Agate in 1841 during the United States Exploring Expedition.

The first inhabitants of Tuvalu were Polynesians so that the origins of the people of Tuvalu is addressed in the theories regarding the spread of humans out of Southeast Asia, from Taiwan, via Melanesia and across the Pacific islands to create Polynesia. During pre-European-contact times there was frequent canoe voyaging between the nearer islands including Tonga and Samoa.[5] Eight of the nine islands of Tuvalu were inhabited; thus the name, Tuvalu, means "eight standing together" in Tuvaluan. Possible evidence of fire in the Caves of Nanumanga may indicate human occupation for thousands of years.

The stories as to the ancestors of the Tuvaluans vary from island to island. On Funafuti and Vaitupu the founding ancestor is described as being from Samoa;[6] [7] whereas on Nanumea the founding ancestor is described as being from Tonga.[6]

Tuvalu was first sighted by Europeans in 1568 with the voyage of Álvaro de Mendaña de Neira from Spain who is understood to have sighted the island of Nui, which he named *Isla de Jesus* (Island of Jesus) but was unable to land. Keith S. Chambers and Doug Munro (1980) identify Niutao as the island that Francisco Antonio Mourelle named on May 5,

1781 thus solving what Europeans had called *The Mystery of Gran Cocal*.[8][9] Mourelle's map and journal named the island *El Gran Cocal* ('The Great Coconut Plantation'); however, the latitude and longitude was uncertain.[9]

The next European to visit was Arent Schuyler de Peyster, of York, captain of the armed brigantine or privateer *Rebecca*, sailing under British colours,[10] which passed through the southern Tuvalu waters in May 1819; de Peyster sighted Nukufetau and Funafuti, which he named Ellice's Island after an English Politician, Edward Ellice, the Member of Parliament for Coventry and the owner of the Rebecca's cargo.[9] In 1820 the Russian explorer Mikhail Lazarev visited Nukufetau as commander of the *Mirny*.[9] Following 1819 whalers were roving the Pacific though visiting Tuvalu only infrequently because of the difficulties of landing ships on the atolls. No settlements were established by the whalers.[9]

Peruvian slave raiders ("blackbirders") seeking workers to mine the guano deposits on the Chincha Islands in Peru, combed the Pacific between 1862 and 1865, including the southern islands of Tuvalu.[11] The Rev. A. W. Murray,[12] the earliest European missionary in Tuvalu, reported that in 1863 about 180 people[13] were taken from Funafuti and about 200 were taken from Nukulaelae[14] as there were fewer than 100 of the 300 recorded in 1861 as living on Nukulaelae.[15][16]

Christianity first came to Tuvalu in 1861 when Elekana, a deacon of a Congregational church in Manihiki, Cook Islands became caught in a storm and drifted for 8 weeks before landing at Nukulaelae.[9] Elekana began proselytizing Christianity. He was trained in a London Missionary Society school in Samoa before beginning his work in establishing the Church of Tuvalu.[9] In 1865 the Rev. A. W. Murray of the London Missionary Society – a Protestant congregationalist missionary society – arrived as the first European missionary where he too proselytized among the inhabitants of Tuvalu. By 1878 the Church of Tuvalu was well established with preachers on each island.[9]

Trading firms and traders



A man from the Nukufetau atoll, drawn by Alfred Agate 1841.

Trading companies became active in Tuvalu in the mid-nineteenth century; the trading companies engaged palagi traders who lived on the islands. Some islands would have competing traders while dryer islands might only have a single trader.[17] In 1892, Captain Davis of the HMS *Royalist*, reported on trading activities and traders on each of the islands visited.[18] Captain Davis identified the following traders in the Ellice Group: Edmund Duffy (Nanumea); Jack Buckland (Niutao); Harry Nitz (Vaitupu); John (also known as Jack) O'Brien (Funafuti); Alfred Restieaux and Fenisot (Nukufetau); and Martin Kleis (Nui).[19] During this time, the greatest number of palagi traders lived on the atolls, acting as agents for the trading companies.[17]

In the later 1890s and into first decade of the 20th century, structural changes occurred in the operation of the Pacific trading companies; trading companies moved from a practice of having traders resident on each island to instead becoming a business operation where the supercargo (the cargo manager of a trading ship) would deal directly with the islanders when a ship visited an island. From 1900, the numbers of palagi traders in Tuvalu declined with the last of the palagi traders being Fred Whibley on Niutao and Alfred Restieaux on Nukufetau. By 1909 there were no more resident palagi traders representing the trading companies,[20] although both Fred Whibley and Alfred Restieaux[21] remained in the islands until their deaths.

Scientific expeditions and travellers

The United States Exploring Expedition under Charles Wilkes visited Funafuti, Nukufetau and Vaitupu in 1841.[22] During this expedition, on Tuvalu, Alfred Thomas Agate, engraver and illustrator, recorded the dress and tattoo patterns of the men of Nukufetau.[23]



Woman on Funafuti, Harry Clifford Fassett (1900)

In 1890, Robert Louis Stevenson, his wife Fanny Vandegrift Stevenson and her son Lloyd Osbourne sailed on the *Janet Nicoll*, a trading steamer owned by Henderson and Macfarlane of Auckland, New Zealand, which operated between Sydney, Auckland and into the central Pacific.[24] The *Janet Nicoll* visited Tuvalu;[25] while Fanny records that they made landfall at Funafuti and Niutao, Jane Resture suggests that it was more likely Nukufetau.[26] An account of this voyage was written by Fanny Vandegrift Stevenson and published under the title *The Cruise of the Janet Nichol*,[27] together with photographs taken by Robert Louis Stevenson and Lloyd Osbourne.

In 1894, Count Rudolph Festetics de Tolna, his wife Eila (née Haggin)[28] and her daughter Blanche Haggin visited Funafuti aboard the yacht *Le Tolna*.[29] *Le Tolna* spent several days at Funafuti with the Count photographing men and woman on Funafuti.[30]

The boreholes on Funafuti, at the site now called *David's Drill*, are the result of drilling conducted by the Royal Society of London for the purpose of investigating the formation of coral reefs to determine whether traces of shallow water organisms could be found at depth in the coral of Pacific atolls. This investigation followed the work on the structure and distribution of coral reefs conducted by Charles Darwin in the Pacific. Drilling occurred in 1896, 1897 and 1911. Professor Edgeworth David of the University of Sydney lead the expeditions in 1896 & 1897.[31] Photographers on these trips recorded people, communities and scenes at Funafuti.[32]

Harry Clifford Fassett, captain's clerk and photographer, recorded people, communities and scenes at Funafuti during a visit of *USFC Albatross* when the U.S. Fish Commission was investigating the formation of coral reefs on Pacific atolls in 1900.[33]

Politics

Main article: Politics of Tuvalu

Tuvalu is a Parliamentary Democracy and Commonwealth realm with Queen Elizabeth II serving as the country's head of state and bearing the title Queen of Tuvalu. Since the Queen does not reside in the islands, she is represented in Tuvalu by a Governor General appointed by the Queen upon the advice of the country's elected Prime Minister. The local unicameral Parliament, or *Fale I Fono*, has 15 members and is elected every four years. Its members select a Prime Minister who is the head of government. The Cabinet is appointed by the Governor General on the advice of the Prime Minister.

In addition, each island has its own high-chief, or ulu-aliki, and several sub-chiefs (alikis) and elders. The elders form together an island council of elders or te sina o fenua (literally:"grey-hairs of the land"). In the past, another caste, one of the priests (tofuga), was also amongst the decision-makers. The sina o fenua, aliki and ulu-aliki exercise informal authority at the local level. Ulu-aliki are always chosen based on ancestry. Their powers are

now shared with the pule o kaupule (elected village presidents; one on each atoll).[34] There are no formal political parties and election campaigns are largely based on personal/family ties and reputations.

The highest court in Tuvalu is the High Court; there are eight Island Courts with limited jurisdiction. Rulings from the High Court can be appealed to the Court of Appeal of Tuvalu.[35] From the Court of Appeal there is a right of appeal to Her Majesty in Council, i.e., the Privy Council in London.

Defence and law enforcement

Tuvalu has no regular military forces, and spends no money on the military. Its police force includes a Maritime Surveillance Unit for search and rescue missions and surveillance operations. The police have a Pacific-class patrol boat (HMTSS *Te Mataili*) provided by Australia under the Pacific Patrol Boat Program for use in maritime surveillance and fishery patrol.[36] HMTSS stands for *His/Her Majesty's Tuvaluan State Ship* or *His/Her Majesty's Tuvalu Surveillance Ship*.

See also: Law enforcement in Tuvalu

Districts

Main article: Islands of Tuvalu

Tuvalu's small population is distributed across nine islands, five of which are atolls. The smallest island, Niulakita, was uninhabited until it was settled by people from Niutao in 1949.

Local government districts consisting of more than one islet:

- Funafuti
- Nanumea
- Nui
- Nukufetau
- Nukulaelae
- Vaitupu

Local government districts consisting of only one island:

- Nanumanga
- Niulakita
- Niutao



Map of Tuvalu.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Tuvalu

Tuvalu participates in the work of Secretariat of the Pacific Community, or SPC (sometimes Pacific Community) and is a member of the Pacific Islands Forum, the Commonwealth of Nations and the United Nations. Tuvalu has maintained a mission at the United Nations in New York City since 2000. Tuvalu is a member of the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank.

Tuvalu maintains close relations with Fiji, New Zealand, Australia, Japan, South Korea, the United Kingdom and the European Union. It has diplomatic relations with the Republic of China (Taiwan); the ROC maintains the only resident embassy in Tuvalu and has a large assistance programme in the islands.

A major international priority for Tuvalu in the UN, at the 2002 Earth Summit in Johannesburg, South Africa and in other international fora, is promoting concern about global warming and the possible sea level rising. Tuvalu advocates ratification and implementation of the Kyoto Protocol. In December 2009 the islands stalled talks on climate change at the United Nations Climate Change Conference in Copenhagen, fearing some other developing countries were not committing fully to binding deals on a reduction in carbon emissions. Their chief negotiator stated, "Tuvalu is one of the most vulnerable countries in the world to climate change and our future rests on the outcome of this meeting."[37] Tuvalu participates in the operations of the Pacific Islands Applied Geoscience Commission (SOPAC) and the Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Program (SPREC).[38]

Tuvalu is party to a treaty of friendship with the United States, signed soon after independence and ratified by the U.S. Senate in 1983, under which the United States renounced prior territorial claims to four Tuvaluan islands (Funafuti, Nukefetau, Nukulaelae and Niulakita) under the Guano Islands Act of 1856.[39]

Tuvalu participates in the operations of the Pacific Island Forum Fisheries Agency.[40] The Tuvaluan government, the US government, and the governments of other Pacific islands, are parties to the South Pacific Tuna Treaty (SPTT), entered into force in 1988. The current SPTT agreement expires on June 14, 2013.[41] Tuvalu is also a member of the Parties to the Nauru Agreement which addresses the management of tuna purse-seine fishing in the tropical western Pacific.[42]

Geography and environment

Main article: Geography of Tuvalu


A beach at Funafuti atoll.

Tuvalu consists of three reef islands and six true atolls. Its small, scattered group of atolls have poor soil and a total land area of only about 26 square kilometres (less than 10 sq. mi) making it the fourth smallest country in the world. The islets that form the atolls are very low lying. Nanumanga, Niutao, Niulakita are reef islands and the six true atolls are Funafuti, Nanumea, Nui, Nukufetau, Nukulaelae and Vaitupu. Funafuti is the largest atoll of the nine low reef islands and atolls that form the Tuvalu volcanic island chain. It comprises numerous islets around a central lagoon that is approximately 25.1 kilometres (15.6 miles) (N–S) by 18.4 kilometres (11.4 miles) (W-E), centred on 179°7’E and 8°30’S. On the atolls, an annular reef rim surrounds the lagoon with several natural reef channels.[43]

The eastern shoreline of Funafuti Lagoon was modified during World War II when the airfield (what is now Funafuti International Airport) was constructed. Several piers were also constructed, beach areas were filled and deep water access channels were excavated. These alterations to the reef and shoreline resulted in changes to wave patterns with less sand accumulating to form the beaches as compared to former times and the shoreline now exposed to wave action. Several attempts to stabilize the shoreline have not achieved the desired effect.[44] The reefs at Funafuti have suffered damage, with 80 per cent of the coral becoming bleached as a consequence

of the increase in ocean temperatures and acidification from increased levels of carbon dioxide.[45] A reef restoration project has investigated reef restoration techniques;[46] and researchers from Japan have investigated rebuilding the coral reefs through the introduction of foraminifer.[47]

The highest elevation is 4.6 metres (15 ft) above sea level on Niulakita,[48] which gives Tuvalu the second-lowest maximum elevation of any country (after the Maldives). However, the highest elevations are typically in narrow storm dunes on the ocean side of the islands which are prone to over topping in tropical cyclones, as occurred with Tropical Cyclone Bebe.[49][50]

Because of the low elevation, the islands that make up this nation are threatened by current and future sea level rise.[51] Additionally, Tuvalu is annually affected by king tide events which peak towards the end of the austral summer, and raise the sea level higher than a normal high tide.[52] As a result of historical sea level rise, the king tide events lead to flooding of low lying areas, which is compounded when sea levels are further raised by La Niña effects or local storms and waves. In the future, sea level rise may threaten to submerge the nation entirely as it is estimated that a sea level rise of 20–40 centimetres (8–16 inches) in the next 100 years could make Tuvalu uninhabitable.[53][54]


A wharf and beach at Funafuti atoll

Tuvalu experiences westerly gales and heavy rain from October to March – the period that is known as *Tau-o-lalo*; with tropical temperatures moderated by easterly winds from April to November. Drinking water is mainly obtained from rainwater collected on roofs and stored in tanks. These systems are often poorly maintained, resulting in a lack of water.[55] Aid programmes of Australia and the European Union have been directed to improving the storage capacity on Funafuti and in the outer islands.[56]

The rising population has resulted in an increased demand on fish stocks, which are under stress;[45] although the creation of the Funafuti Conservation Area has provided a fishing exclusion area to help sustain the fish population across the Funafuti lagoon. Population pressure on the resources of Funafuti and inadequate sanitation systems have resulted in pollution.[51][57] The Waste Operations and Services Act of 2009 provides the legal framework for waste management and pollution control projects funded by the European Union directed at organic waste composting in eco-sanitation systems.[58] Plastic waste is also a problem as much imported food and other commodities are supplied in plastic containers or packaging.

When the World War II airfield at Funafuti was constructed, the coral base of the atoll was used as fill to create the runway. The resulting borrow pits impacted the water aquifer. At these pits, the sea water can be seen bubbling up through the porous coral rock to form pools with each high tide.[59][60][61]

Tourism

See also: Funafuti Conservation Area and Public holidays in Tuvalu

The main island of Funafuti is the focus of travelers since the only airport in Tuvalu is the Funafuti International Airport and the island has hotel facilities.[62] Ecotourism is a motivation of travelers to Tuvalu. The Funafuti

Conservation Area consists of 33 square kilometers of ocean, reef, lagoon, channel and six uninhabited islets.[63]

The outer atolls can be visited on the two passenger-cargo ships, *Nivaga II* and *Manu Folau*, which provide round trip visits to the outer islands every three or four weeks.[64] There are no tourist accommodations on the outer atolls.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Tuvalu

From 1996 to 2002, Tuvalu was one of the best performing Pacific Island economies and achieved an average real gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate of 5.6 per cent per annum. Since 2002 economic growth has slowed with GDP of 1.5% in 2008. Tuvalu was exposed to rapid rises in world prices of fuel and food in 2008 with the level of inflation peaking at 13.4%.[65] The International Monetary Fund 2010 Report on Tuvalu estimates that Tuvalu experienced zero growth in its 2010 GDP, after the economy contracted by about 2% in 2009.[66]

Public sector workers make up about two thirds of those formaly employed. Approximately 15% of adult males work as seamen on foreign flagged merchant ships. Tuvaluans are otherwise involved in traditional subsistence agriculture and fishing.

Tuvalu generates income from the Tuvalu Trust Fund, the commercialisation of the '.tv' top layer domain, fishing licences, the sale of stamps and coins, remittances from Tuvaluans living in Australia and New Zealand, and remittances from Tuvaluan sailors employed on overseas ships.[67][68]

In 1998, Tuvalu began deriving revenue from the use of its area code for "900" lines and from the commercialisation of its ".tv" Internet domain name, which is now managed by Verisign.[69]

The Tuvalu Trust Fund was established in 1987 by the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand.[67] The value of the Tuvalu Trust Fund is approximately $100 million.[65][66][70]

Australia and New Zealand continue to contribute capital to the Tuvalu Trust Fund and provide other forms of development assistance.[67][68] The US government is also a major revenue source for Tuvalu, with 1999 payments from the South Pacific Tuna Treaty (SPTT) at about $9 million, which is expected to rise annually. The SPTT entered into force in 1988 with the current SPTT agreement which expires June 14, 2013.[41] Financial support to Tuvalu is also provided by Japan, South Korea and the European Union.[71]

The United Nations designates Tuvalu as a 'Least Developed Country' because of its limited potential for economic development, absence of exploitable resources and its small size and vulnerability to external economic and environmental shocks.[72]

Due to the country's remoteness, tourism does not provide much income; a thousand tourists are estimated to visit Tuvalu annually.[73]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Tuvalu

The country's population has more than doubled since 1980 with a growth rate of 0.702%. The population at the 2002 census was 9,561,[74] and is estimated to reach 10,544 in July 2010.[1] The population of Tuvalu is primarily ofPolynesian ethnicity with approximately 4% of the population being Micronesian.[1] The net migration rate is estimated at −7.02 migrant(s)/1,000 population (2011 est.)[1]

The primary destinations for migration are New Zealand and Australia. New Zealand has an annual quota of 75 Tuvaluans granted work permits under the *Pacific Access Category*, as announced in 2001.[75] The applicants register for the Pacific Access Category (PAC) ballots; the primary criteria is that the principal applicant must have a job offer from a New Zealand employer.[76] Tuvaluans also have access to seasonal employment in the horticulture and viticulture industries in New Zealand under the *Recognised Seasonal Employer* (RSE) Work Policy introduced in 2007 allowing for employment of up to 5,000 workers from Tuvalu and other Pacific islands.[77] Australia and Tuvalu are discussing extending access to the *Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme* to Tuvaluans.[78]

Life expectancy is 62.7 years for males and 66.9 years for females (2011 est.)[1]

The Tuvaluan language is spoken by virtually everyone while a language very similar to Gilbertese is spoken on Nui. English is also an official language but is not spoken in daily use. Parliament and official functions are conducted in Tuvaluan.

The introduction of Christianity ended the worship of ancestral spirits and other deities, along with the power of the *vaka-atua* (the priests of the old religions). Laumua Kofe describes the objects of worship as varying from island to island, although ancestor worship is described by Rev. D.J. Whitmee in 1870 as being common practice.[79] About 97% of Tuvaluans are members of the Church of Tuvalu, a Protestant Christian church. Tuvaluans continue to respect their ancestors within the context of a strong Christian faith.

Other religions practised on the island include Seventh-day Adventist (1.4%), Bahá'í (1%).[1] and the Ahmadiyya Muslim Community (400 members, 0.4%).[80]



A Tuvaluan dancer at Auckland's Pasifika Festival

Culture

Dance and music

See also: Music of Tuvalu

The contemporary style of Tuvaluan music consists of a number of dances, most popularly including *fatele*. The traditional styles of *fakanau* and *fakaseasea*[81] were used to celebrate leaders and other prominent individuals. The Tuvaluan style can be described "as a musical microcosm of Polynesia, where contemporary and older styles co-exist".[81]

Heritage

The traditional community system still survives to a large extent on Tuvalu. Each family has its own task, or

salanga, to perform for the community, such as fishing, house building or defence. The skills of a family are passed on from parents to children.

Most islands have their own *fusi*, community owned shops similar to convenience stores, where canned foods and bags of rice can be purchased. Goods are cheaper and fusis give better prices for their own produce.[34]

Another important building is the *falekaupule*, the traditional island meeting hall,[82] where important matters are discussed and which is also used for wedding celebrations and community activities such as a *fatele* involving music, singing and dancing.[34] *Falekaupule* is also used as the name of the council of elders – the traditional decision making body on each island. Under the Falekaupule Act, *Falekaupule* means "traditional assembly in each island...composed in accordance with the Aganu of each island". *Aganu* means traditional customs and culture.[82]


Canoe carving on Nanumea

Cuisine

The traditional foods eaten in Tuvalu are pulaka, bananas, breadfruit, coconut, seafood (coconut crab, turtle and fish), seabirds (*taketake* or Black Noddy and *akiaki* or White Tern) and pork.[34]

Grown in large pits of composted soil below the water table, Pulaka is the main source for carbohydrates. Seafood provides protein. Bananas and breadfruit are supplemental crops. Coconut is used for its juice, to make other beverages and to improve the taste of some dishes. Pork is eaten mostly at *fateles* (or parties with dancing to celebrate certain events).[34]

Flying fish are caught using a boat, a butterfly net and a spotlight to attract them, for both a source of food and as an exciting activity.[34]

See also: Aquaculture in Tuvalu

Language

Main article: Tuvaluan language

The Tuvaluan language of the Ellicean group is distantly related to all other Polynesian languages such as Hawaiian, Māori, Tahitian, Samoan and Tongan. It is most closely related to the languages spoken on the Polynesian outliers in Micronesia and Northern and Central Melanesia. Tuvaluan has borrowed considerably from Samoan, the language of Christian missionaries in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. There are about 13,000 Tuvaluan speakers worldwide.[83][84] Tuvaluan radio services are operated by the Tuvalu Media Corporation.

Sport and leisure

A traditional sport played in Tuvalu is *kilikiti*, which is similar to cricket.[85] A popular sport specific to Tuvalu is ano, which is played with 2 round balls of 12 cm diameter.[34]

Common sports such as football, volleyball and rugby union are also played in the country as recreational activities. Tuvalu has sports organisations for badminton, basketball, tennis, table tennis, volleyball and weightlifting. A major sporting event is the "Independence Day Sports Festival" held annually on October 1.

Tuvalu has a national football team, which trains at the Vaiaku Stadium in Funafuti. The Tuvalu national football team competes in the Pacific Games and South Pacific Games. The Tuvalu Football Association is an associate member of the Oceania Football Confederation (OFC) and is seeking membership in FIFA.[86]

Tuvalu first participated in the South Pacific Games in 1978 and in the Commonwealth Games in 1998, when a weightlifter attended the games held at Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.[87] Two table tennis players attended the 2002 Commonwealth Games in Manchester, England;[87] Tuvalu entered competitors in shooting, table tennis and weightlifting at the 2006 Commonwealth Games in Melbourne, Australia; and three athletes participated in the 2010 Commonwealth Games in Delhi, India, entering the discus, shot put and weightlifting events.[87]

The Tuvalu Amateur Sport Association was recognised as the Tuvalu National Olympic Committee in July 2007. Tuvalu entered the Olympic Games for the first time at the 2008 Summer Games in Beijing, China, with a weightlifter and two athletes in the men's and women's 100 meter sprints.

At the 2011 Pacific Games held in New Caledonia, Tuvaluan weightlifters won two silver medals and one bronze medal.[88]

See also: Tuvalu national football team, Rugby union in Tuvalu, Tuvalu at the Commonwealth Games, and Tuvalu at the 2008 Summer Olympics

Transport



Manu Folau off Vaitupu Harbour

Transport services in Tuvalu are limited. There are about eight kilometres of roads.[1] The streets of Funafuti were paved and lit in mid-2002 but other roads are unpaved. Tuvalu is among a few countries that do not have railroads.

Funafuti is the only port but there is a deep-water berth in the harbour at Nukufetau. The merchant marine fleet consists of two passenger/cargo ships *Nivaga II* and *Manu Folau*. These ships carry cargo and passengers between the main atolls and travel between Suva, Fiji[89] and Funafuti[64] 3 to 4 times a year. The *Nivaga II* and *Manu Folau* provide round trip visits to the outer islands every three or four weeks. The *Manu Folau* is a 50-meter vessel that was a gift from Japan to the people of Tuvalu.

The single airport is Funafuti International Airport. It is a tarred strip. Air Pacific, the owner of Fiji Airlines (trading as Pacific Sun) operates services between Suva (originating from Nadi) and Funafuti with a 40-seat plane, twice a week.

Education

Education in Tuvalu is free and compulsory between the ages of 6 and 15 years. Each island has a primary school. The secondary school is located on Vaitupu. Students board at the school during the school term, returning to their home islands each school vacation.

Required attendance at school is 10 years for males and 11 years for females (2001).[1] The adult literacy rate is 99.0% (2002).[66]

The Tuvaluan Employment Ordinance (1966) sets the minimum age for paid employment at 14 years and prohibits children under the age of 15 from performing hazardous work.[90]

El Niño and La Niña effects and the effects of climate change

Main article: Climate change in Tuvalu



Funafuti

At its highest, Tuvalu is only 4.6 metres (15 ft) above sea level, and Tuvaluan leaders have been concerned about the effects of rising sea levels for some years.[91] [92] Whether there are measurable changes in the sea level relative to the islands of Tuvalu is a contentious issue.[93] There were problems associated with the pre-1993 sea level records from Funafuti which resulted in improvements in the recording technology to provide more reliable data for analysis.[94] The degree of uncertainty as to estimates of sea level change relative to the islands of Tuvalu is reflected in the conclusions made in 2002 from the available data.[94] The 2011 report of the *Pacific Climate Change Science Program* published by the Australian Government,[95] concludes: "The sea-level rise near Tuvalu measured by satellite altimeters since 1993 is about 5 mm per year."[96]

Observable transformations over the last ten to fifteen years show Tuvaluans that there have been changes to the sea levels. These include sea water bubbling up through the porous coral rock to form pools at high tide and the flooding of low-lying areas including the airport during spring tides and king tides.[60][61][97]

As low-lying islands lacking a surrounding shallow shelf, the communities of Tuvalu are especially susceptible to changes in sea levela and undissipated storms.[98] It is estimated that a sea level rise of 20–40 centimetres (8–16 inches) in the next 100 years could make Tuvalu uninhabitable.[53][54]

The 2011 report of *Pacific Climate Change Science Program* of Australia concludes, in relation to Tuvalu, that over the course of the 21st century:

• Surface air temperatures and sea-surface temperatures are projected to continually increase (very high confidence).[96]

• Annual and seasonal mean rainfalls are projected to increase (high confidence).[96]

• The intensity and frequency of extreme heat days are projected to increase (very high confidence).[96]

• The intensity and frequency of extreme rainfall days are projected to increase (high confidence).[96]

• The incidence of drought is projected to decrease (moderate confidence).[96]

• Tropical cyclone numbers are projected to decline in the south-east Pacific Ocean basin (0–40ºS, 170ºE–

130ºW) (moderate confidence).[96]

• Ocean acidification is projected to continue (very high confidence).[96]

• Mean sea-level rise is projected to continue (very high confidence).[96]

The South Pacific Applied Geoscience Commission (SOPAC) suggests that, while Tuvalu is vulnerable to climate change, environmental problems such as population growth and poor coastal management also affect sustainable development. SOPAC ranks the country as extremely vulnerable using the Environmental Vulnerability Index.[99]



Ocean side of Funafuti atoll showing the storm dunes, the highest point on the atoll.

While some commentators have called for the relocation of Tuvalu's population to Australia, New Zealand or Kioa in Fiji, the former Prime Minister Maatia Toafa said his government did not regard rising sea levels as such a threat that the entire population would need to be evacuated.[100][101] In spite of persistent Internet rumours that New Zealand has agreed to accept an annual quota of 75 evacuees, the annual quota of 75 Tuvaluans granted work permits under the Pacific Access Category (announced in 2001) is not related to environmental concerns.[75] Employment opportunities and family reunification has been the primary motivation of Tuvaluans who obtain New Zealand work permits under the Pacific Access Category.[92]

Tuvalu experiences the effects of El Niño and La Niña caused by changes in ocean temperatures in the equatorial and central Pacific. El Niño effects increase the chances of tropical storms and cyclones, while those of La Niña increase the chances of drought.[102] Typically the islands of Tuvalu receive between 200mm to 400mm of rainfall per month. However, in 2011 a weak La Niña effect caused a drought by cooling the surface of the sea around Tuvalu. A state of emergency was declared on September 28, 2011;[103] with rationing of fresh-water on the islands of Funafuti and Nukulaelae.[104][105][106]

Households on Funafuti and Nukulaelae are restricted to two buckets of fresh water per day (40 litres).[107][108] The governments of Australia and New Zealand have responded to the fresh-water crisis by supplying temporary desalination plants,[109][110][111] and assisting in the repair of the existing desalination unit that was donated by Japan in 2006.[112] In response to the 2011 drought, Japan has funded the purchase of a 100 m³/d desalination plant and two portable 10 m³/d plants as part of its Pacific Environment Community (PEC) program.[113][114] Aid programs from the European Union[56][58] and Australia also provide water tanks as part of the longer term solution for the storage of available fresh water.[115]

See also: 2011 Tuvalu drought and Renewable energy in Tuvalu

See also

- Outline of Tuvalu
- Tuvalu National Library and Archives

History of Tuvalu

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Main article: Tuvalu

The first inhabitants of Tuvalu were Polynesians so that the origins of the people of Tuvalu is addressed in the theories regarding the spread of humans out of Southeast Asia, from Taiwan, via Melanesia and across the Pacific islands to create Polynesia.

The stories as to the ancestors of the Tuvaluans vary from island to island. On Funafuti and Vaitupu the founding ancestor is described as being from Samoa;[1] [2] whereas on Nanumea the founding ancestor is described as being from Tonga;[1] These stories can be linked to what is known about the Samoa-based Tu'i Manu'a Confederacy, ruled by the holders of the Tu'i Manu'a title, which confederacy likely included much of Western Polynesia and some outliers at the height of its power in the 10th and 11th centuries. Tuvalu is thought to have been visited by Tongans in the mid-13th century and was within Tonga's sphere of influence.[2] The extent of influence of the Tuʻi Tonga line of Tongan kings and the existence of the Tuʻi Tonga Empire which originated in the 10th century, is disputed.

Various names were given to individual islands by the captains and chartmakers on visiting European ships. In 1819 the island of Funafuti, was named Ellice's Island; the name Ellice was applied to all nine islands after the work of English hydrographer Alexander George Findlay (1812–1876).[3] The islands came under Britain's sphere of influence in the late 19th century, when the Ellice Islands were declared a British protectorate by Captain Gibson, R. N. of HMS *Curaçao* between 9th and 16 October 1892. The Ellice Islands were administered as British protectorate by a Resident Commissioner from 1892 to 1916 as part of the British Western Pacific Territories (BWPT), and later as part of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands Colony from 1916 to 1974. The United States claimed Funafuti, Nukefetau, Nukulaelae and Niulakita under the Guano Islands Act of 1856, this claim was renounced under the 1983 treaty of friendship between Tuvalu and US.[4]

In 1974, the Ellice Islanders voted for separate British dependency status as Tuvalu, separating from the Gilbert Islands which became Kiribati upon independence. Tuvalu became fully independent within the Commonwealth on October 1, 1978. On September 5, 2000, Tuvalu became the 189th member of the United Nations.

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Early history



A man from the Nukufetau atoll, 1841.

Tuvaluans are a Polynesian people who settled the islands around 3000 years ago coming from Tonga and Samoa.[5] During pre-European-contact times there was frequent canoe voyaging between the islands as Polynesian navigation skills are recognised to have allowed deliberate journeys on double-hull sailing canoes or outrigger canoes.

Eight of the nine islands of Tuvalu were inhabited; thus the name, Tuvalu, means "eight standing together" in Tuvaluan. Possible evidence of fire in the Caves of Nanumanga may indicate human occupation thousands of years before that. The pattern of settlement that is believed to have occurred is that the Polynesians spread out from the Samoan Islands into the Tuvaluan atolls, with Tuvalu providing a stepping stone to migration into the Polynesian outlier communities in Melanesia and Micronesia.[6]

Tuvalu is thought to have been visited by Tongans in the mid-13th century, although it is uncertain whether they settled permanently. It was, however, within Tonga's sphere of influence, and there were regular contacts between the two island groups.[7] Tuvalu is on the western boundary of the Polynesian Triangle so that the northern islands of Tuvalu, particularly Nui have links to Micronesians from Kiribati.[1]

Voyages by Europeans in the Pacific

Tuvalu was first sighted by Europeans in 1568 during the voyage of Álvaro de Mendaña de Neira from Spain who is understood to have encounted the island of Nui, which he named *Isla de Jesus* (Island of Jesus) but was unable to land. Keith S. Chambers and Doug Munro (1980) identify Niutao as the island that Francisco Antonio Mourelle named on May 5, 1781 thus solving what Europeans had called *The Mystery of Gran Cocal*.[8] [9] Mourelle's map and journal named the island *El Gran Cocal* ('The Great Coconut Plantation'), however the latitude and longitude was uncertain.[9]

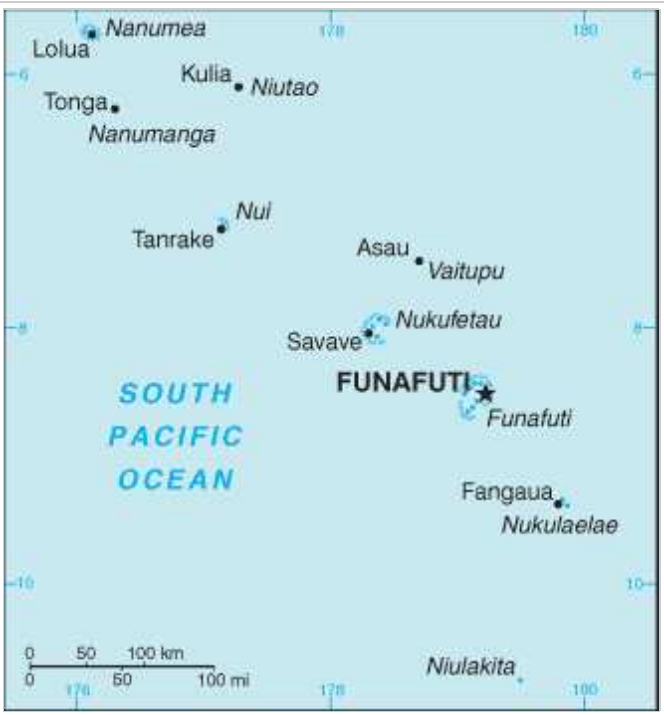
In May 1819, Captain Arent de Peyster (or Peyter) of New York, as captain of the armed brigantine or privateer *Rebecca*, sailing under British colours,[10] while on a voyage from Valparaíso to India, passed through the southern Tuvalu waters; de Peyster sighted Nukufetau and Funafuti, which he named Ellice's Island after an English Politician, Edward Ellice, the Member of Parliament for Coventry and the owner of the Rebecca's cargo.[9] The next morning, De Peyster discovered another group of about seventeen low islands forty-three miles northwest of Funafuti, naming this group "De Peyster's Islands." It is the first name, however, that was eventually used for the whole island group.[11]

In 1820 the Russian explorer Mikhail Lazarev visited Nukufetau as commander of the *Mirny*.[9] Following 1819 whalers were roving the Pacific though visiting Tuvalu only infrequently because of the difficulties of landing ships on the atolls. No settlements were established by the whalers.[9]

Peruvian slave raiders ("blackbirders") seeking workers to mine the guano deposits on the Chincha Islands in Peru, combed the Pacific between 1862 and 1865, including the southern islands of Tuvalu.[12] The Rev. A. W. Murray,[13] the earliest European missionary in Tuvalu, reported that in 1863 about 180 people[14] were taken from Funafuti and about 200 were taken from Nukulaelae[15] as there were fewer than 100 of the 300 recorded in 1861 as living on Nukulaelae.[16] [17]



Tuvaluan man in traditional costume drawn by Alfred Agate in 1841 during the United States Exploring Expedition.



Map of Tuvalu.

Christian missionaries

Christianity first came to Tuvalu in 1861 when Elekana, a Christian deacon from Manihiki in the Cook Islands became caught in a storm and drifted for 8 weeks before landing at Nukulaelae. Once there, Elekana began proselytizing Christianity.[9]

In 1865 the Rev. A. W. Murray of the London Missionary Society - a Protestant congregationalist missionary society - arrived as the first European missionary where he too proselytized among the inhabitants of Tuvalu. By 1878 Protestantism was well established with preachers on each island.[9]

Trading firms & traders

The Sydney firms of Robert Towns and Company, J. C. Malcolm and Company, and Macdonald, Smith and Company, pioneered the coconut-oil trade in Tuvalu.[18] By the 1870s J. C. Godeffroy und Sohn of Hamburg (operating out of Samoa) began to dominate the Tuvalu copra trade, which company was in 1879 taken over by Handels-und Plantagen-Gesellschaft der Südsee-Inseln zu Hamburg (DHPG). Competition came from H. M. Ruge and Company, and from Henderson and Macfarlane of Auckland, New Zealand.[19] These trading companies engaged palagi traders who lived on the islands, some islands would have competing traders with dryer islands only have a single trader.

Changes occurred with steamships replacing sailing vessels. Over time the number of competing trading companies diminished, beginning with Ruge's bankruptcy in 1888 followed by the withdrawal of the DHPG from trading in Tuvalu in 1889/90. Henderson and Macfarlane then dominated the copra trade, operating their vessel *SS Archer* to call on islands in Fiji, Tuvalu, and Kiribati.[18] New competition came from Burns Philp, operating from what is now Kiribati, with competition from Levers Pacific Plantations from 1903 and from Captain E. F. H. Allen of the Samoa Shipping and Trading Company from 1911.[18] The numbers of palagi traders declined with the supercargo of each ship dealing directly with Tuvaluans so that by 1909 there were no resident palagi traders representing the trading firms.[18] Tuvaluans became responsible for operating trading stores on each island.

In 1892 Captain Davis of the HMS *Royalist*, reported on trading activities and traders on each of the islands visited.[20] Captain Davis identified the following traders in the Ellice Group: Edmund Duffy (Nanumea); Jack Buckland (Niutao); Harry Nitz (Vaitupu); John (also known as Jack) O'Brien (Funafuti); Alfred Restieaux and Fenisot (Nukufetau); and Martin Kleis (Nui).[21] This was the time at which the greatest number of palagi traders lived on the atolls, acting as agents for the trading companies.[18]

In the later 1890s and into first decade of the 20th century, structural changes occurred in the operation of the Pacific trading companies, with the trading companies moving from a practice of having traders resident on each island to trade with the islanders to a business operation where the supercargo (the cargo manager of a trading ship) would deal directly with the islanders when a ship would visit an island. From 1900 the numbers of palagi traders in Tuvalu declined, with the last of the palagi traders being Fred Whibley on Niutao and Alfred Restieaux on Nukufetau. However, by 1909 there were no resident palagi traders representing the trading companies,[22] although both Fred Whibley and Alfred Restieaux remained in the islands until their deaths.

Scientific expeditions & travellers

The United States Exploring Expedition under Charles Wilkes visited Funafuti, Nukufetau and Vaitupu in 1841.[23] During the visit of the expedition to Tuvalu Alfred Thomas Agate, engraver and illustrator, recorded the dress and tattoo patterns of men of Nukufetau.[24]



Woman on Funafuti, Harry Clifford Fassett (1900)

In 1890 Robert Louis Stevenson, his wife Fanny Vandegrift Stevenson, and her son Lloyd Osbourne sailed on the *Janet Nicoll*,[25] a trading steamer owned by Henderson and Macfarlane of Auckland, New Zealand, which operated between Sydney, Auckland and into the central Pacific. The *Janet Nicoll* visited Tuvalu; while Fanny records that they made landfall at Funafuti and Niutao, Jane Resture suggests that it was more likely that they visited Nukufetau rather than Funafuti.[26] An account of the voyage was written by Fanny Vandegrift Stevenson and published under the title *The Cruise of the Janet Nichol*,[27] together with photographs taken by Robert Louis Stevenson and Lloyd Osbourne.

In 1894 Count Rudolph Festetics de Tolna, his wife Eila (née Haggin)[28] and her daughter Blanche Haggin visited Funafuti aboard the yacht *Le Tolna*.[29] *Le Tolna* spent several days at Funafuti with the Count photographing men and woman on Funafuti.[30]

The boreholes on Funafuti at the site now called *David's Drill* are the result of drilling conducted by the Royal Society of London for the purpose of investigating the formation of coral reefs and whether traces of shallow water organisms could be found at depth in the coral of Pacific atolls. This investigation followed the work on the structure and distribution of coral reefs conducted by Charles Darwin in the Pacific. Drilling occurred in 1896, 1897 and 1911. Professor Edgeworth David of the University of Sydney lead the expeditions in 1896 & 1897.[31] Photographers on the expeditions recorded people, communities and scenes at Funafuti.[32]

Harry Clifford Fassett, captain's clerk and photographer, recorded people, communities and scenes at Funafuti during a visit of *USFC Albatross* when the U.S. Fish Commission were investigating the formation of coral reefs on Pacific atolls in 1900.[33]

The Pacific War & Operation Galvanic

During the Pacific War the United States Marine Corps landed on Funafuti on October 2, 1942. The Japanese had already occupied Tarawa and other islands in what is now Kiribati, A Naval Construction Battalion (Seabees) built compacted coral runways at Funafuti with satellites airfields on both Nanumea and Nukufetau. Building the runway at Funafuti involved the loss of land used for growing pulaka and taro with extensive excavation of coral from what are still known as the borrow pits. The runway continues in use today as Funafuti International Airport.

The Seabees also blasted an opening in the reef at Nanumea, which became known as the 'American Passage'.[34]

While Funafuti suffered air attacks during 1943, casualties were limited, although on one occasion on 23 April 1943, 680 people took refuge in the concrete walled, pandanus-thatched church. Fortunately Corporal B. F. Ladd, an American soldier, persuaded them to get into dugouts, as a bomb struck the building shortly after.[35]

USAAF B-24 *Liberator* bombers of the Seventh Air Force operated from Tuvalu. The atolls of Tuvalu acted as a staging post during the preparation for the Battle of Tarawa and the Battle of Makin that commenced on 20 November 1943, which was the implementation of operation 'Galvanic'.[34]

Recent history

Tuvalu became fully independent in 1978 and in 1979 signed a treaty of friendship with the United States, which recognized Tuvalu's possession of four small islands formerly claimed by the United States.[11]

Tuvalu became the 189th member of the United Nations in September 2000.[36] [37] At present, the country's Permanent Representative to the United Nations is Ambassador Afelee F. Pita.

Tuvalu, one of the world's smallest countries, has indicated that its priority within the United Nations is to emphasise "climate change and the unique vulnerabilities of Tuvalu to its adverse impacts". Other priorities are obtaining "additional development assistance from potential donor countries", widening the scope of Tuvalu's bilateral diplomatic relations, and, more generally, expressing "Tuvalu's interests and concerns".[38] The issue of climate change has featured prominently in Tuvalu's interventions.

In 2002, Governor-General Tomasi Puapua concluded his address to the United Nations General Assembly by saying:

> "Finally, Mr. President, efforts to ensure sustainable development, peace, security and longterm livelihood for the world will have no meaning to us in Tuvalu in the absence of serious actions to address the adverse and devastating effects of global warming. At no more than three meters above sea level, Tuvalu is particularly exposed to these effects. Indeed our people are already migrating to escape, and are already suffering from the consequences of what world authorities on climate change have consistently been warning us. Only two weeks ago, a period when the weather was normal and calm and at low tide, unusually big waves suddenly crashed ashore and flooded most part of the capital island.
> In the event that the situation is not reversed, where does the international community think the Tuvalu people are to hide from the onslaught of sea level rise? Taking us as environmental refugees, is not what Tuvalu is after in the long run. We want the islands of Tuvalu and our nation to remain permanently and not be submerged as a result of greed and uncontrolled consumption of industrialized countries. We want our children to grow up the way my wife and I did in our own islands and in our own culture.

> We once again appeal to the industrialized countries, particularly those who have not done so, to urgently ratify and fully implement the Kyoto Protocol, and to provide concrete support in all our adaptation efforts to cope with the effects of climate change and sea level rise. Tuvalu, having little or nothing to do with the causes, cannot be left on its own to pay the price. We must work together. May God Bless you all. May God Bless the United Nations."[39]

Addressing the Special Session of the Security Council on Energy, Climate and Security in April 2007, Ambassador Pita stated:

> "We face many threats associated with climate change. Ocean warming is changing the very nature of our island nation. Slowly our coral reefs are dying through coral bleaching, we are witnessing changes to fish stocks, and we face the increasing threat of more severe cyclones. With the highest point of four metres above sea level, the threat of severe cyclones is extremely disturbing, and severe water shortages will further threaten the livelihoods of people in many islands. Madam President, our livelihood is already threatened by sea level rise, and the implications for our long term security are very disturbing. Many have spoken about the possibility of migrating from our homeland. If this becomes a reality, then we are faced with an unprecedented threat to our nationhood. This would be an infringement on our fundamental rights to nationality and statehood as constituted under the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other international conventions."[40]

Addressing the United Nations General Assembly in September 2008, Prime Minister Apisai Ielemia stated:

> "Climate change is, without doubt, the most serious threat to the global security and survival of mankind. It is an issue of enormous concern to a highly vulnerable small island State like Tuvalu. Here in this Great House, we now know both the science and economics of climate change. We also know the cause of climate change, and that human actions by ALL countries are urgently needed to address it. The central message of both the IPCC reports and the Sir Nicholas Stern reports to us, world leaders, is crystal clear: *unless urgent actions are done to curb greenhoses gasses emissions by shifting to a new global energy mix based on renewable energy sources, and unless timely adaptation is done, the adverse impact of climate change on all communities, will be catastrophic*."[41] (italics in original submission)

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See also

- History of Oceania
- Prime Minister of Tuvalu
- Politics of Tuvalu
- Postage stamps and postal history of Tuvalu

Monarchy of Tuvalu

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Tuvalu** (the **Tuvaluan monarchy**) is a system of government in which a hereditary monarch is the Sovereign of Tuvalu. The present monarch of Tuvalu is Queen Elizabeth II.[1] Tuvalu shares the Sovereign with 15 other Commonwealth realms.[2] The Queen's constitutional roles are mostly delegated to the Governor-General of Tuvalu. Royal succession is governed by the English Act of Settlement of 1701, which is part of constitutional law.

In the first years of the 21st Century, the issue of abolishing the monarchy was raised by local politicians, but a constitutional referendum held on 30 April 2008 turned out 1,260 to 679 votes in favour of retaining it.[3]

Queen of Tuvalu

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Tuvalu



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
First monarch:	Elizabeth II
Formation:	October 1, 1978

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International and domestic role

One of the most complicated features of the Tuvaluan monarchy is that it is a shared monarchy.

Fifty-four states are members of the Commonwealth of Nations. Sixteen of these countries are specifically Commonwealth realms who recognise, individually, the same person as their Monarch and Head of State; Tuvalu is one of these. [4] Despite sharing the same person as their respective national monarch, each of the Commonwealth realms—including Tuvalu—is sovereign and independent of the others.

Development of shared monarchy

The *Balfour Declaration* of 1926 provided the dominions the right to be considered equal to Britain, rather than subordinate; an agreement that had the result of, in theory, a shared Crown that operates independently in each realm rather than a unitary British Crown under which all the dominions were secondary. The Monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it has often been called "British" since this time (in both

legal and common language) for reasons historical, legal, and of convenience. The *Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act, 1927* was the first indication of this shift in law, further elaborated in the *Statute of Westminster, 1931*.

Tuvalu achieved independence in 1978 but retained the Queen as Head of State. Under the *Statute of Westminster*, Tuvalu has a common monarchy with Britain and the other Commonwealth realms.

On all matters of the Tuvaluan State, the Monarch is advised solely by Tuvaluan ministers. 16 June remains a public holiday as the Queen's Official Birthday.

The Queen of Tuvalu and the Duke of Edinburgh have only paid one visit to Tuvalu on 26-27 October 1982. The royal couple were carried around in ceremonial litters and later served with traditional local dishes on a banquet.[5] A sheet of commemorative stamps were issued for the royal visit.

Former Prime Minister Sir Kamuta Latasi was knighted by the Queen in 2008 although he is noted for his republican leanings in Tuvaluan politics.

Title

In Tuvalu, the Queen's official title is: *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Tuvalu and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*.

This style communicates Tuvalu's status as an independent monarchy, highlighting the Monarch's role specifically as Queen of Tuvalu, as well as the shared aspect of the Crown throughout the realms. Typically, the Sovereign is styled "Queen of Tuvalu," and is addressed as such when in Tuvalu, or performing duties on behalf of Tuvalu abroad.

Constitutional role

The Tuvaluan constitution is made up of a variety of statutes and conventions that are either British or Tuvaluan origin, which gives Tuvalu a similar parliamentary system of government as the other Commonwealth realms.

All powers of state are constitutionally reposed in the Monarch, who is represented by the Governor General of Tuvalu — appointed by the Monarch upon the advice of the Prime Minister of Tuvalu the Monarch is informed of the Prime Minister's decision before the Governor General gives Royal Assent.

Duties

Most of the Queen's domestic duties are performed by the Governor General. The Governor-General represents the Queen on ceremonial occasions such as the opening of Parliament, the presentation of honours and military parades. Under the Constitution, he is given authority to act in some matters, for example in appointing and disciplining officers of the civil service, in proroguing Parliament. As in the other Commonwealth realms, however, the Monarch's role, and thereby the vice-regent's role, is almost entirely symbolic and cultural, acting as a symbol of the legal authority under which all governments operate, and the powers that are constitutionally hers are exercised almost wholly upon the advice of the Cabinet, made up of Ministers of the Crown. It has been said since the death of Queen Anne in 1714, the last monarch to head the British cabinet, that the monarch "reigns" but does not "rule". In exceptional circumstances, however, the Monarch or vice-regal can act against such advice based upon his or her reserve powers.

There are also a few duties which must be specifically performed by, or bills that require assent by the Queen. These include: signing the appointment papers of Governors General, the confirmation of awards of honours, and

approving any change in her title.

It is also possible that if the Governor General decided to go against the Prime Minister's or the government's advice, the Prime Minister could appeal directly to the Monarch, or even recommend that the Monarch dismiss the Governor General.

Succession



Charles, Prince of Wales, the current heir to the throne of Tuvalu

Succession to the throne is by male-preference primogeniture, and governed by the provisions of the Act of Settlement, as well as the English Bill of Rights. These documents, though originally passed by the Parliament of England, are now part of the Tuvaluan constitutional law.

This legislation lays out the rules that the Monarch cannot be a Roman Catholic, nor married to one, and must be in communion with the Church of England upon ascending the throne. As Tuvalu's laws governing succession are currently identical to those of the United Kingdom (by the *Statute of Westminster*) see Succession to the British Throne for more information.

The heir apparent is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, who has no official title outside of the UK, but is accorded his UK title, Prince of Wales, as a courtesy title.

Legal role

All laws in Tuvalu are enacted with the sovereign's, or the vice-regal's signature. The granting of a signature to a bill is known as Royal Assent; it and proclamation are required for all acts of Parliament, usually granted or withheld by the Governor General. The Vice-Regals may reserve a bill for the Monarch's pleasure, that is to say, allow the Monarch to make a personal decision on the bill. The Monarch has the power to disallow a bill (within a time limit specified by the constitution).

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice," and is responsible for rendering justice for all subjects. The Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases; instead, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted in his or her own courts for criminal offences. Civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government) are permitted; however, lawsuits against the Monarch personally are not cognizable. The Sovereign, and by extension the Governor General, also exercises the "prerogative of mercy," and may pardon offences against the Crown. Pardons may be awarded before, during, or after a trial.

In Tuvalu the legal personality of the State is referred to as "Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Tuvalu." For example, if a lawsuit is filed against the government, the respondent is formally described as Her Majesty the Queen in Right Tuvalu. The monarch as an individual takes no more role in such an affair than in any other business of government.

Referendum of 2008

In the first years of the 21st century there was a debate about the abolition of the monarchy. Prime Minister Saufatu Sopoanga had stated in 2004 that he was in favour of replacing the Queen as Tuvalu's head of state, a view supported by popular former Prime Minister Ionatana Ionatana; Sopoanga also stated that public opinion would be evaluated first before taking any further moves.[6] Former Prime Minister Kamuta Latasi also

supported the idea.

A referendum was held in Tuvalu in 2008, giving voters the option of retaining the monarchy, or abolishing it in favour of a republic. The monarchy was retained with 1,260 votes to 679 (64.98%).[7][8] Turnout was low, with about 2000 voters of a potential 9000 taking part.

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Categories: Politics of Tuvalu | Government of Tuvalu | Current monarchies | Monarchies of Oceania | Tuvalu–United Kingdom relations | Tuvalu and the Commonwealth of Nations

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United Kingdom

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland**[nb 5] (commonly known as the **United Kingdom**, the **UK** or **Britain**) is a sovereign state located off the north-western coast of continental Europe. The country includes the island of Great Britain, the north-eastern part of the island of Ireland and many smaller islands. Northern Ireland is the only part of the UK that shares a land border with another sovereign state—the Republic of Ireland. Apart from this land border the UK is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, the North Sea, the English Channel and the Irish Sea.

The United Kingdom is a unitary state governed under a constitutional monarchy and a parliamentary system, with its seat of government in the capital city of London. It is a country in its own right[10][11] and consists of four countries: England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales.[12] There are three devolved national administrations, each with varying powers,[13][14] based in Belfast, Cardiff and Edinburgh, the capitals of Northern Ireland, Wales and Scotland respectively. Associated with the UK, but not constitutionally part of it, are three Crown Dependencies.[15] The United Kingdom has fourteen overseas territories.[16] These are remnants of the British Empire which, at its height in 1922, encompassed almost a quarter of the world's land surface and was the largest empire in history. British influence can still be observed in the language, culture and legal systems of many of its former territories.

The UK is a developed country and has the world's sixth-largest economy by nominal GDP and seventh-largest economy by purchasing power parity. It was the world's first industrialised country[17] and the world's foremost power during the 19th and early 20th centuries.[18] The UK remains a great power with leading economic, cultural, military, scientific and political influence.[19] It is a recognised nuclear weapons state and its military expenditure ranks third or fourth in the world.[20] The UK has been a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council since its first session in 1946; it is also a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, the Council of Europe, the European Union, the G7, the G8, the G20, NATO, the OECD and the World Trade Organization.

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United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland



Flag



Royal coat of arms

Anthem:



"God Save the Queen"[nb 1]



Location of **United Kingdom** (dark green)
– in Europe (green & dark grey)
– in the European Union (green) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	London 51°30′N 0°7′W
Official language(s)	English[1][2]
Recognised regional languages	Irish, Ulster Scots, Scottish Gaelic, Scots, Welsh, Cornish[nb 2]
Ethnic groups (2001 See: UK ethnic groups list[4])	92.1% White 4.0% South Asian 2.0% Black 1.2% Mixed 0.4% Chinese 0.4% Other
Demonym	British or Briton
Government	Unitary parliamentary constitutional monarchy
- Monarch	El

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- Prime Minister	David Cameron MP
Legislature	Parliament
- Upper house	House of Lords
- Lower house	House of Commons
Formation	
- Acts of Union 1707	1 May 1707
- Acts of Union 1800	1 January 1801
- Anglo-Irish Treaty	12 April 1922
Area	
- Total	243,610 km^2 (80th) 94,060 sq mi
- Water (%)	1.34
Population	
- Mid-2010 estimate	62,262,000[5] (22nd)
- 2001 census	58,789,194[6]
- Density	255.6/km^2 (51st) 661.9/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$2.253 trillion[7] (8th)
- Per capita	$35,646[7] (22nd)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$2.480 trillion[7] (7th)
- Per capita	$39,459[7] (22nd)
Gini (2008–09)	41[8]
HDI (2011)	0.863[9] (very high) (28th)
Currency	Pound sterling (GBP)
Time zone	GMT (UTC+0)
- Summer (DST)	BST (UTC+1)
Date formats	dd/mm/yyyy (AD)
Drives on the	left[nb 3]
ISO 3166 code	GB
Internet TLD	.uk[nb 4]
Calling code	44

1 A second coat of arms is used in Scotland

Etymology and terminology

See also: Name of Britain, Terminology of Great Britain, and Terminology of the British Isles

The name "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland" was introduced in 1927 by the Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act to reflect the granting of independence to the Irish Free State in 1922, which left Northern Ireland as the only part of the island of Ireland still within the UK.[21] Prior to this, the Acts of Union 1800, that led to the uniting the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland in 1801, had given the new state the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain before 1801 is occasionally referred to as the "United Kingdom of Great Britain".[22][23][24][25] However, S

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1707 Acts of Union declare that England and Scotland are "United into One Kingdom by the Name of Great Britain".[26][27][nb 6] The term *united kingdom* is found in informal use during the 18th century to describe the new state but only became official with the union with Ireland in 1801.[28]

Although the United Kingdom, as a sovereign state, is a country, England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are also referred to as countries, whether or not they are sovereign states or have devolved or other self-government.[29][30] The British Prime Minister's website has used the phrase "countries within a country" to describe the United Kingdom.[11] With regard to Northern Ireland, the descriptive name used "can be controversial, with the choice often revealing one's political preferences."[31] Other terms used for Northern Ireland include "region" and "province".[32][33]

The United Kingdom is often referred to as *Britain*. British government sources frequently use the term as a short form for the United Kingdom, whilst media style guides generally allow its use but point out that the longer term *Great Britain* refers only to England, Scotland and Wales.[34][35][36] However, some foreign usage, particularly in the United States, uses *Great Britain* as a loose synonym for the *United Kingdom*.[37][38] Also, the United Kingdom's Olympic team competes under the name "Great Britain" or "Team GB".[39][40] *GB* and *GBR* are the standard country codes for the United Kingdom (see ISO 3166-2 and ISO 3166-1 alpha-3) and are consequently commonly used by international organisations to refer to the United Kingdom.[*citation needed*]

The adjective *British* is commonly used to refer to matters relating to the United Kingdom. Although the term has no definite legal connotation, it is used in legislation to refer to United Kingdom citizenship.[41] However, British people use a number of different terms to describe their national identity. Some may identify themselves as British only, or British *and* English, Scottish, Welsh, or Northern Irish. Others may identify themselves as only English, Scottish, Welsh or Northern Irish and not British. In Northern Ireland, some describe themselves as only Irish.[42][43][44]

History

See also: History of the British Isles

Prior to 1707

Main articles: History of England, History of Wales, History of Scotland, History of Ireland, and History of the formation of the United Kingdom



Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, was erected around 2500 BC.

Settlement by anatomically modern humans of what was to become the United Kingdom occurred in waves beginning by about 30,000 years ago.[45] By the end of the region's prehistoric period, the population is thought to have belonged, in the main, to a culture termed Insular Celtic, comprising Brythonic Britain and Gaelic Ireland.[46] The Roman conquest, beginning in 43 AD, and the 400-year rule of southern Britain, was followed by an invasion by Germanic Anglo-Saxon settlers, reducing the Brythonic area mainly to what was to become Wales.[47] The region settled by the Anglo-Saxons became unified as the Kingdom of England in the 10th century.[48] Meanwhile, Gaelic-speakers in north west Britain (with connections to the north-east of Ireland and traditionally supposed to have migrated from there in the 5th century)[49][50] united with the Picts to create the Kingdom of Scotland in the 9th century.[51]

In 1066, the Normans invaded England and after its conquest, seized large parts of Wales, co

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The Bayeux Tapestry depicts the Battle of Hastings and the events leading to it.

Ireland and settled in Scotland bringing to each country feudalism on the Northern French model and Norman-French culture.[52] The Norman elites greatly influenced, but eventually assimilated with, each of the local cultures.[53] Subsequent medieval English kings completed the conquest of Wales and made an ultimately unsuccessful attempt to annex Scotland. Thereafter, Scotland maintained its independence, albeit in near-constant conflict with England. The English monarchs, through inheritance of substantial territories in France and claims to the French crown, were also heavily involved in conflicts in France, most notably the Hundred Years War.[54]

The early modern period saw religious conflict resulting from the Reformation and the introduction of Protestant state churches in each country.[55] Wales was fully incorporated into the Kingdom of England,[56] and Ireland was constituted as a kingdom in personal union with the English crown.[57] In what was to become Northern Ireland, the lands of the independent Catholic Gaelic nobility were confiscated and land given to Protestant settlers from England and Scotland.[58] In 1603, the kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland were united in a personal union when James VI, King of Scots, inherited the crowns of England and Ireland and moved his court from Edinburgh to London; each country nevertheless remained a separate political entity and retained its separate political institutions.[59][60] In the mid-17th century, all three kingdoms were involved in a series of connected wars (including the English Civil War) which led to the temporary overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of the short-lived unitary republic of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland.[61][62] Although the monarchy was restored, it ensured (with the Glorious Revolution of 1688) that, unlike much of the rest of Europe, royal absolutism would not prevail. The British constitution would develop on the basis of constitutional monarchy and the parliamentary system.[63] During this period, particularly in England, the development of naval power (and the interest in voyages of discovery) led to the acquisition and settlement of overseas colonies, particularly in North America.[64][65]

Since the Acts of Union of 1707

Main article: History of the United Kingdom

On 1 May 1707 a new kingdom of Great Britain was created by the political union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland in accordance with the Treaty of Union, negotiated the previous year and ratified by the English and Scottish Parliaments passing Acts of Union.[66][67][68]



The Treaty of Union led to a single united kingdom encompassing all Great Britain.

In the 18th century, the country played an important role in developing Western ideas of the parliamentary system and in making significant contributions to literature, the arts, and science.[18] The British-led Industrial Revolution transformed the country and fuelled the growing British Empire. During this time Britain, like other great powers, was involved in colonial exploitation, including the Atlantic slave trade, although with the passing of the Slave Trade Act of 1807 the UK took a leading role in battling the trade in slaves.[69] The colonies in North America had been the main focus of British colonial activity. With their loss in the American War of Independence, imperial ambition turned elsewhere, particularly to India.[70]

In 1800, while the wars with France still raged, the Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland each passed an Act of Union, uniting the two kingdoms and creating the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Irela

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being on 1 January 1801.[71]



The Battle of Waterloo marked the end of the Napoleonic Wars and the start of Pax Britannica.

After the defeat of France in the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars (1792–1815), the UK emerged as the principal naval and economic power of the 19th century (with London the largest city in the world from about 1830 to 1930)[72] and remained a foremost power into the mid-20th century.[73] Unchallenged at sea, Britain adopted the role of global policeman, a state of affairs later known as the *Pax Britannica*.[74] It was also a period of rapid economic, colonial, and industrial growth. Britain was described as the "workshop of the world",[75] and the British Empire grew to include India, large parts of Africa, and many other territories. Alongside the formal control it exerted over its own colonies, Britain's dominant position in world trade meant that it effectively controlled the economies of many countries, such as China, Argentina and Siam.[76][77] Domestically, there was a shift to free trade and laissez-faire policies and a very significant widening of the voting franchise. The country experienced a huge population increase during the century, accompanied by rapid urbanization, causing significant social and economic stresses.[78] By the end of the century, other states began to challenge Britain's industrial dominance.[79]

The UK, along with Russia, France and (after 1917) the USA, was one of the major powers opposing the German Empire and its allies in World War I (1914–18).[80] The UK armed forces grew to over five million people[81] engaged across much of its empire and several regions of Europe, and increasingly took a major role on the Western front. The nation suffered some two and a half million casualties and finished the war with a huge national debt.[81] After the war the United Kingdom received the League of Nations mandate over former German and Ottoman colonies, and the British Empire had expanded to its greatest extent, covering a fifth of the world's land surface and a quarter of its population.[82] The rise of Irish Nationalism and disputes within Ireland over the terms of Irish Home Rule led eventually to the partition of the island in 1921,[83] and the Irish Free State became independent with Dominion status in 1922, while Northern Ireland remained part of the United Kingdom.[84] The Great Depression (1929–32) occurred when the UK had not recovered from the effects of the war, and led to hardship as well as political and social unrest.[85]



Infantry of the Royal Irish Rifles during the Battle of the Somme. More than 885,000 British soldiers lost their lives on the battlefields of World War I.

The United Kingdom was one of the Allies of World War II and an original signatory to the Declaration of the United Nations. Following the defeat of its European allies in the first year of the war, the United Kingdom continued the fight against Germany, notably in the Battle of Britain and the Battle of the Atlantic. After the victory, the UK was one of the Big Three powers that met to plan the postwar world. The war left the country financially damaged. Marshall Aid and loans from both the United States and Canada helped the UK on the road to recovery.[86]

The Labour government in the immediate post-war years initiated a radical programme of changes, with a significant impact on British society in the following decades.[87] Domestically, major industries and public utilities were nationalized, a Welfare State was established, and a comprehensive publicly funded healthcare system, the National Health Service, was created.[88] In response to the rise of local nationalism, the Labour government's own ideological sympathies and Britain's now diminished economic position, a policy of decolonisation was initiated, starting with the granting of independence to India and Pakistan in 1947.[89] Over the next t

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Territories that were at one time part of the British Empire. Current British Overseas Territories are underlined in red.

territories of the Empire gained independence and became sovereign members of the Commonwealth of Nations.[*citation needed*]

Although the new postwar limits of Britain's political role were illustrated by the Suez Crisis of 1956, the UK nevertheless became one of the five permanent members of the United Nations Security Council and was the third country to develop a nuclear weapons arsenal (with its first atomic bomb test in 1952). The international spread of the English language also ensured the continuing international influence of its literature and culture, while from the 1960s its popular culture also found influence abroad. As a result of a shortage of workers in the 1950s, the British Government encouraged immigration from Commonwealth countries, thereby transforming Britain into a multi-ethnic society in the following decades.[90] In 1973, the UK joined the European Economic Community (EEC), and when the EEC became the European Union (EU) in 1992, it was one of the 12 founding members. From the late 1960s Northern Ireland suffered communal and paramilitary violence (sometimes affecting other parts of the UK and also the Republic of Ireland) conventionally known as the Troubles. It is usually considered to have ended with the Belfast "Good Friday" Agreement of 1998.[91][92][93]

Following a period of global economic slowdown and industrial strife in the 1970s, the Conservative Government of the 1980s initiated a radical policy of deregulation, particularly of the financial sector, flexible labour markets, the sale of state-owned companies (privatisation), and the withdrawal of subsidies to others.[94] Aided, from 1984, by the inflow of substantial North Sea oil revenues, the UK experienced a period of significant economic growth.[95] Around the end of the 20th century there were major changes to the governance of the UK with the establishment of devolved national administrations for Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales following pre-legislative referendums,[96] and the statutory incorporation of the European Convention on Human Rights. Domestic controversy surrounded some of Britain's overseas military deployments in the 2000s (decade), particularly in Iraq and Afghanistan.[97]

Geography

Main article: Geography of the United Kingdom

The total area of the United Kingdom is approximately 243,610 square kilometres (94,060 sq mi). The country occupies the major part of the British Isles[98] archipelago and includes the island of Great Britain, the north-eastern one-sixth of the island of Ireland and some smaller surrounding islands. It lies between the North Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea with the south-east coast coming within 35 kilometres (22 mi) of the coast of northern France, from which it is separated by the English Channel.[99] As of 1993 10% of the UK was forested, 46% used for pastures and 25% used for agriculture.[100] The Royal Greenwich Observatory in London is the defining point of the Prime Meridian.[*citation needed*]



The topography of the UK

The United Kingdom lies between latitudes 49° to 61° N, and longitudes 9° W to 2° E. Northern Ireland shares a 360-kilometre (224 mi) land boundary with the Republic of Ireland.[99] The coastline of Great Britain is 17,820 kilometres (11,073 mi) long.[101] It is connected to continental Europe by the Channel Tunnel, which at 50 kilometres (31 mi) (38 kilometres (24 mi) underwater) is the longest underwater tunnel in the world.[102]

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England accounts for just over half of the total area of the UK, covering 130,395 square kilometres (50,350 sq mi).[103] Most of the country consists of lowland terrain,[100] with mountainous terrain north-west of the Tees-Exe line; including the Cumbrian Mountains of the Lake District, the Pennines and limestone hills of the Peak District, Exmoor and Dartmoor. The main rivers and estuaries are the Thames, Severn and the Humber. England's highest mountain is Scafell Pike (978 metres (3,209 ft)) in the Lake District. Its principal rivers are the Severn, Thames, Humber, Tees, Tyne, Tweed, Avon, Exe and Mersey.[100]



Ben Nevis, in Scotland, is the highest point in the British Isles

Scotland accounts for just under a third of the total area of the UK, covering 78,772 square kilometres (30,410 sq mi)[104] and including nearly eight hundred islands,[105] predominantly west and north of the mainland; notably the Hebrides, Orkney Islands and Shetland Islands. The topography of Scotland is distinguished by the Highland Boundary Fault—a geological rock fracture—which traverses Scotland from Arran in the west to Stonehaven in the east.[106] The faultline separates two distinctively different regions; namely the Highlands to the north and west and the lowlands to the south and east. The more rugged Highland region contains the majority of Scotland's mountainous land, including Ben Nevis which at 1,343 metres (4,406 ft) is the highest point in the British Isles.[107] Lowland areas, especially the narrow waist of land between the Firth of Clyde and the Firth of Forth known as the Central Belt, are flatter and home to most of the population including Glasgow, Scotland's largest city, and Edinburgh, its capital and political centre.[*citation needed*]

Wales accounts for less than a tenth of the total area of the UK, covering 20,779 square kilometres (8,020 sq mi).[108] Wales is mostly mountainous, though South Wales is less mountainous than North and mid Wales. The main population and industrial areas are in South Wales, consisting of the coastal cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport, and the South Wales Valleys to their north. The highest mountains in Wales are in Snowdonia and include Snowdon (Welsh: *Yr Wyddfa*) which, at 1,085 metres (3,560 ft), is the highest peak in Wales.[100] The 14, or possibly 15, Welsh mountains over 3,000 feet (914 m) high are known collectively as the Welsh 3000s. Wales has over 1,200 km (750 miles) of coastline. There are several islands off the Welsh mainland, the largest of which is Anglesey (*Ynys Môn*) in the northwest.

Northern Ireland accounts for just 14,160 square kilometres (5,470 sq mi) and is mostly hilly. It includes Lough Neagh which, at 388 square kilometres (150 sq mi), is the largest lake in the British Isles by area.[109] The highest peak in Northern Ireland is Slieve Donard in the Mourne Mountains at 852 metres (2,795 ft).[100]

Climate

Main article: Climate of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has a temperate climate, with plentiful rainfall all year round.[99] The temperature varies with the seasons seldom dropping below −11 °C (12 °F) or rising above 35 °C (95 °F).[110] The prevailing wind is from the south-west and bears frequent spells of mild and wet weather from the Atlantic Ocean,[99] although the eastern parts are mostly sheltered from this wind—as the majority of the rain falls over the western regions the eastern parts are therefore the driest.[*citation needed*] Atlantic currents, warmed by the Gulf Stream, bring mild winters; especially in the west where winters are wet and even more so over high ground. Summers are warmest in the south-east of England, being closest to the European mainland, and coolest in the north. Heavy snowfall can occur in winter and early spring on high ground, and occasionally settles to great depth away from the hills.[111]

Administrative divisions

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Main article: Administrative geography of the United Kingdom



Administrative units of the United Kingdom

Each country of the United Kingdom has its own system of administrative and geographic demarcation, which often has origins that pre-date the formation of the United Kingdom itself. Consequently there is "no common stratum of administrative unit encompassing the United Kingdom".[112] Until the 19th century there was little change to those arrangements, but there has since been a constant evolution of role and function.[113] Change did not occur in a uniform manner and the devolution of power over local government to Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland means that future changes are unlikely to be uniform either.[*citation needed*]

The organisation of local government in England is complex, with the distribution of functions varying according to the local arrangements. Legislation concerning local government in England is decided by the UK parliament and the Government of the United Kingdom, as England does not have a devolved parliament. The upper-tier subdivisions of England are the nine Government office regions or European Union government office regions.[114] One region, Greater London, has had a directly elected assembly and mayor since 2000 following popular support for the proposal in a referendum.[115] It was intended that other regions would also be given their own elected regional assemblies but the rejection of a proposed assembly in the North East region, by a referendum in 2004, stopped this idea in its tracks.[116] Below the region level England has either county councils and district councils or unitary authorities and London which consists of 32 London boroughs. Councillors are elected by the first-past-the-post system in single-member wards or by the multi-member plurality system in multi-member wards.[117]

Local government in Scotland is divided on a basis of 32 council areas, with wide variation in both size and population. The cities of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and Dundee are separate council areas as is the Highland Council which includes a third of Scotland's area but just over 200,000 people. The power invested in local authorities is administered by elected councillors, of which there are currently 1,222[118] and are each paid a part-time salary. Elections are conducted by single transferable vote in multi-member wards that elect either three or four councillors. Each council elects a Provost, or Convenor, to chair meetings of the council and to act as a figurehead for the area. Councillors are subject to a code of conduct enforced by the Standards Commission for Scotland.[119] The representative association of Scotland's local authorities is the Convention of Scottish Local Authorities (COSLA).[120]

Local government in Wales consists of 22 unitary authorities. These include the cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport which are unitary authorities in their own right.[121] Elections are held every four years under the first-past-the-post system.[122] The most recent elections were held in May 2008. The Welsh Local Government Association represents the interests of local authorities in Wales.[123]

Local government in Northern Ireland has, since 1973, been organised into 26 district councils, each elected by single transferable vote. Their powers are limited to services such as collecting waste, controlling dogs, and maintaining parks and cemeteries.[124] On 13 March 2008 the executive agreed on proposals to create 11 new councils and replace the present system.[125] The next local elections were postponed until 2011 to facilitate this.[126]

Dependencies

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Main articles: British Overseas Territories and Crown Dependencies



The fourteen British Overseas Territories are indicated in red

The United Kingdom has sovereignty over seventeen territories which do not form part of the United Kingdom itself: 14 British Overseas Territories[127] and three Crown Dependencies.[*citation needed*]

The fourteen British Overseas Territories are: Anguilla; Bermuda; the British Antarctic Territory; the British Indian Ocean Territory; the British Virgin Islands; the Cayman Islands; the Falkland Islands; Gibraltar; Montserrat; Saint Helena, Ascension and Tristan da Cunha; the Turks and Caicos Islands; the Pitcairn Islands; South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands; and the Sovereign Base Areas on Cyprus.[128] British claims in Antarctica are not universally recognised.[129] Collectively Britain's overseas territories encompass an approximate land area of 667,018 square miles (1,727,570 km^2) and a population of approximately 260,000 people.[130] They are the remnants of the British Empire and several have specifically voted to remain British territories (Bermuda in 1995 and Gibraltar in 2002).[*citation needed*]

The Crown Dependencies are British possessions of the Crown, as opposed to overseas territories of the UK.[131] They comprise the Channel Island Bailiwicks of Jersey and Guernsey in the English Channel and the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea. Being independently administered jurisdictions they do not form part of the United Kingdom or of the European Union, although the UK government manages their foreign affairs and defence and the UK Parliament has the authority to legislate on their behalf. The power to pass legislation affecting the islands ultimately rests with their own respective legislative assemblies, with the assent of the Crown (Privy Council or, in the case of the Isle of Man, in certain circumstances the Lieutenant-Governor).[132] Since 2005 each Crown dependency has had a Chief Minister as its head of government.[*citation needed*]

Politics

Main articles: Politics of the United Kingdom, Monarchy of the United Kingdom, and Elections in the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom is a unitary state under a constitutional monarchy. Queen Elizabeth II is the head of state of the UK as well as of fifteen other independent Commonwealth countries. The monarch has "the right to be consulted, the right to encourage, and the right to warn".[133] The United Kingdom has an uncodified constitution,[134] as do only three other countries in the world.[nb 7] The Constitution of the United Kingdom thus consists mostly of a collection of disparate written sources, including statutes, judge-made case law and international treaties, together with constitutional conventions. As there is no technical difference between ordinary statutes and "constitutional law" the UK Parliament can perform "constitutional reform" simply by passing Acts of Parliament and thus has the political power to change or abolish almost any written or unwritten element of the constitution. However, no Parliament can pass laws that future Parliaments cannot change.[135]



HM Queen Elizabeth II, Queen of the United Kingdom and the other Commonwealth realms

Government

The UK has a parliamentary government based on the Westminster system that has been emulated around the world—a legacy of the British Empire. The parliament of

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the United Kingdom that meets in the Palace of Westminster has two houses; an elected House of Commons and an appointed House of Lords.[*citation needed*] Any bill passed requires Royal Assent to become law.

The position of prime minister, the UK's head of government,[136] belongs to the member of parliament who can obtain the confidence of a majority in the House of Commons, usually the current leader of the largest political party in that chamber. The prime minister and cabinet are formally appointed by the monarch to form Her Majesty's Government, though the prime minister chooses the cabinet and, by convention, HM The Queen respects the prime minister's choices.[137]



The Palace of Westminster, seat of both houses of the Parliament of the United Kingdom

The cabinet is traditionally drawn from members of the Prime Minister's party in both legislative houses, and mostly from the House of Commons, to which they are responsible. Executive power is exercised by the prime minister and cabinet, all of whom are sworn into the Privy Council of the United Kingdom, and become Ministers of the Crown. The Rt. Hon. David Cameron, leader of the Conservative Party, has been Prime Minister, First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for the Civil Service since 11 May 2010.[138] For elections to the House of Commons, the UK is currently divided into 650 constituencies[139] with each electing a single member of parliament by simple plurality. General elections are called by the monarch when the prime minister so advises. The Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949 require that a new election must be called within five years of the previous general election.[140]

The UK's three major political parties are the Conservative Party, the Labour Party and the Liberal Democrats. During the 2010 general election these three parties won 622 out of 650 seats available in the House of Commons; 621 seats at the 2010 general election[141] and 1 more at the delayed by-election in Thirsk and Malton.[142] Most of the remaining seats were won by minor parties that only contest elections in one part of the UK: the Scottish National Party (Scotland only); Plaid Cymru (Wales only); and the Democratic Unionist Party, Social Democratic and Labour Party, Ulster Unionist Party, and Sinn Féin (Northern Ireland only, though Sinn Féin also contests elections in the Republic of Ireland). In accordance with party policy no elected Sinn Féin member of parliament has ever attended the House of Commons to speak on behalf of their constituents – this is because members of parliament are required to take an oath of allegiance to the monarch. The current five Sinn Féin MPs have however, since 2002, made use of the offices and other facilities available at Westminster.[143] For elections to the European Parliament the UK currently has 72 MEPs, elected in 12 multi-member constituencies.[144]

Devolved national administrations

Main articles: Northern Ireland Executive, Scottish Government, and Welsh Government

Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each have their own government or executive, led by a First Minister, and a devolved unicameral legislature. England, the largest country of the United Kingdom, has no devolved executive or legislature and is administered and legislated for directly by the UK government and parliament on all issues. This situation has given rise to the so-called West Lothian question which concerns the fact that MPs from Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland can vote, sometimes decisively,[145] on matters affecting England that are handled by devolved legislatures for their own constituencies.[146]

The Scottish Government and Parliament have wide ranging powers over any matter that has not been specifically 'reserved' to the UK parliament, including education, healthcare, Scots law and local government.[147] Following its victory at the 2007 elections the pro-independence Scottish National Party (SNP) formed a minority government with its leader, Alex Salmond, becoming First Minister of Scotland.[148] The pro-union partie

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electoral success of the SNP by creating a Commission on Scottish Devolution[149] which reported in 2009 and recommended that additional powers should be devolved, including control of half the income tax raised in Scotland.[150] At the 2011 elections the SNP won re-election and achieved an overall majority in the Scottish parliament.[151]



The Scottish Parliament Building in Holyrood is the seat of the Scottish Parliament

The Welsh Government and the National Assembly for Wales have more limited powers than those devolved to Scotland.[152] Following the passing of the Government of Wales Act 2006 the assembly was able to legislate in devolved areas through Assembly Measures once permission to legislate on that specific matter had been granted by Westminster through a Legislative Competence Order;[153] but since May 2011 the Assembly has been able to legislate on devolved matters through Acts of the Assembly, which require no prior consent. The current Welsh Government was formed after the 2011 elections, and is a minority Labour administration lead by Carwyn Jones, who had been First Minister of a Labour/Plaid Cymru administration since December 2009.[154]

The Northern Ireland Executive and Assembly have powers closer to those already devolved to Scotland. The Northern Ireland Executive is led by a diarchy representing unionist and nationalist members of the Assembly. Currently, Peter Robinson (Democratic Unionist Party) and Martin McGuinness (Sinn Féin) are First Minister and deputy First Minister respectively.[155]

Devolution in Northern Ireland is subject to the terms of the Good Friday Agreement and the subsequent British-Irish Agreement between the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland. Under those agreements, the participation of members of the Northern Ireland Executive in the North/South Ministerial Council, and co-operation between Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland on a number of devolved policy areas, are prerequisites of devolution in Northern Ireland. The British-Irish Intergovernmental Conference was also established under the agreements, whereby "the Irish Government may put forward views and proposals" on non-devolved matters with respect to Northern Ireland. However, the United Kingdom government remains sovereign over Northern Ireland unless a majority of the people of Northern Ireland vote to form a united Ireland. [*citation needed*]

The United Kingdom does not have a codified constitution and constitutional matters are not among the powers devolved to Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland. Under the doctrine of Parliamentary sovereignty, the UK Parliament could, in theory, therefore, abolish the Scottish Parliament, Welsh Assembly or Northern Ireland Assembly.[156][157] Indeed, in 1972, the UK Parliament unilaterally prorogued the Parliament of Northern Ireland, setting a precedent relevant to contemporary devolved institutions.[158] In practice, the circumstances in which the UK Parliament would abolish devolution given the political constraints created by referendum decisions are unclear.[159] The political constraints placed upon the UK Parliament's power to interfere with devolution in Northern Ireland are greater than in relation to Scotland and Wales, given that devolution in Northern Ireland rests upon an international agreement with the Government of Ireland.[160]

Law and criminal justice

Main article: Law of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom does not have a single legal system, as Article 19 of the 1706 Treaty of Union provided for the continuation of Scotland's separate legal system.[161] Today the UK has three distinct systems of law: English law, Northern Ireland law and Scots law. A new Supreme Court of the United Kingdom came into

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The Royal Courts of Justice of England and Wales

to replace the Appellate Committee of the House of Lords.[162][163] The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, including the same members as the Supreme Court, is the highest court of appeal for several independent Commonwealth countries, the British Overseas Territories, and the Crown Dependencies.[*citation needed*]

Both English law, which applies in England and Wales, and Northern Ireland law are based on common-law principles.[164] The essence of common law is that, subject to statute, the law is developed by judges in courts, applying statute, precedent and common sense to the facts before them to give explanatory judgements of the relevant legal principles, which are reported and binding in future similar cases (*stare decisis*).[165] The courts of England and Wales are headed by the Senior Courts of England and Wales, consisting of the Court of Appeal, the High Court of Justice (for civil cases) and the Crown Court (for criminal cases). The Supreme Court is the highest court in the land for both criminal and civil appeal cases in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland and any decision it makes is binding on every other court in the same jurisdiction, often having a persuasive effect in other jurisdictions.[166]

Scots law applies in Scotland, a hybrid system based on both common-law and civil-law principles. The chief courts are the Court of Session, for civil cases,[167] and the High Court of Justiciary, for criminal cases.[168] The Supreme Court of the United Kingdom serves as the highest court of appeal for civil cases under Scots law.[169] Sheriff courts deal with most civil and criminal cases including conducting criminal trials with a jury, known as sheriff solemn court, or with a sheriff and no jury, known as sheriff summary Court.[170] The Scots legal system is unique in having three possible verdicts for a criminal trial: "guilty", "not guilty" and "*not proven*". Both "not guilty" and "not proven" result in an acquittal with no possibility of retrial.[171]


The High Court of Justiciary – the supreme criminal court of Scotland.

Crime in England and Wales increased in the period between 1981 and 1995, though since that peak there has been an overall fall of 48% in crime from 1995 to 2007/08,[172] according to crime statistics. The prison population of England and Wales has almost doubled over the same period, to over 80,000, giving England and Wales the highest rate of incarceration in Western Europe at 147 per 100,000.[173] Her Majesty's Prison Service, which reports to the Ministry of Justice, manages most of the prisons within England and Wales. Crime in Scotland fell to its lowest recorded level for 32 years in 2009/10, falling by ten percent.[174] At the same time Scotland's prison population, at over 8,000,[175] is at record levels and well above design capacity.[176] The Scottish Prison Service, which reports to the Cabinet Secretary for Justice, manages Scotland's prisons. In 2006 a report by the Surveillance Studies Network found that the UK had the highest level of mass surveillance among industrialised western nations.[177]

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom is a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council, a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, G7, G8, G20, NATO, the OECD, the WTO, the Council of Europe, the OSCE, and is a member state of the European Union. The UK has a "Special Relationship" with the United States[178][179] and a close partnership with France – the "Entente cordiale" – and shares nuclear weapons techno

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The Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, David Cameron, and the President of the United States, Barack Obama, during the 2010 G-20 Toronto summit.

countries. The UK is also closely allied with the Republic of Ireland; the two countries share a Common Travel Area and many Irish citizens serve in the British Army.[180] Other close allies include other European Union and NATO members, Commonwealth nations, and Japan. Britain's global presence and influence is further amplified through its trading relations, foreign investments, official development assistance and armed forces.[181]

Military

Main article: British Armed Forces



The Type 45 destroyer, the Challenger 2 and the Eurofighter

The British Army, Royal Air Force and Royal Navy are collectively known as the British Armed Forces and officially as Her Majesty's Armed Forces. The three forces are managed by the Ministry of Defence and controlled by the Defence Council, chaired by the Secretary of State for Defence.

The British Armed Forces are among the largest and most technologically sophisticated armed forces in the world, and as of as of 2008 maintained over 20 military deployments around the globe.[182][183][184] The British Armed Forces are charged with protecting the UK and its overseas territories, promoting the UK's global security interests and supporting international peacekeeping efforts. They are active and regular participants in NATO, including the Allied Rapid Reaction Corps, as well as the Five Power Defence Arrangements, RIMPAC and other worldwide coalition operations. Overseas garrisons and facilities are maintained in Ascension Island, Belize, Brunei, Canada, Cyprus, Diego Garcia, the Falkland Islands, Germany, Gibraltar, Kenya and Qatar.[185]

According to various sources, including the Ministry of Defence, the UK has the third- or fourth-highest military expenditure in the world. Total defence spending currently accounts for around 2.3% – 2.5% of total national GDP.[186]

The Royal Navy is a prominent blue-water navy, currently one of only three world wide, with the French Navy and the United States Navy being the other two.[187] The Royal Navy is also responsible for delivering the UKs Nuclear Deterrent via the UK Trident programme and four Vanguard class submarines.

The United Kingdom Special Forces, such as the Special Air Service and Special Boat Service, provide troops trained for quick, mobile, military responses in counter-terrorism, land, maritime and amphibious operations, often where secrecy or covert tactics are required.

Recent defence policy has a stated assumption that "the most demanding operations" will be undertaken as part of a coalition.[188] Setting aside the intervention in Sierra Leone, UK military operations in Bosnia, Kosovo, Afghanistan, Iraq and, most recently, Libya, have followed this approach. The last war in which the British military fought alone was the Falklands War of 1982, in which they were victorious.

Economy

Main article: Economy of the United Kingdom

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The Bank of England – the central bank of the United Kingdom

The UK has a partially regulated market economy.[189] Based on market exchange rates the UK is today the sixth-largest economy in the world and the third-largest in Europe after Germany and France, having fallen behind France for the first time in over a decade in 2008.[190] HM Treasury, led by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, is responsible for developing and executing the British government's public finance policy and economic policy. The Bank of England is the UK's central bank and is responsible for issuing the nation's currency, the pound sterling. Banks in Scotland and Northern Ireland retain the right to issue their own notes, subject to retaining enough Bank of England notes in reserve to cover their issue. Pound sterling is the world's third-largest reserve currency (after the U.S. Dollar and the Euro).[191] Since 1997 the Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee, headed by the Governor of the Bank of England, has been responsible for setting interest rates at the level necessary to achieve the overall inflation target for the economy that is set by the Chancellor each year.[192]

In the final quarter of 2008 the UK economy officially entered recession for the first time since 1991.[193] Unemployment increased from 5.2% in May 2008 to 7.6% in May 2009 and by January 2011 the unemployment rate among 18 to 24-year-olds had risen from 11.9% to 20.3%, the highest since current records began in 1992.[194] Total UK government debt rose from 44.5% of GDP in December 2007 to 76.1% of GDP in December 2010.[195][196]

The UK service sector makes up around 73% of GDP.[197] London is one of the three "command centres" of the global economy (alongside New York City and Tokyo),[198] is the world's largest financial centre alongside New York,[199][200][201] and has the largest city GDP in Europe.[202] Edinburgh is also one of the largest financial centres in Europe.[203] Tourism is very important to the British economy and, with over 27 million tourists arriving in 2004, the United Kingdom is ranked as the sixth major tourist destination in the world[204] and London has the most international visitors of any city in the world.[205] The creative industries accounted for 7% GVA in 2005 and grew at an average of 6% per annum between 1997 and 2005.[206]


The Airbus A380 has wings and engines manufactured in the UK.

The Industrial Revolution started in the UK[207] with an initial concentration on the textile industry, followed by other heavy industries such as shipbuilding, coal mining, and Steelmaking.[208][209] The empire created an overseas market for British products, allowing the UK to dominate international trade in the 19th century. As other nations industrialised, coupled with economic decline after two world wars, the United Kingdom began to lose its competitive advantage and heavy industry declined, by degrees, throughout the 20th century. Manufacturing remains a significant part of the economy but accounted for only 16.7% of national output in 2003.[210]

The automotive industry is a significant part of the UK manufacturing sector and employs over 800,000 people, with a turnover of some £52 billion, generating £26.6 billion of exports.[211] The aerospace industry of the UK is the second- or third-largest national aerospace industry depending upon the method of measurement and has an annual turnover of around £20 billion.[212][213][214] The pharmaceutical industry plays an important role in the UK economy and the country has the third highest share of global pharmaceutical R&D expenditures (after the United States and Japan).[215][216]

The poverty line in the UK is commonly defined as being 60% of the median household inco[nb 8] [illegible]

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13.5 million people, or 22% of the population, lived below this line. This is a higher level of relative poverty than all but four other EU members.[217] In the same year 4.0 million children, 31% of the total, lived in households below the poverty line after housing costs were taken into account. This is a decrease of 400,000 children since 1998–1999.[218] The UK imports 40% of its food supplies.[219]

Science and technology

Main article: Science and technology in the United Kingdom



Charles Darwin (1809–82), whose theory of evolution by natural selection is the foundation of modern biological sciences

England and Scotland were leading centres of the Scientific Revolution from the 17th century[220] and the United Kingdom led the Industrial Revolution from the 18th century,[207] and has continued to produce scientists and engineers credited with important advances.[221] Major theorists from the 17th and 18th centuries include Isaac Newton, whose laws of motion and illumination of gravity have been seen as a keystone of modern science,[222] from the 19th century Charles Darwin, whose theory of evolution by natural selection was fundamental to the development of modern biology, and James Clerk Maxwell, who formulated classical electromagnetic theory, and more recently Stephen Hawking, who has advanced major theories in the fields of cosmology, quantum gravity and the investigation of black holes.[223] Major scientific discoveries from the 18th century include hydrogen by Henry Cavendish,[224] from the 20th century penicillin by Alexander Fleming,[225] and the structure of DNA, by Francis Crick and others.[226] Major engineering projects and applications by people from the UK in the 18th century include the steam locomotive, developed by Richard Trevithick and Andrew Vivian,[227] from the 19th century the electric motor by Michael Faraday, the incandescent light bulb by Joseph Swan,[228] and the first practical telephone, patented by Alexander Graham Bell,[229] and in the 20th century the world's first working television system by John Logie Baird and others,[230] the jet engine by Frank Whittle, the basis of the modern computer by Alan Turing, and the World Wide Web by Tim Berners-Lee.[231]

The modern UK plays a leading part in the aerospace industry, with companies including Rolls-Royce playing a leading role in the aero-engine market; BAE Systems acting as Britain's largest and the Pentagon's sixth largest defence supplier, and large companies including GKN acting as major suppliers to the Airbus project.[232] Two British-based companies, GlaxoSmithKline and AstraZeneca, ranked in the top five pharmaceutical companies in the world by sales in 2009,[233] and UK companies have discovered and developed more leading medicines than any other country apart from the US.[234] The UK remains a leading centre of automotive design and production, particularly of engines, and has around 2,600 component manufacturers.[235] Scientific research and development remains important in British universities, with many establishing science parks to facilitate production and co-operation with industry.[236] Between 2004 and 2008 the UK produced 7% of the world's scientific research papers and had an 8% share of scientific citations, the third and second highest in the world (after the United States and China, and the United States, respectively).[237] Scientific journals produced in the UK include *Nature*, the *British Medical Journal* and *The Lancet*.[238]

Transport

Main article: Transport in the United Kingdom

A radial road network totals 29,145 miles (46,904 km) of main roads, 2,173 miles (3,497 km

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Heathrow Terminal 5 building. London Heathrow Airport has the most international passenger traffic of any airport in the world.[239][240]

213,750 miles (344,000 km) of paved roads.[99] In 2009 there were a total of 34 million licensed vehicles in Great Britain.[241] The National Rail network of 10,072 route miles (16,116 km) in Great Britain and 189 route miles (303 route km) in Northern Ireland carries over 18,000 passenger and 1,000 freight trains daily.[99] Plans are now being considered to build new high-speed railway lines by 2025.[242]

In the year from October 2009 to September 2010 UK airports handled a total of 211.4 million passengers.[243] In that period the three largest airports were London Heathrow Airport (65.6 million passengers), Gatwick Airport (31.5 million passengers) and London Stansted Airport (18.9 million passengers).[243] London Heathrow Airport, located 24 kilometres (15 mi) west of the capital, has the most international passenger traffic of any airport in the world[239][240] and is the hub for the UK flag carrier British Airways, as well as BMI and Virgin Atlantic.[244]

Energy

Main article: Energy in the United Kingdom

In 2006 the UK was the world's ninth-largest consumer of energy and the 15th largest producer.[245] In 2007 the UK had a total energy output of 9.5 quadrillion Btus, of which the composition was oil (38%), natural gas (36%), coal (13%), nuclear (11%) and other renewables (2%).[246] In 2009 the UK produced 1.5 million barrels per day (bbl/d) of oil and consumed 1.7 million bbl/d.[247] Production is now in decline and the UK has been a net importer of oil since 2005.[247] As of 2010 the UK has around 3.1 billion barrels of proven crude oil reserves, the largest of any EU member state.[247]



An oil platform in the North Sea

In 2009 the UK was the 13th largest producer of natural gas in the world and the largest producer in the EU.[248] Production is now in decline and the UK has been a net importer of natural gas since 2004.[248] In 2009 the UK produced 19.7 million tons of coal and consumed 60.2 million tons.[246] In 2005 it had proven recoverable coal reserves of 171 million tons.[246] It has been estimated that identified onshore areas have the potential to produce between 7 billion tonnes and 16 billion tonnes of coal through underground coal gasification (UCG).[249] Based on current UK coal consumption, these volumes represent reserves that could last the UK between 200 and 400 years.[250] The UK is home to a number of large energy companies, including two of the six oil and gas "supermajors" – BP and Royal Dutch Shell – and BG Group.[251][252]

Demographics

Main article: Demography of the United Kingdom

A Census occurs simultaneously in all parts of the UK every ten years.[253] The Office for National Statistics is responsible for collecting data for England and Wales with the General Register Office for Scotland and the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency each being responsible for censuses in their respective countries.[254] In the 2001 census the total population of the United Kingdom was 58,789,194, the third largest in the European Union, the fifth largest in the Commonwealth and the twenty-first largest in the world. By mid-2009

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this was estimated to have grown to 61,792,000.[255] In 2008 natural population growth overtook net migration as the main contributor to population growth for the first time since 1998.[256] Between 2001 and 2008 the population increased by an average annual rate of 0.5 per cent. This compares to 0.3 per cent per year in the period 1991 to 2001 and 0.2 per cent in the decade 1981 to 1991.[256] Published in 2008 the mid-2007 population estimates revealed that, for the first time, the UK was home to more people of pensionable age than children under the age of 16.[257] It has been estimated that the number of people aged 100 or over will rise steeply to reach over 626,000 by 2080.[258]

England's population in mid-2008 was estimated to be 51.44 million.[256] It is one of the most densely populated countries in the world, with 383 people resident per square kilometre in mid-2003,[259] with a particular concentration in London and the south east.[260] The mid-2008 estimates put Scotland's population at 5.17 million, Wales at 2.99 million and Northern Ireland at 1.78 million,[256] with much lower population densities than England. Compared to England's 383 inhabitants per square kilometre (990 /sq mi) the corresponding figures were 142 /km^2 (370 /sq mi) for Wales, 125 /km^2 (320 /sq mi) for Northern Ireland and just 65 /km^2 (170 /sq mi) for Scotland in mid-2003.[259] In percentage terms Northern Ireland has had the fastest growing population of any country of the UK in each of the four years to mid-2008.[256]

In 2008 the average total fertility rate (TFR) across the UK was 1.96 children per woman.[261] Whilst a rising birth rate is contributing to current population growth it remains considerably below the 'baby boom' peak of 2.95 children per woman in 1964,[262] below the replacement rate of 2.1, but higher than the 2001 record low of 1.63.[261] In 2010, Scotland had the lowest TFR at only 1.75, followed by Wales at 1.98, England at 2.00, and Northern Ireland at 2.06.[263]

Ethnic groups

Main article: Ethnic groups in the United Kingdom

Historically, indigenous British people were thought to be descended from the various ethnic groups that settled there before the 11th century: the Celts, Romans, Anglo-Saxons, Norse and the Normans. Recent genetic studies have shown that more than 50 percent of England's gene pool contains Germanic Y chromosomes,[267] though other recent genetic analysis indicates that "about 75 per cent of the traceable ancestors of the modern British population had arrived in the British isles by about 6,200 years ago, at the start of the British Neolithic or Stone Age", and that the British broadly share a common ancestry with the Basque people.[268][269][270]

Ethnic group	Population	% of total*
White British	50,366,497	85.67%
White (other)	3,096,169	5.27%
Indian	1,053,411	1.8%
Pakistani	977,285	1.6%
White Irish	691,232	1.2%
Mixed race	677,117	1.2%
Black Caribbean	565,876	1.0%
Black African	485,277	0.8%
Bangladeshi	283,063	0.5%
Other Asian (non-Chinese)	247,644	0.4%
Chinese	247,403	0.4%
Other	230,615	0.4%
Black (others)	97,585	0.2%
* Percentage of total UK population, according to the 2001 Census		

The UK has a history of small-scale non-white immigration, with Liverpool having the oldest Black population in the country dating back to

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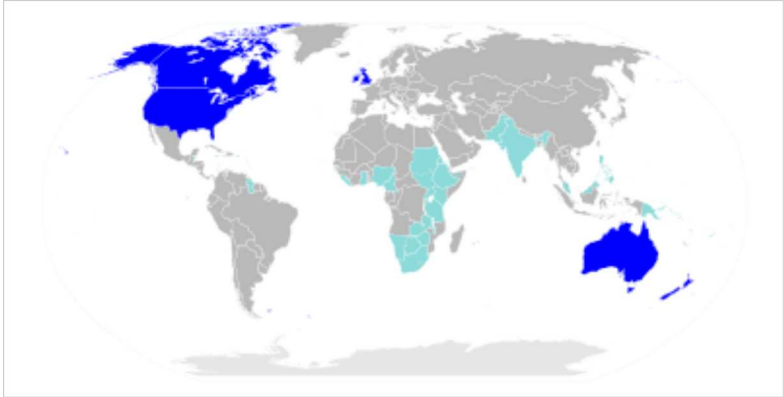
at least the 1730s,[271] and the oldest Chinese community in Europe, dating to the arrival of Chinese seamen in the 19th century.[272] In 1950 there were probably less than 20,000 non-white residents in Britain, almost all born overseas.[273]

Since 1945 substantial immigration from Africa, the Caribbean and South Asia has been a legacy of ties forged by the British Empire. Migration from new EU member states in Central and Eastern Europe since 2004 has resulted in growth in these population groups but, as of 2008, the trend is reversing and many of these migrants are returning home, leaving the size of these groups unknown.[274] As of 2001, 92.1% of the population identified themselves as White, leaving 7.9%[275] of the UK population identifying themselves as mixed race or of an ethnic minority.

Ethnic diversity varies significantly across the UK. 30.4% of London's population[276] and 37.4% of Leicester's[277] was estimated to be non-white as of June 2005, whereas less than 5% of the populations of North East England, Wales and the South West were from ethnic minorities according to the 2001 census.[278] As of 2011, 26.5% of primary and 22.2% of secondary pupils at state schools in England are members of an ethnic minority.[279]

Languages

Main article: Languages of the United Kingdom



The English-speaking world. Countries in dark blue have a majority of native speakers; countries where English is an official but not a majority language are shaded in light blue. English is one of the official languages of the European Union.[280] and the United Nations[281]

The UK's official language is English,[1][2] a West Germanic language descended from Old English which features a large number of borrowings from Old Norse, Norman French and Latin. The English language has spread across the world, largely because of the British Empire, and has become the international language of business as well as the most widely taught second language.[282]

Scots, a language descended from early northern Middle English, is recognised at European level, as is its regional variant in the northern counties of Ireland, Ulster Scots.[283] There are also four Celtic languages in use in the UK: Welsh, Irish, Scottish Gaelic and Cornish. In the 2001 Census over a fifth (21%) of the population of Wales said they could speak Welsh,[284] an increase from the 1991 Census (18%).[285] In addition it is estimated that about 200,000 Welsh speakers live in England.[286]

The 2001 census in Northern Ireland showed that 167,487 (10.4%) people "had some knowledge of Irish" (see Irish language in Northern Ireland), almost exclusively in the Catholic/nationalist population. Over 92,000 people in Scotland (just under 2% of the population) had some Gaelic language ability, including 72% of those living in the Outer Hebrides.[287] The number of schoolchildren being taught in Welsh, Gaelic and Irish is increasing.[288] Welsh and Scottish Gaelic are also spoken by small groups around the globe with some Gaelic still spoken in Nova Scotia, Canada (especially Cape Breton Island),[289] and Welsh in Patagonia, Argentina.[290]

Across the United Kingdom it is generally compulsory for pupils to study a second language to some extent: up to the age of 14 in England,[291] and up to age 16 in Scotland. French and German are the two

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second languages in England and Scotland. In Wales, all pupils up to age 16 are either taught in Welsh or taught Welsh as a second language.[292]

Religion

Main article: Religion in the United Kingdom



Westminster Abbey is used for the coronation of British monarchs

Forms of Christianity have dominated religious life in what is now the United Kingdom for over 1,400 years.[293] Although a majority of citizens still identify with Christianity in many surveys, regular church attendance has fallen dramatically since the middle of the 20th century,[294] while immigration and demographic change have contributed to the growth of other faiths, most notably Islam.[295] This has led some commentators to variously describe the UK as a multi-faith,[296] secularised,[297] or post-Christian society.[298] In the 2001 census 71.6% of all respondents indicated that they were Christians, with the next largest faiths (by number of adherents) being Islam (2.8%), Hinduism (1.0%), Sikhism (0.6%), Judaism (0.5%), Buddhism (0.3%) and all other religions (0.3%).[299] 15% of respondents stated that they had no religion, with a further 7% not stating a religious preference.[300] A Tearfund survey in 2007 showed only one in ten Britons actually attend church weekly.[301]

The (Anglican) Church of England is the established church in England.[302] It retains a representation in the UK Parliament and the British monarch is its Supreme Governor.[303] In Scotland the Presbyterian Church of Scotland is recognised as the national church. It is not subject to state control, and the British monarch is an ordinary member, required to swear an oath to "maintain and preserve the Protestant Religion and Presbyterian Church Government" upon his or her accession.[304][305] The Church in Wales was disestablished in 1920, and there is no established church in Northern Ireland.[306] Although there are no UK-wide data in the 2001 census on adherence to individual Christian denominations, Ceri Peach has estimated that 62% of Christians are Anglican, 13.5% Roman Catholic, 6% Presbyterian, 3.4% Methodist with small numbers of other Protestant denominations and the Orthodox church.[307]

Migration

Main article: Immigration to the United Kingdom since 1922

See also: Foreign-born population of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has experienced successive waves of migration. The Great Famine brought a large influx of Irish immigrants.[308] Over 120,000 Polish veterans settled in Britain after World War II, unable to return home.[309] In the 20th century there was significant immigration from the colonies and newly independent former colonies, driven largely by post-World War II labour shortages. Many of these migrants came from the Caribbean and the Indian subcontinent.[310]



Estimated foreign-born population by country of birth, April 2007 – March 2008

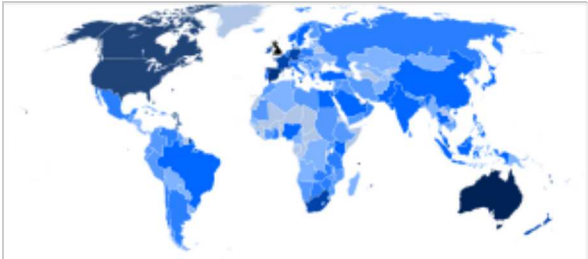
In 2010, there were 7.0 million foreign-born residents in the UK, corresponding to 11.3% of the total population. Of these, 4.76 million (7.7%) were born outside the EU and 2.24 million (3.6%) were born in another [311]

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The proportion of foreign-born people in the UK remains slightly below that of some other European countries,[312] although immigration is now contributing to a rising population,[313] accounting for about half of the population increase between 1991 and 2001. Analysis of Office for National Statistics data shows that 2.3 million net migrants moved to the UK in the period 1991 to 2006.[314][315] In 2008 it was predicted that migration would add 7 million to the UK population by 2031,[316] though these figures are disputed.[317] Based on the Office for National Statistics (ONS), Net migration for 12 months in 2010 jumped 21 percent to 239,000 from 2009. The immigration in 2010 was 575,000 or relatively stable since 2004, while the number of people leaving UK to live abroad for more than 12 months was only 336,000.[318]

195,046 foreign nationals became British citizens in 2010,[319] compared to 54,902 in 1999.[319][320] A record 241,192 people were granted permanent settlement rights in 2010, of whom 51 per cent were from Asia and 27 per cent from Africa.[321] 24.7 per cent of babies born in England and Wales in 2009 were born to mothers born outside the UK, according to official statistics released in 2010.[322]

At least 5.5 million British-born people are living abroad,[323][324][325] the top four destinations being Australia, Spain, the United States and Canada.[323][326] Emigration was an important feature of British society in the 19th century. Between 1815 and 1930 around 11.4 million people emigrated from Britain and 7.3 million from Ireland. Estimates show that by the end of the 20th century some 300 million people of British and Irish descent were permanently settled around the globe.[327]



Estimated number of British citizens living overseas by country, 2006

Citizens of the European Union have the right to live and work in any member state, including the UK.[328] Transitional arrangements apply to Romanians and Bulgarians whose countries joined the EU in January 2007.[329] Research conducted by the Migration Policy Institute for the Equality and Human Rights Commission suggests that, between May 2004 and September 2009, 1.5 million workers migrated from the new EU member states to the UK, two thirds of them Polish, but that many have since returned home, resulting in a net increase in the number of nationals of the new member states in the UK of some 700,000 over that period.[330][331] The late-2000s recession in the UK reduced the economic incentive for Poles to migrate to the UK,[332] with the migration becoming temporary and circular.[333] In 2009, for the first time since enlargement, more nationals of the eight central and eastern European states that had joined the EU in 2004 left the UK than arrived.[334]

The UK government is currently introducing a points-based immigration system for immigration from outside the European Economic Area that will replace existing schemes, including the Scottish Government's Fresh Talent Initiative.[335] In June 2010 the Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition government introduced a temporary cap on immigration of those entering the UK from outside the EU, with the limit set at 24,100, in order to stop an expected rush of applications before a permanent cap is imposed in April 2011.[336] The cap has caused tension within the coalition: business secretary Vince Cable has argued that it is harming British businesses.[337]

Education

Main article: Education in the United Kingdom

See also: Education in England, Education in Northern Ireland, Education in Scotland, and Education in Wales

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King's College, part of the University of Cambridge which was founded in 1209

Education in the United Kingdom is a devolved matter, with each country having a separate education system.

Education in England is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Education, though the day-to-day administration and funding of state schools is the responsibility of local authorities.[338] Universally free of charge state education was introduced piecemeal between 1870 and 1944, with education becoming compulsory for all 5 to 14 year-olds in 1921.[339][340] Education is now mandatory from ages five to sixteen (15 if born in late July or August). The majority of children are educated in state-sector schools, only a small proportion of which select on the grounds of academic ability. State schools which are allowed to select pupils according to intelligence and academic ability can achieve comparable results to the most selective private schools: out of the top ten performing schools in terms of GCSE results in 2006 two were state-run grammar schools. Despite a fall in actual numbers the proportion of children in England attending private schools has risen to over 7%.[341] Over half of students at the leading universities of Cambridge and Oxford had attended state schools.[342] The universities of England include some of the top universities in the world; the University of Cambridge, University College London, the University of Oxford and Imperial College London are all ranked in the global top 10 in the 2010 QS World University Rankings, with Cambridge ranked first.[343] Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) rated pupils in England 7th in the world for maths and 6th for science. The results put England's pupils ahead of other European countries, including Germany and the Scandinavian countries.[344]


Queen's University Belfast, built in 1849[345]

Education in Scotland is the responsibility of the Cabinet Secretary for Education and Lifelong Learning, with day-to-day administration and funding of state schools the responsibility of Local Authorities. Two non-departmental public bodies have key roles in Scottish education: the Scottish Qualifications Authority is responsible for the development, accreditation, assessment and certification of qualifications other than degrees which are delivered at secondary schools, post-secondary colleges of further education and other centres;[346] and Learning and Teaching Scotland provides advice, resources and staff development to the education community to promote curriculum development and create a culture of innovation, ambition and excellence.[347] Scotland first legislated for compulsory education in 1496.[348] The proportion of children in Scotland attending private schools is just over 4%, although it has been rising slowly in recent years.[349] Scottish students who attend Scottish universities pay neither tuition fees nor graduate endowment charges, as fees were abolished in 2001 and the graduate endowment scheme was abolished in 2008.[350]

Education in Northern Ireland is the responsibility of the Minister of Education and the Minister for Employment and Learning, although responsibility at a local level is administered by five education and library boards covering different geographical areas. The Council for the Curriculum, Examinations & Assessment (CCEA) is the body responsible for advising the government on what should be taught in Northern Ireland's schools, monitoring standards and awarding qualifications.[351] The Welsh Government has responsibility for education in Wales. A significant number of Welsh students are taught either wholly or largely in the Welsh language; lessons in Welsh are compulsory for all until the age of 16.[352] There are plans to increase the provision of Welsh-medium schools as part of the policy of creating a fully bilingual Wales.

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Healthcare

Main article: Healthcare in the United Kingdom



The Royal Aberdeen Children's Hospital, an NHS Scotland specialist children's hospital

Healthcare in the United Kingdom is a devolved matter and each country has its own system of private and publicly funded health care, together with alternative, holistic and complementary treatments. Public healthcare is provided to all UK permanent residents and is free at the point of need, being paid for from general taxation. The World Health Organization, in 2000, ranked the provision of healthcare in the United Kingdom as fifteenth best in Europe and eighteenth in the world.[353][354]

Regulatory bodies are organised on a UK-wide basis such as the General Medical Council, the Nursing and Midwifery Council and non-governmental-based, such as the Royal Colleges. However, political and operational responsibility for healthcare lies with four national executives; healthcare in England is the responsibility of the UK Government; healthcare in Northern Ireland is the responsibility of the Northern Ireland Executive; healthcare in Scotland is the responsibility of the Scottish Government; and healthcare in Wales is the responsibility of the Welsh Assembly Government. Each National Health Service has different policies and priorities, resulting in contrasts.[355][356]

Since 1979 expenditure on healthcare has been increased significantly to bring it closer to the European Union average.[357] The UK spends around 8.4 per cent of its gross domestic product on healthcare, which is 0.5 percentage points below the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development average and about one percentage point below the average of the European Union.[358]

Culture

Main article: Culture of the United Kingdom

The culture of the United Kingdom has been influenced by many factors including: the nation's island status; its history as a western liberal democracy and a major power; as well as being a political union of four countries with each preserving elements of distinctive traditions, customs and symbolism. As a result of the British Empire, British influence can be observed in the language, culture and legal systems of many of its former colonies; including Australia, Canada, India, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa and the United States.

Cinema

Main article: Cinema of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has had a considerable influence on the history of the cinema. The British directors Alfred Hitchcock and David Lean are among the most critically acclaimed of all-time,[359] with other important directors including Charlie Chaplin, Michael Powell, Carol Reed and Ridley Scott.[360][361][362][363] Many British actors have achieved international fame and critical success, including: Julie Andrews, Richard Burton, Michael Caine, Charlie Chaplin, Sean Connery, Vivien Leigh, David Niven, Laurence Olivier, Peter Sellers and Kate Winslet.[364][365][366][367][368][369][370][371][372][373] Some of the most commercially successful films of all time have been produced in the United Kingdom, including the two highest-grossing film franchises (*Harry Potter* and *James Bond*).[374] Ealing Studios has a claim to being the oldest continuously working film studio in the world.[375]

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Despite a history of important and successful productions, the industry has often been characterised by a debate about its identity and the level of American and European influence. Many British films are co-productions with American producers, often using both British and American actors, and British actors feature regularly in Hollywood films. Many successful Hollywood films have been based on British people, stories or events, including *Titanic*, *The Lord of the Rings* and *Pirates of the Caribbean*.


Alfred Hitchcock

In 2009 British films grossed around $2 billion worldwide and achieved a market share of around 7% globally and 17% in the United Kingdom.[376] UK box-office takings totalled £944 million in 2009, with around 173 million admissions.[376] The British Film Institute has produced a poll ranking of what it considers to be the 100 greatest British films of all time, the BFI Top 100 British films.[377] The annual British Academy Film Awards, hosted by the British Academy of Film and Television Arts, are the British equivalent of the Oscars.[378]

Literature

Main article: British literature

'British literature' refers to literature associated with the United Kingdom, the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands as well as to literature from England, Wales and Scotland prior to the formation of the UK.[*citation needed*] Most British literature is in the English language. In 2005, some 206,000 books were published in the United Kingdom and in 2006 it was the largest publisher of books in the world.[379]


The Chandos portrait, believed to depict William Shakespeare

The English playwright and poet William Shakespeare is widely regarded as the greatest dramatist of all time,[380][381][382] and his contemporaries Christopher Marlowe and Ben Jonson have also been held in continuous high esteem. More recently the playwrights Alan Ayckbourn, Harold Pinter, Michael Frayn, Tom Stoppard and David Edgar have combined elements of surrealism, realism and radicalism.

Notable pre-modern and early-modern English writers include Geoffrey Chaucer (14th century), Thomas Malory (15th century), Sir Thomas More (16th century), and John Milton (17th century). In the 18th century Daniel Defoe (author of *Robinson Crusoe*) and Samuel Richardson were pioneers of the modern novel. In the 19th century there followed further innovation by Jane Austen, the gothic novelist Mary Shelley, children's writer Lewis Carroll, the Brontë sisters, the social campaigner Charles Dickens, the naturalist Thomas Hardy, the realist George Eliot, the visionary poet William Blake and romantic poet William Wordsworth. 20th century English writers include: science-fiction novelist H. G. Wells; the writers of children's classics Rudyard Kipling, A. A. Milne (the creator of Winnie-the-Pooh) and Enid Blyton; the controversial D. H. Lawrence; modernist Virginia Woolf; the satirist Evelyn Waugh; the prophetic novelist George Orwell; the popular novelists W. Somerset Maugham and Graham Greene; the crime writer Agatha Christie (the best-selling novelist of all time);[383] Ian Fleming (the creator of James Bond); the poets T. S. Eliot, Philip Larkin and Ted Hughes; and the fantasy writers J. R. R. Tolkien, C. S. Lewis and J. K. Rowling.

Scotland's contributions include the detective writer Arthur Conan Doyle (the creator of Sherlock Holmes), romantic literature by Sir Walter Scott, children's writer J.M. Barrie, the epic adventures of Robert Louis Stevenson and the celebrated poet Robert Burns. More recently the modernist and nationalist Hugh MacDiarmid and Neil M

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A photograph of Victorian era novelist Charles Dickens

Gunn contributed to the Scottish Renaissance. A more grim outlook is found in Ian Rankin's stories and the psychological horror-comedy of Iain Banks. Scotland's capital, Edinburgh, was UNESCO's first worldwide City of Literature.[384]

Britain's oldest known poem, *Y Gododdin*, was composed in *Yr Hen Ogledd* (The Old North), most likely in the late 6th century. It was written in Cumbric or Old Welsh and contains the earliest known reference to King Arthur.[385] From around the seventh century, the connection between Wales and the Old North was lost, and the focus of Welsh-language culture shifted to Wales, where Arthurian legend was further developed by Geoffrey of Monmouth.[386] Wales's most celebrated medieval poet, Dafydd ap Gwilym (fl 1320–1370), composed poetry on themes including nature, religion and especially love. He is widely regarded as one of the greatest European poets of his age.[387] Until the late 19th century the majority of Welsh literature was in Welsh and much of the prose was religious in character. Daniel Owen is credited as the first Welsh-language novelist, publishing *Rhys Lewis* in 1885. The best-known of the Anglo-Welsh poets are both Thomases. Dylan Thomas became famous on both sides of the Atlantic in the mid-20th century. The Swansea writer is remembered for his poetry – his "Do not go gentle into that good night; Rage, rage against the dying of the light." is one of the most quoted couplets of English language verse – and for his 'play for voices', *Under Milk Wood*. Influential Church in Wales 'poet-priest' and Welsh nationalist, R. S. Thomas, was nominated for the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1996. Leading Welsh novelists of the twentieth century include Richard Llewellyn and Kate Roberts. Current Welsh writers include Gillian Clarke, Mihangel Morgan, and Wiliam Owen Roberts.[*citation needed*]

Authors of other nationalities, particularly from Commonwealth countries, the Republic of Ireland and the United States, have lived and worked in the UK. Significant examples through the centuries include Jonathan Swift, Oscar Wilde, Bram Stoker, George Bernard Shaw, Joseph Conrad, T.S. Eliot, Ezra Pound and more recently British authors born abroad such as Kazuo Ishiguro and Sir Salman Rushdie.[388][389]

Media

Main article: Media of the United Kingdom

The BBC, founded in 1922, is the UK's publicly funded radio, television and Internet broadcasting corporation, and is the oldest and largest broadcaster in the world. It operates numerous television and radio stations in the UK and abroad and its domestic services are funded by the television licence.[390][391] Other major players in the UK media include ITV plc, which operates 11 of the 15 regional television broadcasters that make up the ITV Network,[392] and News Corporation, which owns a number of national newspapers through News International such as the most popular tabloid *The Sun* and the longest-established daily "broadsheet" *The Times*,[393] as well as holding a large stake in satellite broadcaster British Sky Broadcasting.[394] London dominates the media sector in the UK: national newspapers and television and radio are largely based there, although Manchester is also a significant national media centre. Edinburgh and Glasgow, and Cardiff, are important centres of newspaper and broadcasting production in Scotland and Wales respectively.[395] The UK publishing sector, including books, directories and databases, journals, magazines and business media, newspapers and news agencies, has a combined turnover of around £20 billion and employs around 167,000 people.[396]


Broadcasting House in London, headquarters of the BBC

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In 2009 it was estimated that individuals viewed a mean of 3.75 hours of television per day and 2.81 hours of radio. In that year the main BBC public service broadcasting channels accounted for an estimated 28.4% of all television viewing; the three main independent channels accounted for 29.5% and the increasingly important other satellite and digital channels for the remaining 42.1%.[397] Sales of newspapers have fallen since the 1970s and in 2009 42% of people reported reading a daily national newspaper.[398] In 2010 82.5% of the UK population were Internet users, the highest proportion amongst the 20 countries with the largest total number of users in that year.[399]

Music

Main article: Music of the United Kingdom

See also: British rock



The Beatles are one of the most commercially successful and critically acclaimed bands in the history of music, selling over a billion records internationally.[400][401][402]

Various styles of music are popular in the UK from the indigenous folk music of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland to heavy metal. Notable composers of classical music from the United Kingdom and the countries that preceded it include William Byrd, Henry Purcell, Sir Edward Elgar, Gustav Holst, Sir Arthur Sullivan (most famous for working with librettist Sir W.S. Gilbert), Ralph Vaughan Williams and Benjamin Britten, pioneer of modern British opera. Sir Peter Maxwell Davies is one of the foremost living composers and current Master of the Queen's Music. The UK is also home to world-renowned symphonic orchestras and choruses such as the BBC Symphony Orchestra and the London Symphony Chorus. Notable conductors include Sir Simon Rattle, John Barbirolli and Sir Malcolm Sargent. Some of the notable film score composers include John Barry, Clint Mansell, Mike Oldfield, John Powell, Craig Armstrong, David Arnold, John Murphy, Monty Norman and Harry Gregson-Williams. George Frideric Handel, although born German, was a naturalised British citizen[403] and some of his best works, such as *Messiah*, were written in the English language.[404] Andrew Lloyd Webber has achieved enormous worldwide commercial success and is a prolific composer of musical theatre, works which have dominated London's West End for a number of years and have travelled to Broadway in New York.[405]

The Beatles have international sales of over one billion units and are the biggest-selling and most influential act in the history of popular music.[400][401][402][406] Other prominent British contributors to have influenced popular music over the last 50 years include Queen, Cliff Richard, the Bee Gees, Elton John, Led Zeppelin, Pink Floyd and The Rolling Stones; all of whom have world wide record sales of 200 million or more.[407][408][409][410][411][412][413] According to research by Guinness World Records eight of the ten acts with the most UK chart singles are British: Status Quo, Queen, The Rolling Stones, UB40, Depeche Mode, the Bee Gees, the Pet Shop Boys and the Manic Street Preachers.[414][415] More recent UK music acts that have had international success include Leona Lewis, Coldplay, Radiohead, Oasis, Spice Girls, Duffy, Jessie J, Muse, Adele, Gorillaz, and the late Amy Winehouse.

A number of UK cities are known for their music. Acts from Liverpool have had more UK chart number one hit singles per capita (54) than any other city worldwide.[416] Glasgow's contribution to music was recognised in 2008 when it was named a UNESCO City of Music, one of only three cities in the world to have this honour.[417]

Philosophy

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Main article: British philosophy



Jeremy Bentham, who developed the concept of utilitarianism

The United Kingdom is famous for the tradition of 'British Empiricism', a branch of the philosophy of knowledge that states that only knowledge verified by experience is valid, and 'Scottish Philosophy', sometimes referred to as the 'Scottish School of Common Sense'.[418] The most famous philosophers of British Empiricism are John Locke, George Berkeley and David Hume; while Dugald Stewart, Thomas Reid and William Hamilton were major exponents of the Scottish "common sense" school. Two Britons are also notable for a theory of moral philosophy utilitarianism, first used by Jeremy Bentham and later by John Stuart Mill in his short work *Utilitarianism*.[419][420] Other eminent philosophers from the UK and the unions and countries that preceded it include Duns Scotus, John Lilburne, Mary Wollstonecraft, Sir Francis Bacon, Adam Smith, Thomas Hobbes, William of Ockham, Bertrand Russell and A.J. "Freddie" Ayer. Foreign-born philosophers who settled in the UK include Isaiah Berlin, Karl Marx, Karl Popper and Ludwig Wittgenstein.

Visual art

Main article: Art of the United Kingdom



J.M.W. Turner self-portrait, oil on canvas, c. 1799

The history of British visual art forms part of western art history. Major British artists include: the Romantics William Blake, John Constable, Samuel Palmer and J.M.W. Turner; the portrait painters Sir Joshua Reynolds and Lucian Freud; the landscape artists Thomas Gainsborough and L. S. Lowry; the pioneer of the Arts and Crafts Movement William Morris; the figurative painter Francis Bacon; the Pop artists Peter Blake, Richard Hamilton and David Hockney; the collaborative duo Gilbert and George; the abstract artist Howard Hodgkin; and the sculptors Antony Gormley, Anish Kapoor and Henry Moore. During the late 1980s and 1990s the Saatchi Gallery in London helped to bring to public attention a group of multi-genre artists who would become known as the "Young British Artists": Damien Hirst, Chris Ofili, Rachel Whiteread, Tracey Emin, Mark Wallinger, Steve McQueen, Sam Taylor-Wood and the Chapman Brothers are among the better-known members of this loosely affiliated movement.

The Royal Academy in London is a key organisation for the promotion of the visual arts in the United Kingdom. Major schools of art in the UK include: the six-school University of the Arts London, which includes the Central Saint Martins College of Art and Design and Chelsea College of Art and Design; Goldsmiths, University of London; the Slade School of Fine Art (part of University College London); the Glasgow School of Art; the Royal College of Art; and The Ruskin School of Drawing and Fine Art (part of the University of Oxford). The Courtauld Institute of Art is a leading centre for the teaching of the history of art. Important art galleries in the United Kingdom include the National Gallery, National Portrait Gallery, Tate Britain and Tate Modern (the most-visited modern art gallery in the world, with around 4.7 million visitors per year).[421]

Sport

Main article: Sport in the United Kingdom

Major sports, including association football, rugby league, rugby union, rowing, boxing, badminton, cricket, tennis, darts and golf, originated or were substantially developed in the United Kingdom and the states that preceded it. A 2003 poll found that football is the most popular sport in the United Kingdom.[423] In most i

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competitions, separate teams represent England, Scotland and Wales. Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland usually field a single team representing all of Ireland, with notable exceptions including at the Commonwealth Games and association football. (In sporting contexts, these teams can be referred to collectively as the Home Nations.) However there are occasions where a single sports team represents the United Kingdom, including at the Olympics where the UK is represented by the Great Britain team. London was the site of the 1908 and 1948 Olympic Games, and in 2012 will become the first city to play host for a third time.



London's Wembley Stadium, one of the most expensive stadia ever built[422]

Each of the Home Nations has its own football association, national team and league system, though a few clubs play outside their country's respective systems for a variety of historical and logistical reasons. England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland compete as separate countries in international competition and, as a consequence, the UK does not compete as a team in football events at the Olympic Games.[424] There are proposals to have a UK team take part in the 2012 Summer Olympics but the Scottish, Welsh and Northern Irish football associations have declined to participate, fearing that it would undermine their independent status – a fear confirmed by FIFA president Sepp Blatter.[425] England has been the most successful of the home nations winning the World Cup on home soil in 1966, although there has historically been a close-fought rivalry between England and Scotland.



Cardiff's Millennium Stadium opened for the 1999 Rugby World Cup

Cricket was invented in England. The England cricket team, controlled by the England and Wales Cricket Board,[426] is the only national team in the UK with Test status. Team members are drawn from the main county sides, and include both English and Welsh players. Cricket is distinct from football and rugby where Wales and England field separate national teams, although Wales had fielded its own team in the past. Irish and Scottish players have played for England because neither Scotland nor Ireland have Test status and have only recently started to play in One Day Internationals.[427][428] Scotland, England (and Wales), and Ireland (including Northern Ireland) have competed at the Cricket World Cup, with England reaching the finals on three occasions. There is a professional league championship in which clubs representing 17 English counties and 1 Welsh county compete.[429] Rugby league is a popular sport in some areas of the UK. It originates in Huddersfield and is generally played in Northern England.[430] A single 'Great Britain Lions' team had competed in the Rugby League World Cup and Test match games, but this changed in 2008 when England, Scotland and Ireland competed as separate nations.[431] Great Britain is still being retained as the full national team for Ashes tours against Australia, New Zealand and France. The highest form of professional rugby league in the UK and Europe is Super League where there are 11 teams from Northern England, 1 from London, 1 from Wales and 1 from France. Rugby union is organised on a separate basis for England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland, each has a top-ranked international team and were collectively known as the Home Nations. The Six Nations Championship, played between the Home Nations as well as Italy and France, is the premier international tournament in the northern hemisphere.[432] The Triple Crown is awarded to any of the Home Nations who beats the other three in that tournament.[433]

The game of lawn tennis first originated in the city of Birmingham between 1859 and 1865.[434] The Championships, Wimbledon are international tennis events held in Wimbledon in south London every summer and are regarded as the most prestigious event of the global tennis calendar. Snooker is one of the UK's popular sporting exports, with the world championships held annually in Sheffield.[435] In Northern Ireland Gaelic football and hurling are popular team sports, both in terms of participation and spectating, and Irish expatriates throughout the UK and the US also play them.[436] Shinty (or *camanachd*) is popular in the Scottish Highlands.[437]

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Thoroughbred racing, which originated under Charles II of England as the "sport of kings", is popular throughout the UK with world-famous races including the Grand National, the Epsom Derby, Royal Ascot and the Cheltenham National Hunt Festival (including the Cheltenham Gold Cup). The UK has proved successful in the international sporting arena in rowing. Golf is the sixth most popular sport, by participation, in the UK. Although The Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St Andrews in Scotland is the sport's home course,[438] the world's oldest golf course is actually Musselburgh Links' Old Golf Course.[439]



The Wimbledon Championships, a Grand Slam tournament, is held in Wimbledon, London every June or July

The UK is closely associated with motorsport. Many teams and drivers in Formula One (F1) are based in the UK, and drivers from Britain have won more world titles than any other country. The UK hosted the very first F1 Grand Prix in 1950 at Silverstone, the current location of the British Grand Prix held each year in July. The country also hosts legs of the World Rally Championship and has its own touring car racing championship, the British Touring Car Championship (BTCC).[440]

Symbols

Main article: Symbols of the United Kingdom, the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man



The Statue of Britannia in Plymouth. Britannia is a national personification of the UK.

The flag of the United Kingdom is the Union Flag (also referred to as the Union Jack). It was first created in 1606 by the superimposition of the Flag of England on the Flag of Scotland and updated in 1801 with the addition of Saint Patrick's Flag. Wales is not represented in the Union Flag as Wales had been conquered and annexed to England prior to the formation of the United Kingdom; the possibility of redesigning the Union Flag to include representation of Wales has not been completely ruled out.[441] The national anthem of the United Kingdom is "God Save the King", with "King" replaced with "Queen" in the lyrics whenever the monarch is a woman.

Britannia is a national personification of the United Kingdom, originating from Roman Britain.[442] Britannia is symbolised as a young woman with brown or golden hair wearing a Corinthian helmet and white robes. She holds Poseidon's three-pronged trident and a shield, bearing the Union Flag. Sometimes she is depicted as riding on the back of a lion. At and since the height of the British Empire, Britannia has often been associated with maritime dominance, as in the patriotic song "Rule, Britannia!". The lion symbol is depicted behind Britannia on the British fifty pence coin and one is shown crowned on the back of the British ten pence coin. It is also used as a symbol on the non-ceremonial flag of the British Army. The bulldog is sometimes used as a symbol of the United Kingdom and has been associated with Winston Churchill's defiance of Nazi Germany.[443]

See also

- Outline of the United Kingdom
- Index of United Kingdom-related articles

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History of the British Isles

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

"History of Britain" redirects here. For other uses, see History of Britain (disambiguation).

The **history of the British Isles** has witnessed intermittent periods of competition and cooperation between the people that occupy the various parts of Great Britain, Ireland, and the smaller adjacent islands, which together make up the British Isles, as well as with France, Germany, the Low Countries, Denmark, Scandinavia, etc.

Today, the British Isles contain two sovereign states: the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom. There are also three Crown dependencies: Guernsey, Jersey and the Isle of Man. The United Kingdom may be further broken down into the four countries of the United Kingdom: England, Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. Each of these countries bears its own history, with all but Northern Ireland having been independent states at one point. The History of the formation of the United Kingdom is very complex.



Bayeux Tapestry depicting events leading to Norman conquest of England, a moment that defined much of the history of the British Isles since.

The British monarch was head of state of all of the countries of the British Isles from the Union of the Crowns in 1603 until the enactment of the Republic of Ireland Act in 1949, although the term "British Isles" was not used in 1603. Additionally, since the independence of Ireland, historians of the region often avoid the term *British Isles* due to the complexity of relations between the peoples of the archipelago (see: *Terminology of the British Isles*).

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Palaeolithic and Mesolithic periods [edit]

The Palaeolithic and Mesolithic, also known as the Old and Middle Stone Ages, were characterised by a hunter-gatherer economy and a reliance on stone tool technologies.

Lower Palaeolithic

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The Lower Palaeolithic period in Britain saw its first inhabitation by early hominins.

One of the most prominent archaeological sites dating to this period is that of Boxgrove Quarry in West Sussex, southern England.

Upper Palaeolithic [edit]

Mesolithic [edit]

By the Mesolithic, *homo sapiens*, or modern humans, were the only hominin species to still survive in the British Isles.

Neolithic and Bronze Ages [edit]

In the British Isles, the Neolithic and Bronze Ages saw the transformation of British and Irish society and landscape. It saw the adoption of agriculture, as communities gave up their hunter-gatherer modes of existence to begin farming.

Early Neolithic [edit]

Late Neolithic and Early Bronze Age [edit]

Late Bronze Age [edit]

Iron Age [edit]

As its name suggests, the British Iron Age is also characterised by the adoption of iron, a metal which was used to produce a variety of different tools, ornaments and weapons.

Roman Britain [edit]

From 40 CE through to c.410 CE, southern Britain was a part of the Roman Empire, with archaeologists referring to this area as "Roman Britain", and this time span the "Romano-British period" or the "Roman Iron Age".

Mediaeval period [edit]

Early Mediaeval [edit]

Late Mediaeval [edit]

In 1066, William, Duke of Normandy invaded England, claiming that he was the rightful heir to the throne, and successfully defeated King Harold II at the Battle of Hastings. Proclaiming himself to be King William I, he set about solidifying his regime by appointing Normans to many of the positions of high authority, building a system of castles across the country and ordering a census of his new kingdom, the Doomsday Book.

Early modern period [edit]

18th and 19th centuries [edit]

20th and 21st centuries [edit]

1900-1950 [edit]

In 1922, the Irish Home Rule movement finally succeeded in its goals, and the U.K. government accepted the secession of the southern part of Ireland as an independent state.

As World War II broke out across Europe in 1939, the U.K. joined the Allied forces in opposition to the Axis forces of Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy, whilst the Republic of Ireland instead remained neutral throughout the conflict. At the war's end in 1945, the U.K. emerged as one of the victorious nations.

1950-1999 [edit]

Domestically, the 1960s onward saw a liberalisation of social attitudes in both the Irish Republic and the U.K., with the rise of movements such as second wave feminism and LGBT rights. Politically, the U.K. was dominated by the centre-left Labour Party, who enacted a number of social democratic reforms, such as the implementation of the National Health Service, and the right-centre right Conservative Party.

On the international stage, the second half of the 20th century was dominated by the Cold War between the Soviet Union and its socialist allies and the United States and its capitalist allies; the U.K. was a key supporter of the latter, joining the anti-Soviet military alliance NATO in 1949. During this period, the U.K. became involved in several Cold War conflicts, such as the Korean War (1950-1953), as well as unrelated conflicts such as the Falklands War (1982). In contrast, the Republic of Ireland remained neutral and avoided involvement in any foreign wars during this period.

2000-present [edit]

In the 21st century, the U.K. became a major supporter of the U.S. in their "War on Terror", and joined them in the War in

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Afghanistan (2001-present) and the invasion of Iraq. The UK also took a leading role in the civilian protection campaign against Muammar Gaddafi's government in the 2011 military intervention in Libya.

Both the U.K. and the Irish Republic were affected by the global recession.

Periods [edit]

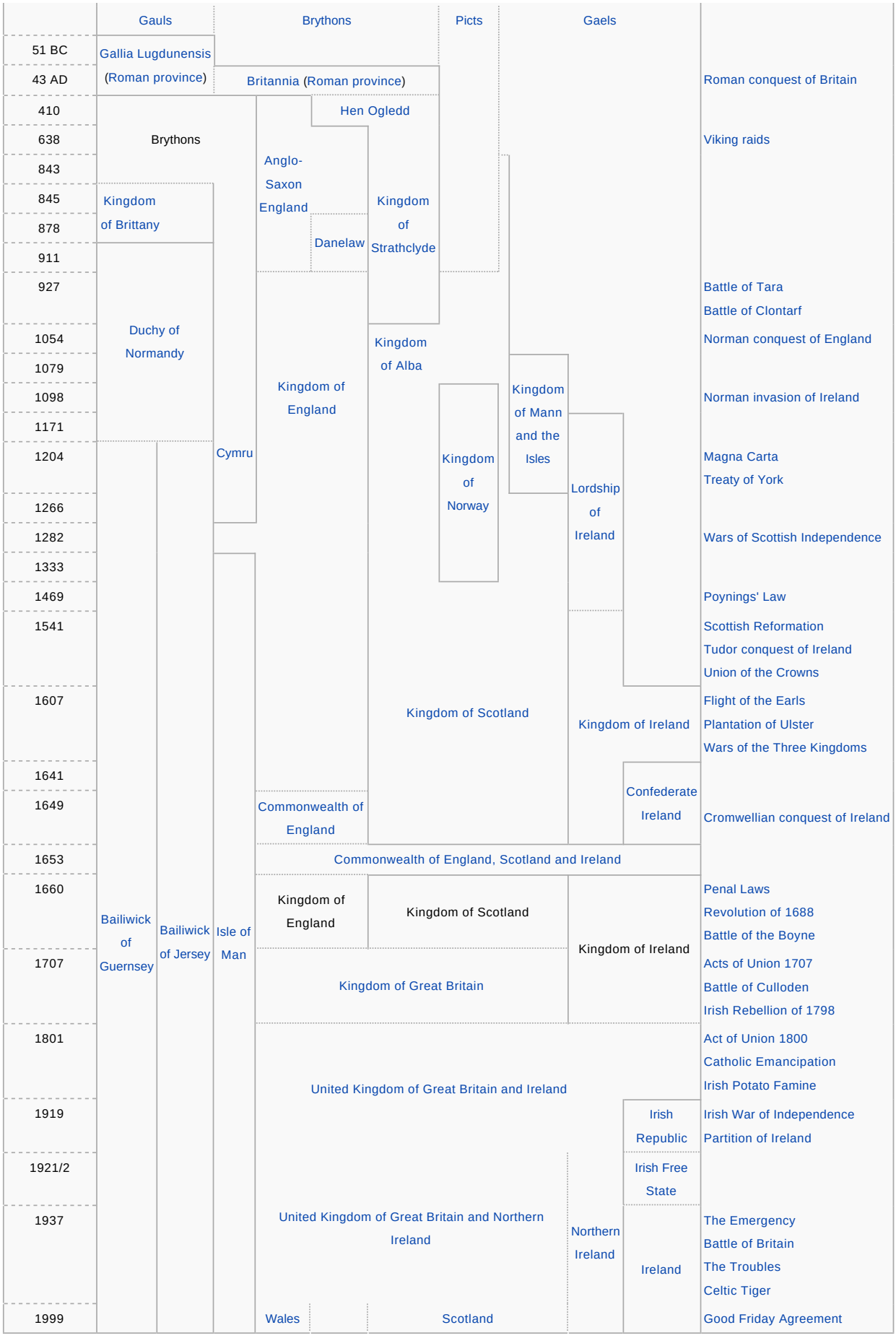
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6th to 1st c. BC	British Iron Age, Iron Age tribes in Britain, Iron Age Ireland	

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Geographic [edit]

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  - History of Cornwall
  - History of London
- History of Scotland
- History of Wales
- History of Ireland

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- History of Northern Ireland
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- Kingdom of Great Britain (1707–1801)
- United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (1801–1927)
- United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (1927 –)
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- Geology of the United Kingdom - for history before human occupation
- History of British society
- List of natural disasters in the United Kingdom
- History of the horse in Britain

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- *Shortened History of England* by G. M. Trevelyan Penguin Books ISBN 0-14-023323-7
- *This Sceptred Isle: 55BC-1901* by Christopher Lee Penguin Books ISBN 0-14-026133-8 (originally a radio series [1])
- *The Reduced History of Britain - by Chas Newkey-Burden*

External links *[edit]*

- *World History Database*
- *The most comprehensive sites on British History*
- *Encyclopedia of British History*
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- *British History Interactive Timeline*
- *Rutgers University Libraries - American and British History*
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- *Mytimemachine.co.uk*
- *The History Files* *[2]*

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Terminology Britain Éire Naming dispute		
Politics	Sovereign states	Ireland United Kingdom (constituent countries: England Northern Ireland Scotland Wales)
	British Crown dependencies	Guernsey Jersey Isle of Man

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	Political cooperation	British–Irish Council British–Irish Parliamentary Assembly Common Travel Area North/South Ministerial Council British-Irish Intergovernmental Conference
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Monarchy of the United Kingdom

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of the United Kingdom** (commonly referred to as the **British monarchy**) is the constitutional monarchy of the United Kingdom and its overseas territories. The present monarch, Queen Elizabeth II, has reigned since 6 February 1952. She and her immediate family undertake various official, ceremonial and representational duties. As a constitutional monarch, the Queen is limited to non-partisan functions such as bestowing honours and appointing the Prime Minister. The Queen is also Commander-in-chief of the British Armed Forces. Though the ultimate executive authority over the government of the United Kingdom is still by and through the monarch's royal prerogative, these powers may only be used according to laws enacted in Parliament, and, in practice, within the constraints of convention and precedent.

Queen of the United Kingdom

MONARCHY



Royal coat of arms of the United Kingdom



Incumbent:
Elizabeth II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Charles, Prince of Wales
Residence:	Buckingham Palace as officical residence
Website:	The British Monarchy (http://www.royal.gov.uk/)

The British monarchy traces its origins from the Kings of the Angles and the early Scottish Kings. By the year 1000, the kingdoms of England and Scotland had developed from the petty kingdoms of early medieval Britain. The last Anglo-Saxon monarch (Harold II) was defeated and killed in the Norman invasion of 1066 and the English monarchy passed to the Norman conquerors. In the thirteenth century, the principality of Wales was absorbed by England, and Magna Carta began the process of reducing the political powers of the monarch.

From 1603, when the Scottish King James VI inherited the English throne as James I, both kingdoms were ruled by a single monarch. From 1649 to 1660 the tradition of monarchy was broken by the republican Commonwealth of England that followed the War of the Three Kingdoms. The Act of Settlement 1701, which is still in force, excluded Roman Catholics, or those married to Catholics, from succession to the English throne. In 1707 the kingdoms of England and Scotland were merged to create the Kingdom of Great Britain and in 1801 the Kingdom of Ireland joined to create the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The British monarch became nominal head of the vast British Empire, which covered a quarter of the world's surface at its greatest extent in 1921.

In the 1920s, five-sixths of Ireland seceded from the Union as the Irish Free State, and the Balfour Declaration recognised the evolution of the dominions of the empire into separate, self-governing countries within a Commonwealth of Nations. After the Second World War, the vast majority of British colonies and territories became independent, effectively bringing the empire to an end. George VI and his successor, Elizabeth II, adopted the title Head of the Commonwealth as a symbol of the free association of its independent member states.

The Commonwealth includes both republics and monarchies. At present fifteen other Commonwealth countries

share with the United Kingdom the same person as their monarch. The terms *British monarchy* and *British monarch* are frequently still employed in reference to the person and institution shared amongst all sixteen of the Commonwealth realms,[1][2] and to the distinct monarchies within each of these independent countries, often at variance with the different, specific, and official national titles and styles for each jurisdiction.

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Constitutional role

In the uncodified Constitution of the United Kingdom, the Monarch (otherwise referred to as the Sovereign or "His/Her Majesty", abbreviated H.M.) is the Head of State. Oaths of allegiance are made to the Queen and her lawful successors.[3] *God Save the Queen* (or *God Save the King*) is the British national anthem,[4] and the monarch appears on postage stamps, coins, and banknotes.[5]

The Monarch takes little direct part in Government. The decisions to exercise sovereign powers are delegated from the Monarch, either by statute or by convention, to Ministers or officers of the Crown, or other public bodies, exclusive of the Monarch personally. Thus the acts of state done in the name of the Crown, such as Crown Appointments,[6] even if personally performed by the Monarch, such as the Queen's Speech and the State Opening of Parliament, depend upon decisions made elsewhere:

- Legislative power is exercised by the Crown in Parliament, by and with the advice and consent of

Parliament, the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

- Executive power is exercised by Her Majesty's Government, which comprises Ministers, primarily the Prime Minister and the Cabinet, which is technically a committee of the Privy Council. They have the direction of the Armed Forces of the Crown, the Civil Service and other Crown Servants such as the Diplomatic and Secret Services (the Queen receives certain foreign intelligence reports before the Prime Minister does[7]).
- Judicial power is vested in the Judiciary, who by constitution and statute[8] have judicial independence of the Government.
- The Church of England, of which the Monarch is the head, has its own legislative, judicial and executive structures.
- Powers independent of government are legally granted to other public bodies by statute or statutory instrument such as an Order in Council, Royal Commission or otherwise.
- Apart from members of parliament and local authorities, no public officers are elected.

The Sovereign's role as a constitutional monarch is largely limited to non-partisan functions, such as granting honours. This role has been recognised since the 19th century; the constitutional writer Walter Bagehot identified the monarchy in 1867 as the "dignified part" rather than the "efficient part" of government.[9] It has also been claimed that "the UK needs a head of state for the very occasional crisis."[10]



The English Bill of Rights of 1689 curtailed the monarch's governmental power.

Appointment of the Prime Minister

Whenever necessary, the Monarch is responsible for appointing a new Prime Minister (who by convention appoints and may dismiss every other Minister of the Crown, and thereby constitutes and controls the government). In accordance with unwritten constitutional conventions, the Sovereign must appoint an individual who commands the support of the House of Commons, usually the leader of the party or coalition that has a majority in that House. The Prime Minister takes office by attending the Monarch in private audience, and after Kissing Hands that appointment is immediately effective without any other formality or instrument.[11]

In a "hung parliament", in which no party or coalition holds a majority, the monarch has an increased degree of latitude in choosing the individual likely to command most support, but it would usually be the leader of the largest party.[12][13] Since 1945, there have only been two hung parliaments. The first followed the February 1974 general election when Harold Wilson was appointed Prime Minister after Edward Heath resigned the post following his failure to form a coalition. Although Wilson's Labour Party did not have a majority, they were the largest party. The second followed the May 2010 general election, in which the Conservatives (the largest party) and Liberal Democrats agreed to form the first coalition government since World War II.

Dissolution of Parliament

In 1950 the King's Private Secretary writing pseudonymously to *the Times* newspaper asserted a constitutional convention: according to the Lascelles Principles, if a minority government asked to dissolve Parliament to call an early election to strengthen its position, the monarch could

refuse, and would do so under three conditions. When Prime Minister Wilson requested a dissolution late in 1974, the Queen granted his request as Heath had already failed to form a coalition. The resulting general election gave Wilson a small majority.[14] The monarch could in theory unilaterally dismiss a Prime Minister, but a Prime Minister's term now comes to an end only by electoral defeat, death, or resignation. The last monarch to remove a Prime Minister was William IV, who dismissed Lord Melbourne in 1834.[15] The Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011 removed the monarch's authority to dissolve Parliament.

Royal Prerogative

Main article: Royal Prerogative in the United Kingdom

Some of the government's executive authority is theoretically and nominally vested in the Sovereign and is known as the Royal Prerogative. The monarch acts within the constraints of convention and precedent, only exercising prerogative on the advice of ministers responsible to Parliament, often through the Prime Minister or Privy Council.[16] In practice, prerogative powers are only exercised on the Prime Minister's advice—the Prime Minister, and not the Sovereign, has control. The monarch holds a weekly audience with the Prime Minister. The monarch may express his or her views, but, as a constitutional ruler, must ultimately accept the decisions of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet (providing they command the support of the House). In Bagehot's words: "the Sovereign has, under a constitutional monarchy ... three rights—the right to be consulted, the right to encourage, the right to warn."[17]

Although the Royal Prerogative is extensive and parliamentary approval is not formally required for its exercise, it is limited. Many Crown prerogatives have fallen out of use or have been permanently transferred to Parliament. For example, the monarch cannot impose and collect new taxes; such an action requires the authorisation of an Act of Parliament. According to a parliamentary report, "The Crown cannot invent new prerogative powers", and Parliament can override any prerogative power by passing legislation.[18]

The Royal Prerogative includes the powers to appoint and dismiss ministers, regulate the civil service, issue passports, declare war, make peace, direct the actions of the military, and negotiate and ratify treaties, alliances, and international agreements. However, a treaty cannot alter the domestic laws of the United Kingdom; an Act of Parliament is necessary in such cases. The monarch is commander in chief of the Armed Forces (the Royal Navy, the British Army, and the Royal Air Force), accredits British High Commissioners and ambassadors, and receives diplomats from foreign states.[18]

It is the prerogative of the monarch to summon and prorogue Parliament. Each parliamentary session begins with the monarch's summons. The new parliamentary session is marked by the State Opening of Parliament, during which the Sovereign reads the Speech from the Throne in the Chamber of the House of Lords, outlining the Government's legislative agenda.[19] Prorogation usually occurs about one year after a session begins, and formally concludes the session.[20] Dissolution ends a parliamentary term, and is followed by a general election for all seats in the House of Commons. A general election is normally held five years after the previous one under the Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011, but can be held sooner if the Prime Minister loses a motion of confidence, or if two-thirds of the members of the House of Commons vote to hold an early election.

Before a bill passed by the legislative Houses can become law, the Royal Assent (the monarch's approval) is required.[21] In theory, assent can either be granted (making the bill law) or withheld (vetoing the bill), but since 1707 assent has always been granted.[22]

The monarch has a similar relationship with the devolved governments of Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. The Sovereign appoints the First Minister of Scotland on the nomination of the Scottish Parliament,[23] and the

First Minister of Wales on the nomination of the National Assembly for Wales.[24] In Scottish matters, the Sovereign acts on the advice of the Scottish Government. However, as devolution is more limited in Wales, in Welsh matters the Sovereign acts on the advice of the Prime Minister and Cabinet of the United Kingdom. The Sovereign can veto any law passed by the Northern Ireland Assembly, if it is deemed unconstitutional by the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland.[25]

The Sovereign is deemed the "fount of justice"; although the Sovereign does not personally rule in judicial cases, judicial functions are performed in his or her name. For instance, prosecutions are brought on the monarch's behalf, and courts derive their authority from the Crown. The common law holds that the Sovereign "can do no wrong"; the monarch cannot be prosecuted for criminal offences. The Crown Proceedings Act 1947 allows civil lawsuits against the Crown in its public capacity (that is, lawsuits against the government), but not lawsuits against the monarch personally. The Sovereign exercises the "prerogative of mercy", which is used to pardon convicted offenders or reduce sentences.[16][18]

The monarch is the "fount of honour", the source of all honours and dignities in the United Kingdom. The Crown creates all peerages, appoints members of the orders of chivalry, grants knighthoods and awards other honours.[26] Although peerages and most other honours are granted on the advice of the Prime Minister, some honours are within the personal gift of the Sovereign, and are not granted on ministerial advice. The monarch alone appoints members of the Order of the Garter, the Order of the Thistle, the Royal Victorian Order and the Order of Merit.[27]

History

English monarchy

See also: List of English monarchs

Following Viking raids and settlement in the ninth century, the Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Wessex emerged as the dominant English kingdom. Alfred the Great secured Wessex, achieved dominance over western Mercia, and assumed the title "King of the English".[28] His grandson Athelstan was the first king to rule over a unitary kingdom roughly corresponding to the present borders of England, though its constituent parts retained strong regional identities. The 11th century saw England become more stable, despite a number of wars with the Danes, which resulted in a Danish monarchy for one generation.[29] William, Duke of Normandy's conquest of England in 1066 was crucial in terms of both political and social change. The new monarch continued the centralisation of power begun in the Anglo-Saxon period, while the Feudal System continued to develop.[30]



The Bayeux Tapestry depicts the Norman Conquest of 1066.

William I was succeeded by two of his sons: William II, then Henry I. Henry made a controversial decision to name his daughter Matilda (his only surviving child) as his heir. Following Henry's death in 1135 one of William I's grandsons, Stephen, laid claim to the throne, and took power with the support of most of the barons. Matilda challenged his reign; as a result England descended into a period of disorder known as the Anarchy. Stephen maintained a precarious hold on power but agreed to a compromise under which Matilda's son Henry would succeed him. Henry accordingly became the first monarch of the Angevin or Plantagenet dynasty as Henry II in 1154.[31]

The reigns of most of the Angevin monarchs were marred by civil strife

and conflicts between the monarch and the nobility. Henry II faced rebellions from his own sons, the future monarchs Richard I and John. Nevertheless, Henry managed to expand his kingdom. Upon Henry's death, his elder son Richard succeeded to the throne; he was absent from England for most of his reign, as he left to fight in the Crusades. He was killed besieging a castle, and John succeeded him.

John's reign was marked by conflict with the barons, particularly over the limits of royal power. In 1215 the barons coerced the king into issuing the Magna Carta (Latin for "Great Charter") to guarantee the rights and liberties of the nobility. Soon afterwards further disagreements plunged England into a civil war known as the First Barons' War. The war came to an abrupt end after John died in 1216, leaving the Crown to his nine-year-old son Henry III.[32] Later in Henry's reign, Simon de Montfort led the barons in another rebellion, beginning the Second Barons' War. The war ended in a clear royalist victory, and in the death of many rebels, but not before the king had agreed to summon a parliament in 1265.[33]

The next monarch, Edward I ("Edward Longshanks"), was far more successful in maintaining royal power, and was responsible for the conquest of Wales. He attempted to establish English domination of Scotland. However, gains in Scotland were reversed during the reign of his successor, Edward II, who also faced conflict with the nobility.[34] Edward II was, in 1311, forced to relinquish many of his powers to a committee of baronial "ordainers"; however, military victories helped him regain control in 1322.[35] Nevertheless, in 1327 Edward was deposed and then murdered by his wife Isabella. His 14-year-old son became Edward III. Edward III claimed the French Crown, setting off the Hundred Years' War between England and France.

His campaigns conquered much French territory, but by 1374 all the gains had been lost. Edward's reign was also marked by the further development of Parliament, which came to be divided into two Houses. In 1377 Edward III died, leaving the Crown to his 10-year-old grandson Richard II. Like many of his predecessors, Richard II conflicted with the nobles by attempting to concentrate power in his own hands. In 1399, while he was campaigning in Ireland, his cousin Henry Bolingbroke seized power. Richard was deposed, imprisoned, and eventually murdered, probably by starvation, and Henry became king.[36]

Henry IV was the grandson of Edward III and the son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster; hence, his dynasty was known as the House of Lancaster. For most of his reign, Henry IV was forced to fight off plots and rebellions; his success was partly due to the military skill of his son, the future Henry V. Henry V's own reign, which began in 1413, was largely free from domestic strife, leaving the king free to pursue the Hundred Years' War in France. Although he was victorious, his sudden death in 1422 left his infant son Henry VI on the throne, and gave the French an opportunity to overthrow English rule.[37]

The unpopularity of Henry's counsellors and his belligerent consort, Margaret of Anjou, as well as his own ineffectual leadership, led to the weakening of the House of Lancaster. The Lancastrians faced a challenge from the House of York, so called because its head, a descendant of Edward III, was Richard, Duke of York. Although the Duke of York died in battle in 1460, his eldest son Edward IV led the Yorkists to victory in 1461. The Wars of the Roses, nevertheless, continued intermittently during his reign and those of his son Edward V and brother Richard III. Edward V disappeared, presumably murdered by Richard. Ultimately, the conflict culminated in success for the Lancastrian branch led by Henry Tudor, in 1485, when Richard III was killed in the Battle of Bosworth Field.[38]

Now as King Henry VII, Henry Tudor neutralised the remaining Yorkist forces, partly by marrying Elizabeth of York, a Yorkist heir. Through skill and ability, Henry re-established absolute supremacy in the realm, and the conflicts with the nobility that had plagued previous monarchs came to an end.[39] The reign of the second Tudor king, Henry VIII, was one of great political change. Religious upheaval and disputes with the Pope led the monarch to break from the Roman Catholic Church and to establish the Church of England (the Anglican

Church).[40]

Wales, which had been conquered centuries earlier but had remained a separate dominion, was annexed to England under the Laws in Wales Acts 1535–1542.[41] Henry VIII's son and successor, the young Edward VI, continued with further religious reforms but his early death in 1553 precipitated a succession crisis. He was wary of allowing his Catholic elder half-sister Mary to succeed, and therefore drew up a will designating Lady Jane Grey as his heiress. Jane's reign however lasted only nine days; with tremendous popular support, Mary deposed her, and declared herself the lawful Sovereign. Mary I pursued disastrous wars in France and attempted to return England to Roman Catholicism, in the process burning Protestants at the stake as heretics. She died in 1558, and was succeeded by her Protestant half-sister Elizabeth I. England returned to Protestantism, and continued its growth into a major world power by building its navy and exploring the New World.[42]

Scottish monarchy

See also: List of Scottish monarchs

In Scotland, as in England, monarchies emerged after the withdrawal of the Roman empire from Britain in the early fifth century. The three groups that lived in Scotland at this time were the Picts in the north east, the Britons in the south, including the Kingdom of Strathclyde, and the Gaels or Scotti (who would later give their name to Scotland), of the Irish petty kingdom of Dál Riata in the west. Kenneth MacAlpin is traditionally viewed as the first king of a united Scotland (known as Scotia to writers in Latin, or Alba to the Scots).[43] The expansion of Scottish dominions continued over the next two centuries, as other territories such as Strathclyde were absorbed.

Early Scottish monarchs did not inherit the Crown directly; instead the custom of tanistry was followed, where the monarchy alternated between different branches of the House of Alpin. As a result, however, the rival dynastic lines clashed, often violently. From 942 to 1005, seven consecutive monarchs were either murdered or killed in battle.[44] In 1005, Malcolm II ascended the throne having killed many rivals. He continued to ruthlessly eliminate opposition, and when he died in 1034 he was succeeded by his grandson, Duncan I, instead of a cousin, as had been usual. In 1040, Duncan suffered defeat in battle at the hands of Macbeth, who was killed himself in 1057 by Duncan's son Malcolm. The following year, after killing Macbeth's stepson Lulach, Malcolm ascended the throne as Malcolm III.[45]

With a further series of battles and deposings, five of Malcolm's sons as well as one of his brothers successively became king. Eventually, the Crown came to his youngest son, David. David was succeeded by his grandsons Malcolm IV, and then by William the Lion, the longest-reigning King of Scots before the Union of the Crowns.[46] William participated in a rebellion against King Henry II of England but when the rebellion failed, William was captured by the English. In exchange for his release, William was forced to acknowledge Henry as his feudal overlord. The English King Richard I agreed to terminate the arrangement in 1189, in return for a large sum of money needed for the Crusades.[47] William died in 1214, and was succeeded by his son Alexander II. Alexander II, as well as his successor Alexander III, attempted to take over the Western Isles, which were still under the overlordship of Norway. During the reign of Alexander III, Norway launched an unsuccessful invasion of Scotland; the ensuing Treaty of Perth recognised Scottish control of the Western Isles and other disputed areas.[48]

Alexander III's unexpected death in a riding accident in 1286 precipitated a major succession crisis. Scottish leaders appealed to King Edward I of England for help in determining who was the rightful heir. Edward chose Alexander's three-year-old Norwegian granddaughter, Margaret. On her way to Scotland in 1290, however, Margaret died at sea, and Edward was again asked to adjudicate between 13 rival claimants to the throne. A

court was set up and after two years of deliberation, it pronounced John Balliol to be king. However, Edward proceeded to treat Balliol as a vassal, and tried to exert influence over Scotland. In 1295, when Balliol renounced his allegiance to England, Edward I invaded. During the first ten years of the ensuing Wars of Scottish Independence, Scotland had no monarch, until Robert the Bruce declared himself king in 1306.[49]

Robert's efforts to control Scotland culminated in success, and Scottish independence was acknowledged in 1328. However, only one year later, Robert died and was succeeded by his five-year-old son, David II. On the pretext of restoring John Balliol's rightful heir, Edward Balliol, the English again invaded in 1332. During the next four years, Balliol was crowned, deposed, restored, deposed, restored, and deposed until he eventually settled in England, and David remained king for the next 35 years.[50]

David II died childless in 1371 and was succeeded by his nephew Robert II of the House of Stuart. The reigns of both Robert II and his successor, Robert III, were marked by a general decline in royal power. When Robert III died in 1406, regents had to rule the country; the monarch, Robert III's son James I, had been taken captive by the English. Having paid a large ransom, James returned to Scotland in 1424; to restore his authority, he used ruthless measures, including the execution of several of his enemies. He was assassinated by a group of nobles. James II continued his father's policies by subduing influential noblemen but he was killed in an accident at the age of thirty, and a council of regents again assumed power. James III was defeated in a battle against rebellious Scottish earls in 1488, leading to another boy-king: James IV.[51]

In 1513, James IV launched an invasion of England, attempting to take advantage of the absence of the English King Henry VIII. His forces met with disaster at Flodden Field; the King, many senior noblemen, and hundreds of soldiers were killed. As his son and successor, James V, was an infant, the government was again taken over by regents. James V led another disastrous war with the English in 1542, and his death in the same year left the Crown in the hands of his six-day-old daughter, Mary. Once again, a regency was established.

Mary, a Roman Catholic, reigned during a period of great religious upheaval in Scotland. Due to the efforts of reformers such as John Knox, a Protestant ascendancy was established. Mary caused alarm by marrying her Catholic cousin, Lord Darnley, in 1565. After Lord Darnley's assassination in 1567, Mary contracted an even more unpopular marriage with the Earl of Bothwell, who was widely suspected of Darnley's murder. The nobility rebelled against the Queen, forcing her to abdicate. She fled to England, and the Crown went to her infant son James VI, who was brought up as a Protestant. Mary was imprisoned and later executed by the English Queen Elizabeth I.[52]

Personal union and republican phase

Elizabeth's death in 1603 ended Tudor rule in England. Since she had no children, she was succeeded by the Scottish monarch James VI, who was the great-grandson of Henry VIII's older sister and hence Elizabeth's first cousin twice removed. James VI ruled in England as James I after what was known as the "Union of the Crowns". Although England and Scotland were in personal union under one monarch—James I became the first monarch to style himself "King of Great Britain" in 1604[53]—they remained separate kingdoms. James I's successor, Charles I, experienced frequent conflicts with the English Parliament related to the issue of royal and parliamentary powers, especially the power to impose taxes. He provoked opposition by ruling without Parliament from 1629 to 1640, unilaterally levying taxes, and adopting controversial religious policies (many of which were offensive to the Scottish Presbyterians and the English Puritans). In 1642, the conflict between King and Parliament reached its climax and the English Civil War began.[54]

The war culminated in the execution of the king in 1649, the overthrow of the monarchy, and the establishment of a republic known as the Commonwealth of England. In 1653, Oliver Cromwell, the most prominent military

and political leader in the nation, seized power and declared himself Lord Protector (effectively becoming a military dictator, but refusing the title of king). Cromwell ruled until his death in 1658, when he was succeeded by his son Richard. The new Lord Protector had little interest in governing; he soon resigned.[55] The lack of clear leadership led to civil and military unrest, and for a popular desire to restore the monarchy. In 1660, the monarchy was restored when Charles I's son Charles II was declared king.[56]



In 1603 James VI and I became the first monarch to rule over England, Scotland, and Ireland together.

Charles II's reign was marked by the development of the first modern political parties in England. Charles had no legitimate children, and was due to be succeeded by his Roman Catholic brother, James, Duke of York. A parliamentary effort to exclude James from the line of succession arose; the "Petitioners", who supported exclusion, became the Whig Party, whereas the "Abhorrers", who opposed exclusion, became the Tory Party. The Exclusion Bill failed; on several occasions, Charles II dissolved Parliament because he feared that the bill might pass. After the dissolution of the Parliament of 1681, Charles ruled without a Parliament until his death in 1685. When James succeeded Charles, he pursued a policy of offering religious tolerance to Roman Catholics, thereby drawing the ire of many of his Protestant subjects. Many opposed James's decisions to maintain a large standing army, to appoint Roman Catholics to high political and military offices, and to imprison Church of England clerics who challenged his policies. As a result, a group of Protestants known as the Immortal Seven invited James II's daughter Mary and her husband William of Orange to depose the king. William obliged, arriving in England on 5 November 1688 to great public support. Faced with the defection of many of his Protestant officials, James fled the realm and William and Mary (rather than James II's Catholic son) were declared joint Sovereigns of England, Scotland and Ireland.[57]

James's overthrow, known as the Glorious Revolution, was one of the most important events in the long evolution of parliamentary power. The Bill of Rights 1689 affirmed parliamentary supremacy, and declared that the English people held certain rights, including the freedom from taxes imposed without parliamentary consent. The Bill of Rights required future monarchs to be Protestants, and provided that, after any children of William and Mary, Mary's sister Anne would inherit the Crown. Mary died childless in 1694, leaving William as the sole monarch. By 1700, a political crisis arose, as all of Anne's children had died, leaving her as the only individual left in the line of succession. Parliament was afraid that the former James II or his supporters, known as Jacobites, might attempt to reclaim the throne. Parliament passed the Act of Settlement 1701, which excluded James and his Catholic relations from the succession and made William's nearest Protestant relations, the family of Sophia, Electress of Hanover, next in line to the throne after his sister-in-law Anne.[58] Soon after the passage of the Act, William III died, leaving the Crown to Anne.

After the 1707 Acts of Union

See also: List of British monarchs

After Anne's accession, the problem of the succession re-emerged. The Scottish Parliament, infuriated that the English Parliament did not consult them on the choice of Sophia's family as the next heirs, passed the Act of Security, threatening to end the personal union between England and Scotland. The Parliament of England retaliated with the Alien Act 1705, threatening to devastate the Scottish economy by restricting trade. The

Scottish and English parliaments negotiated the Act of Union 1707, under which England and Scotland were united into a single Kingdom of Great Britain, with succession under the rules prescribed by the Act of Settlement.[59]



England and Scotland were united as Great Britain under Queen Anne in 1707.

In 1714, Queen Anne was succeeded by her second cousin, and Sophia's son, George I, Elector of Hanover, who consolidated his position by defeating Jacobite rebellions in 1715 and 1719. The new monarch was less active in government than many of his British predecessors, but retained control over his German kingdoms, with which Britain was now in personal union.[60] Power shifted towards George's ministers, especially to Sir Robert Walpole, who is often considered the first Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, although the title was not then in use.[61] The next monarch, George II, witnessed the final end of the Jacobite threat in 1746, when the Catholic Stuarts were completely defeated. During the long reign of his grandson, George III, Britain's American colonies were lost, the former colonies having formed the United States of America, but British influence elsewhere in the world continued to grow, and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland was created by the Act of Union 1800.[62]



The union of Great Britain and Ireland into the United Kingdom occurred in 1801 during the reign of King George III.

From 1811 to 1820 George III suffered a severe bout of what is now believed to be porphyria, an illness rendering him incapable of ruling. His son, the future George IV, ruled in his stead as Prince Regent. During the Regency and his own reign, the power of the monarchy declined and by the time of his successor, William IV, the monarch was no longer able to effectively interfere with parliamentary power. In 1834, William dismissed the Whig Prime Minister, William Lamb, 2nd Viscount Melbourne, and appointed a Tory, Sir Robert Peel. In the ensuing elections, however, Peel lost. The King had no choice but to recall Lord Melbourne. During William IV's reign the Reform Act 1832, which reformed parliamentary representation, was passed. Together with others passed later in the century, the Act led to an expansion of the electoral franchise, and the rise of the House of Commons as the most important branch of Parliament.[63]

The final transition to a constitutional monarchy was made during the long reign of William IV's successor, Victoria. As a woman, Victoria could not rule Hanover, which only permitted succession in the male line, so the personal union of the United Kingdom and Hanover came to an end. The Victorian era was marked by great cultural change, technological progress, and the establishment of the United Kingdom as one of the world's foremost powers. In recognition of British rule over India, Victoria was declared Empress of India in 1876. However, her reign was also marked by increased support for the republican movement, due in part to Victoria's permanent mourning and lengthy period of seclusion following the death of her husband in 1861.[64]

Victoria's son, Edward VII, became the first monarch of the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha in 1901. In 1917, the next monarch, George V, changed "Saxe-Coburg and Gotha" to "Windsor" due to the anti-German

sympathies aroused by the First World War. George V's reign was marked by the separation of Ireland into Northern Ireland, which remained a part of the United Kingdom, and the Irish Free State, an independent nation, in 1922.[65]

Shared monarchy

During the twentieth century, the Commonwealth of Nations evolved from the British Empire. Prior to 1926, the British Crown reigned over the British Empire collectively, the Dominions and Crown colonies were subordinate to the United Kingdom. The Balfour Declaration of 1926 gave complete self-government to the Dominions, effectively creating a system whereby a single monarch operated independently in each separate Dominion. The concept was solidified by the Statute of Westminster 1931,[66] which has been likened to "a treaty among the Commonwealth countries".[67]



Map of the British Empire in 1921



Map of the Commonwealth realms today

The monarchy thus ceased to be an exclusively British institution, although it is often still referred to as "British" for legal and historical reasons and for convenience. The monarch became separately monarch of the United Kingdom, monarch of Canada, monarch of Australia, and so forth. The independent states within the Commonwealth, known as the Commonwealth realms, would share the same monarch in a relationship likened to a personal union.[68][69][70][71]

George V's death in 1936 was followed by the accession of Edward VIII, who caused a public scandal by announcing his desire to marry the divorced American, Wallis Simpson, even though the Church of England opposed the remarriage of divorcées. Accordingly, Edward announced his intention to abdicate; the Parliaments of the United Kingdom and of other Commonwealth realms granted his request. Edward VIII and any children by his new wife were excluded from the line of succession, and the Crown went to his brother, George VI.[72] George served as a rallying figure for the British people during World War II, making morale-boosting visits to the troops as well as to munitions factories and to areas bombed by Nazi Germany. After the war George VI relinquished the title "Emperor of India", when India became independent in 1947, and became "King of India" instead.[73]

At first, every member of the Commonwealth was a Commonwealth realm but when India became a republic in 1950, it would no longer share in a common monarchy. Instead, the British monarch was acknowledged as "Head of the Commonwealth" in all Commonwealth member states, whether realms or not. The position is purely ceremonial, and is not inherited by the British monarch as of right but is vested in an individual chosen by the Commonwealth Heads of Government.[74]

Monarchy in Ireland

See also: List of Irish monarchs

In the 12th century the only English pope, Adrian IV, authorised King Henry II of England to take possession of Ireland as a feudal territory nominally under papal overlordship. Celtic Christianity was not closely following Roman Catholic practices, and was accused of heretical beliefs. The pope wanted the English monarch to annex Ireland and bring the Irish church into line with Rome.[75] Around 1170, King Dermot MacMurrough of Leinster was deposed by his arch-enemy King Rory O'Connor of Connacht. Dermot escaped to England and asked Henry

for help. Henry let him use a group of Anglo-Norman aristocrats and adventurers, led by Richard de Clare, 2nd Earl of Pembroke, to help him regain his throne. Dermot and his Anglo-Norman allies succeeded and he became King of Leinster again. De Clare married Dermot's daughter, and when Dermot died in 1171, de Clare became King of Leinster.[76] Henry was afraid that de Clare would make Ireland a rival Norman state or a place of refuge for Anglo-Saxons, so he took advantage of the papal bull and invaded, forcing de Clare and the other Anglo-Norman aristocrats in Ireland and some Gaelic Irish chieftains to recognise him as their overlord.[77]

By 1541, King Henry VIII of England had broken with the Church of Rome and declared himself Supreme Head of the Church of England. The pope's grant of Ireland to the English monarch became invalid, so Henry summoned a meeting of the Irish Parliament to change his title from Lord of Ireland to King of Ireland.[78]

In 1800, the Act of Union merged the kingdom of Great Britain and the kingdom of Ireland into the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Ireland continued to be a part of the United Kingdom until 1922, when what is now the Republic of Ireland won independence as the Irish Free State. The Irish Free State was a separate Dominion from 1922 until 1949, when the Free State became a republic and severed all ties with the monarchy, while Northern Ireland remained within the Union, thus creating the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.[79]

Modern status

Today, 16 of the 53 independent states within the Commonwealth, including the United Kingdom, remain Commonwealth realms and share the same monarch. The present monarch, Elizabeth II, succeeded her father, George VI, in 1952. Like her recent predecessors, Elizabeth II continues to function as a constitutional monarch. In the 1990s, Republicanism in the United Kingdom grew, partly due to negative publicity associated with the Royal Family (for instance, immediately following the death of Diana, Princess of Wales).[80] However, recent polls show that around 70–80% of the British public support the continuation of the monarchy.[81][82][83][84]

Religious role

The sovereign is the Supreme Governor of the established Church of England. Archbishops and bishops are appointed by the monarch, on the advice of the Prime Minister, who chooses the appointee from a list of nominees prepared by a Church Commission. The Crown's role in the Church of England is titular; the most senior clergyman, the Archbishop of Canterbury, is the spiritual leader of the Church and of the worldwide Anglican Communion.[85][86] The monarch takes an oath to preserve Church of Scotland and he or she holds the power to appoint the Lord High Commissioner to the Church's General Assembly, but otherwise plays no part in its governance, and enjoys no powers over it.[87][88] The Sovereign plays no formal role in the disestablished Church in Wales or Church of Ireland.

Succession

Main articles: Succession to the British throne and Coronation of the British monarch

The relationship between the Commonwealth realms is such that any change to the laws governing succession to the shared throne requires the unanimous consent of all the realms. Succession is governed by statutes such as the Bill of Rights 1689, the Act of Settlement 1701 and the Acts of Union 1707. The rules of succession may only be changed by an Act of Parliament; it is not possible for an individual to renounce his or her right of succession. The Act of Settlement restricts the succession to the legitimate Protestant descendants of Sophia of

Hanover (1630–1714), a granddaughter of James I.

Upon the death of the Sovereign, his or her heir immediately and automatically succeeds (hence the phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!"), and the accession of the sovereign is publicly proclaimed by an Accession Council that meets at St. James's Palace.[89] The monarch is crowned in Westminster Abbey, normally by the Archbishop of Canterbury. A coronation is not necessary for a sovereign to reign; indeed, the ceremony usually takes place many months after accession to allow sufficient time for its preparation and for a period of mourning.[90]

After an individual ascends the throne, he or she reigns until death. The only voluntary abdication, that of Edward VIII, had to be authorised by a special Act of Parliament, His Majesty's Declaration of Abdication Act 1936. The last monarch involuntarily removed from power was James VII and II, who fled into exile in 1688 during the Glorious Revolution.

Restrictions by gender and religion

See also: 2011 proposals to change the rules of royal succession in the Commonwealth realms

Succession is currently governed by male-preference cognatic primogeniture, under which sons inherit before daughters, and elder children inherit before younger ones of the same gender. However, on Friday 28 October 2011, the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, David Cameron, announced at the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting in Perth that all 16 Commonwealth realms, including the United Kingdom, had unanimously agreed to abolish this rule.[91] They also agreed that future monarchs should no longer be prohibited from marrying a Catholic - a law which dates from the Act of Settlement 1701, following the Glorious Revolution of 1688. However, since the monarch is also the Supreme Governor of the Church of England, the law which prohibits a Roman Catholic from acceding to the throne - which originated as a result of the English and Scots' distrust of Roman Catholicism during the late 17th century - would remain.

Only individuals who are Protestants may inherit the Crown. Roman Catholics and spouses of Roman Catholics are prohibited from succeeding.[92][93][94] An individual thus disabled from inheriting the Crown is deemed "naturally dead" for succession purposes, and the disqualification does not extend to the individual's legitimate descendants.

Regency

Main articles: Regency Acts and Counsellor of State

The Regency Acts allow for regencies in the event of a monarch who is a minor or who is physically or mentally incapacitated. When a regency is necessary, the next qualified individual in the line of succession automatically becomes regent, unless they themselves are a minor or incapacitated. Special provisions were made for Queen Elizabeth II by the Regency Act 1953, which stated that the Duke of Edinburgh (the Queen's husband) could act as regent in these circumstances.[95]

During a temporary physical infirmity or an absence from the kingdom, the sovereign may temporarily delegate some of his or her functions to Counsellors of State, the monarch's spouse and the first four adults in the line of succession. The present Counsellors of State are: The Duke of Edinburgh, The Prince of Wales, The Duke of Cambridge, Prince Harry of Wales and The Duke of York.[96]

Finances

Main article: Finances of the British Royal Family

Parliament meets much of the sovereign's official expenditure from public funds, known as the Civil List and the Grants-in-Aid. An annual Property Services Grant-in-Aid pays for the upkeep of the royal residences, and an annual Royal Travel Grant-in-Aid pays for travel. The Civil List covers most expenses, including those for staffing, state visits, public engagements, and official entertainment. Its size is fixed by Parliament every 10 years; any money saved may be carried forward to the next 10-year period.[97] The Royal Collection, which includes artworks and the Crown Jewels, is not owned by the Sovereign personally and is held in trust,[98] as are the occupied palaces in the United Kingdom such as Buckingham Palace and Windsor Castle.[99]

Until 1760 the monarch met all official expenses from hereditary revenues, which included the profits of the Crown Estate (the royal property portfolio). King George III agreed to surrender the hereditary revenues of the Crown in return for the Civil List, and this arrangement persists until 2013. The Crown Estate is one of the largest property owners in the United Kingdom, with holdings of £7.3 billion in 2011.[100] It is held in trust, and cannot be sold or owned by the Sovereign in a private capacity.[101] In modern times, the profits surrendered from the Crown Estate have exceeded the Civil List and Grants-in-Aid.[97] For example, the Crown Estate produced £200 million for the Treasury in the financial year 2007–8, whereas reported parliamentary funding for the monarch was £40 million during the same period,[102] and republicans estimate that the real cost of the monarchy including security is between £134 and 184 million a year.[103] From 2013 until 2020, the Civil List and Grants-in-Aid are to be replaced with a single Sovereign Grant, which will be set at 15% of the revenues generated by the Crown Estate.[104]

Like the Crown Estate, the land and assets of the Duchy of Lancaster, a property portfolio valued at £383 million in 2011,[105] are held in trust. The revenues of the Duchy form part of the Privy Purse, and are used for expenses not borne by the Civil List.[106] The Duchy of Cornwall is a similar estate held in trust to meet the expenses of the monarch's eldest son.

The sovereign is subject to indirect taxes such as value added tax, and since 1993 the Queen has paid income tax and capital gains tax on personal income. The Civil List and Grants-in-Aid are not treated as income as they are solely for official expenditure.[107]

Estimates of the Queen's wealth vary, depending on whether assets owned by her personally or held in trust for the nation are included. *Forbes* magazine estimated her wealth at US$450 million in 2010,[108] but no official figure is available. In 1993, the Lord Chamberlain said estimates of £100 million were "grossly overstated".[109] Jock Colville, who was her former private secretary and a director of her bank, Coutts, estimated her wealth in 1971 at £2 million[110][111] (the equivalent of about £21 million today[112]).

Residences

Main article: List of British royal residences



The Sovereign's official residence in London is Buckingham Palace. It is the site of most state banquets, investitures, royal christenings and other ceremonies.[113] Another official residence is Windsor Castle, the largest occupied castle in the world,[114] which is used principally at weekends, Easter and during Royal Ascot, an annual race meeting that is part of the social calendar.[114] The Sovereign's official residence in Scotland is the

Palace of Holyroodhouse in Edinburgh. The monarch stays at Holyrood for at least one week each year, and when visiting Scotland on state occasions.[115]

Buckingham Palace, the monarch's principal residence

Historically, the Palace of Westminster and the Tower of London were the main residences of the English Sovereign until Henry VIII acquired the Palace of Whitehall. Whitehall was destroyed by fire in 1698, leading to a shift to St James's Palace. Although replaced as the monarch's primary London residence by Buckingham Palace in 1837, St James's is still the senior palace[116] and remains the ceremonial Royal residence. For example, foreign ambassadors are accredited to the Court of St. James's,[113][117] and the Palace is the site of the meeting of the Accession Council.[89] It is also used by other members of the Royal Family.[116]



Holyrood Palace, the monarch's official Scottish residence

Other residences include Clarence House and Kensington Palace. The palaces belong to the Crown; they are held in trust for future rulers, and cannot be sold by the monarch.[118] Sandringham House in Norfolk and Balmoral Castle in Aberdeenshire are privately owned by the Queen.[99]

Style

Main article: Style of the British Sovereign

The present Sovereign's full style and title is "Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith".[119] The title "Head of the Commonwealth" is held by the Queen personally, and is not vested in the British Crown.[74] Pope Leo X first granted the title "Defender of the Faith" to King Henry VIII in 1521, rewarding him for his support of the Papacy during the early years of the Protestant Reformation, particularly for his book the Defence of the Seven Sacraments.[120] After Henry broke from the Roman Church, Pope Paul III revoked the grant, but Parliament passed a law authorising its continued use.[121]

The Sovereign is known as "His Majesty" or "Her Majesty". The form "Britannic Majesty" appears in international treaties and on passports to differentiate the British monarch from foreign rulers. The monarch chooses his or her regnal name, not necessarily his or her first name—King George VI, King Edward VII and Queen Victoria did not use their first names.

If only one monarch has used a particular name, no ordinal is used; for example, Queen Victoria is not known as "Victoria I", and ordinals are not used for English monarchs who reigned before the Norman conquest of England. The question of whether numbering for British monarchs is based on previous English or Scottish monarchs was raised in 1953 when Scottish nationalists challenged the Queen's use of "Elizabeth II", on the grounds that there had never been an "Elizabeth I" in Scotland. In *MacCormick v. Lord Advocate*, the Scottish Court of Session ruled against the plaintiffs, finding that the Queen's title was a matter of her own choice and prerogative. The Home Secretary told the House of Commons that monarchs since the Acts of Union had consistently used the higher of the English and Scottish ordinals, which in the applicable four cases has been the English ordinal.[122] The Prime Minister confirmed this practice, but noted that "neither The Queen nor her advisers could seek to bind their successors".[123] Future monarchs will apply this policy.[124]

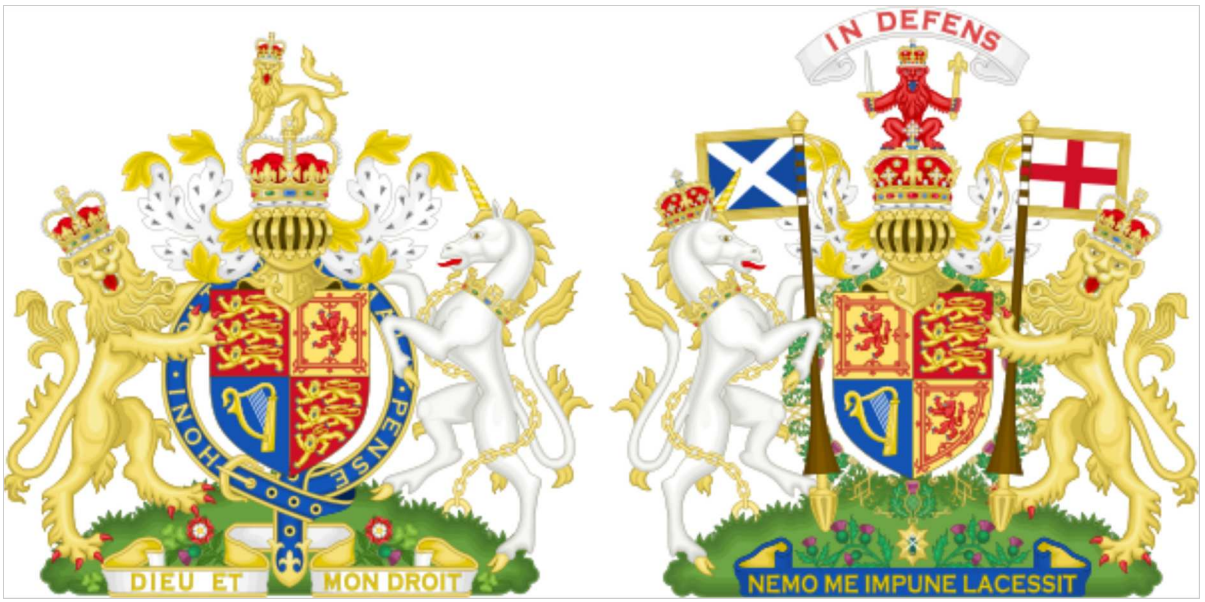
Traditionally, the signature of the monarch includes their regnal name but not ordinal, followed by the letter *R*,

which stands for *rex* or *regina* (Latin for *king* and *queen*, respectively). The present monarch's signature is "Elizabeth R". From 1877 until 1948 reigning monarchs added the letter *I* to their signatures, for *imperator* or *imperatrix* (*emperor* or *empress* in Latin), due to their status as Emperor or Empress of India. For example, Queen Victoria signed as "Victoria RI" from 1877.

Arms

Main article: Royal coat of arms of the United Kingdom

The Royal coat of arms of the United Kingdom are "Quarterly, I and IV Gules three lions passant guardant in pale Or [for England]; II Or a lion rampant within a double tressure flory-counter-flory Gules [for Scotland]; III Azure a harp Or stringed Argent [for Ireland]". The supporters are the lion and the unicorn; the motto is "Dieu et mon droit" (French: "God and my Right"). Surrounding the shield is a representation of a Garter bearing the motto of the Chivalric order of the same name; "Honi soit qui mal y pense". (Old French: "Shame be to him who thinks evil of it"). In Scotland, the monarch uses an alternative form of the arms in which quarters I and IV represent Scotland, II England, and III Ireland. The mottoes are "In Defens" (an abbreviated form of the Scots "In My Defens God Me Defend") and the motto of the Order of the Thistle; "Nemo me impune lacessit". (Latin: "No-one provokes me with impunity"); the supporters are the unicorn and lion, who support both the escutcheon and lances, from which fly the flags of Scotland and England.



The Coat of arms of Elizabeth II in the United Kingdom. The design, in use since the accession of Queen Victoria in 1837, features the arms of England in the first and fourth quarters, Scotland in the second, and Ireland in the third. In Scotland a separate version is used (shown right) whereby the Arms of Scotland take precedence.

The monarch's official flag in the United Kingdom is the Royal Standard, which depicts the Royal Arms. It is flown only from buildings, vessels and vehicles in which the Sovereign is present.[125] The Royal Standard is never flown at half-mast because there is always a sovereign: when one dies, his or her successor becomes the sovereign instantly.[126]



The Royal Standard of the United Kingdom. The Monarch's official flag



The Royal Standard of the United Kingdom as used only in Scotland

When the monarch is not in residence, the Union Flag is flown at Buckingham Palace, Windsor Castle and Sandringham House, whereas in Scotland the Royal Standard of Scotland is flown at Holyrood Palace and Balmoral Castle.[125]



Union Flag of the United Kingdom.



The Royal Standard of Scotland.

See also

- Monarchies in the Americas > The United Kingdom
- Monarchies in Oceania
- Republicanism in the United Kingdom

Notes

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2. ^ *O'Donohue v. Canada, 2003 CanLII 41404 (ON S.C.)* (http://www.canlii.org/en/on/onsc/doc/2003/2003canlii41404/2003canlii41404.html) , Canadian Legal Information Institute, 26 June 2003, http://www.canlii.org/en/on/onsc/doc/2003/2003canlii41404/2003canlii41404.html, retrieved 20 April 2008
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5. ^ *Symbols of the Monarchy: Coinage and bank notes* (http://www.royal.gov.uk/MonarchUK/Symbols/Coinageandbanknotes.aspx) , Official website of the British Monarchy, http://www.royal.gov.uk/MonarchUK/Symbols/Coinageandbanknotes.aspx, retrieved 18 June 2010
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Andorra

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Andorra (/ænˈdɔrə/; Catalan pronunciation: [ənˈdorə], locally: [anˈdɔra]), officially the **Principality of Andorra** (Catalan: *Principat d'Andorra*), also called the **Principality of the Valleys of Andorra**,[9] (Catalan: *Principat de les Valls d'Andorra*), is a small landlocked country in southwestern Europe, located in the eastern Pyrenees mountains and bordered by Spain and France. It is the sixth smallest nation in Europe having an area of 468 km^2 (181 sq mi) and an estimated population of 84,082 in 2009. Its capital, Andorra la Vella, is the highest capital city in Europe, at an elevation of 1,023 metres (3,356 ft) above sea level.[10] The official language is Catalan, although Spanish, Portuguese, and French are also commonly spoken.

The Principality was formed in 1278. The role of monarch is exercised jointly by the two co-princes, the Bishop of Urgell and the current President of France (the whole state is a part of Diocese of Urgell).

Andorra is a prosperous country mainly because of its tourism industry, which services an estimated 10.2 million visitors annually,[11] and also because of its status as a tax haven. It is not a member of the European Union, but the euro is the *de facto* currency. The people of Andorra have the 4th highest human life expectancy in the world — 82 years at birth.[12]

Contents

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Principality of Andorra
Principat d'Andorra



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: *"Virtus Unita Fortior"* (Latin)
"Strength United is Stronger"

Anthem: *El Gran Carlemany, Mon Pare* (Catalan)
The Great Charlemagne, my Father



Location of **Andorra** (green)
in Europe (dark grey) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Andorra la Vella 42°30′N 1°31′E
Official language(s)	Catalan[1][3]
Ethnic groups	36.6% Andorran 33.0% Spanish 16.3% Portuguese 6.3% French 7.8% others.[2]
Demonym	Andorran
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and Constitutional diarchy
- Co-Princes	Joan Enric Vives Sicília Nicolas Sarkozy

- 16 External links

History

Main article: History of Andorra

Tradition holds that Charles the Great (Charlemagne) granted a charter to the Andorran people in return for fighting against the Moors. Overlordship of the territory was by the Count of Urgell and eventually by the bishop of the Diocese of Urgell. In 988, Borrell II, Count of Urgell, gave the Andorran valleys to the Diocese of Urgell in exchange for land in Cerdanya.[13] Since then the Bishop of Urgell, based in Seu d'Urgell, has owned Andorra.[14]

Before 1095, Andorra did not have any type of military protection and the Bishop of Urgell, who knew that the Count of Urgell wanted to reclaim the Andorran valleys,[14] asked for help and protection from the Lord of Caboet. In 1095, the Lord of Caboet and the Bishop of Urgell signed under oath a declaration of their co-sovereignty over Andorra. Arnalda, daughter of Arnau of Caboet, married the Viscount of Castellbò and both became Viscounts of Castellbò and Cerdanya. Years later their daughter, Ermessenda,[15] married Roger Bernat II, the French Count of Foix. They became Roger Bernat II and Ermessenda I, Counts of Foix, Viscounts of Castellbò and Cerdanya, and also co-sovereigns of Andorra (shared with the Bishop of Urgell).

In the 11th century, a dispute arose between the Bishop of Urgell and the Count of Foix. The conflict was resolved in 1278 with the mediation of Aragon by the signing of the first paréage which provided that Andorra's sovereignty be shared between the count of Foix[14] (whose title would ultimately transfer to the French head of state) and the Bishop of Urgell, in Catalonia. This gave the principality its territory and political form.

Over the years, the French co-title to Andorra passed to the kings of Navarre. After Henry of Navarre became King Henry IV of France, he issued an edict in 1607 that established the head of the French state and the Bishop of Urgell as co-princes of Andorra. In 1812–13, the First French Empire annexed Catalonia and divided it in four départements, with Andorra being made part of the district of Puigcerdà (département of Sègre).

- Representatives	Nemesi Marqués Oste Christian Frémont
- Prime Minister	Antoni Martí
Independence	
- Paréage	from the Crown of Aragon 1278
Area	
- Total	467.63 km^2 (191st) 180.55 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.26 (121.4 ha)[3][4]
Population	
- 31 December 2009 estimate	78,115[5] (194th)
- 2006 census	69,150
- Density	179.8/km^2 (71st) 465.7/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2008 estimate
- Total	$4.22 billion (155th)
- Per capita	$44,900 (9th)
GDP (nominal)	2008 estimate
- Total	$2.893 billion[6] (155th)
- Per capita	$34,240[6] (28th)
Gini (2003)	27.21[7]
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.838[8] (very high) (32nd)
Currency	Euro (€)[1] (EUR)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	AD
Internet TLD	.ad[2]
Calling code	+376

1 Before 1999, the French franc and Spanish peseta; the coins and notes of both currencies, however, remained legal tender until 2002. Small amounts of Andorran diners (divided into 100 centim) were minted after 1982.

2 Also .cat, shared with Catalan-speaking territories.

3 Spanish, French, and Portuguese are also widely spoken and understood. (See Languages of Andorra)

20th century



Andorran coat of arms at Andorran parliament.

Andorra declared war on Imperial Germany during World War I, but did not actually take part in the fighting. It remained in an official state of belligerency until 1957 as it was not included in the Treaty of Versailles.

In 1933, France occupied Andorra as a result of social unrest before elections. On July 12, 1934, adventurer Boris Skossyreff issued a proclamation in Urgell, declaring himself "Boris I, King of Andorra", simultaneously declaring war on the Bishop of Urgell. He was arrested by Spanish authorities on July 20 and ultimately expelled from Spain. From 1936 to 1940, a French detachment was garrisoned in Andorra to prevent influences of the Spanish Civil War and Franco's Spain. Francoist troops reached the Andorran border in the later stages of the war. During World War II, Andorra remained neutral and was an important smuggling route between Vichy France and Spain.

Given its relative isolation, Andorra has existed outside the mainstream of European history, with few ties to countries other than France and Spain. In recent times, however, its thriving tourist industry along with developments in transport and communications have removed the country from its isolation. Its political system was modernised in 1993, when it became a member of the United Nations and the Council of Europe.

Politics

Main article: Politics of Andorra

Andorra is a parliamentary co-principality with the President of France and the Bishop of Urgell (Catalonia, Spain), as co-princes. This peculiarity makes the President of France, in his capacity as Prince of Andorra, an elected reigning monarch, even though he is not elected by a popular vote of the Andorran people. The politics of Andorra take place in a framework of a parliamentary representative democracy, whereby the Prime Minister of Andorra is the head of government, and of a pluriform multi-party system.

The current Prime Minister is Antoni Martí of the Democrats for Andorra (DA). Executive power is exercised by the government. Legislative power is vested in both government and parliament.

The Parliament of Andorra is known as the General Council. The General Council consists of between 28 and 42 Councillors, as the members of the legislative branch are called. The Councillors serve for four-year terms and elections are held between the thirtieth and fortieth days following the dissolution of the previous Council. The Councillors can be elected on two equal constituencies.

Half are elected in equal number from each of the seven administrative parishes and the other half of the Councillors are elected from a single national constituency. 15 days after the election, the Councillors hold their inauguration. During this session, the Syndic General, who is the head of the General Council, and the Subsyndic General, his assistant, are elected. Eight days later, the Council convenes once more. During this session the Head of Government, the Prime Minister of Andorra, is chosen from among the Councillors.

Candidates for the prime-ministerial nomination can be proposed by a minimum of one-fifth of the Councillors. The Council then elects the candidate with the absolute majority of votes to be Head of Government. The Syndic General then notifies the Co-princes who in turn appoint the elected candidate as the Prime Minister of Andorra.


Casa de la Vall, Andorran Parliament.

The General Council is also responsible for proposing and passing laws. Bills may be presented to the Council as Private Members' Bills by three of the Local Parish Councils jointly or by at least one tenth of the citizens of Andorra.

The Council also approves the annual budget of the principality. The government must submit the proposed budget for parliamentary approval at least two months before the previous budget expires. If the budget is not approved by the first day of the next year, the previous budget is extended until a new one is approved. Once any bill is approved, the Syndic General is responsible for presenting it to the Co-princes so that they may sign and enact it.

If the Head of Government is not satisfied with the Council, he may request that the Co-princes dissolve the Council and order new elections. In turn, the Councillors have the power to remove the Head of Government from office. After a motion of censure is approved by at least one-fifth of the Councillors, the Council will vote and if it receives the absolute majority of votes, the Prime Minister is removed.

Law and criminal justice

The judiciary is composed of the Magistrates Court, the Criminal Law Court, the High Court of Andorra, and the Constitutional Court. The High Court of Justice is composed of five judges: one appointed by the Head of Government, one each by the Coprinces, one by the Syndic General, and one by the Judges and Magistrates. It is presided over by the member appointed by the Syndic General and the judges hold office for six-year terms.

The Magistrates and Judges are appointed by the High Court, and so is the President of the Criminal Law Court. The High Court also appoints members of the Office of the Attorney General. The Constitutional Court is responsible for interpreting the Constitution and reviewing all appeals of unconstitutionality against laws and treaties. It is composed of four judges, one appointed by each of the Coprinces and two by the General Council. They serve eight-year terms. The Court is presided over by one of the Judges on a two-year rotation so that each judge at one point will be the leader of the Court.

Foreign relations and defence

Main article: Foreign relations of Andorra

Andorra maintains a small Army, and all able-bodied men who own firearms must serve. The Army is unique in that all men are treated as officers. The Army's main responsibility is to present the national flag at ceremonies. The country also has an internal police force. Responsibility for defending Andorra rests primarily with France and Spain. Andorra is a full member of the United Nations, the OSCE, and has a special agreement with the European Union.

Geography

Main articles: Geography of Andorra and Geology of Andorra

Parishes

Main article: Parishes of Andorra

Andorra consists of seven parishes:

- Andorra la Vella
- Canillo
- Encamp
- Escaldes-Engordany
- La Massana
- Ordino
- Sant Julià de Lòria



Map of Andorra with its seven parishes labeled.

Physical geography


Topographic map of Andorra.

Due to its location in the eastern Pyrenees mountain range, Andorra consists predominantly of rugged mountains, the highest being the Coma Pedrosa at 2,942 metres (9,652 ft), and the average elevation of Andorra is 1,996 metres (6,549 ft).[16]


Scenery of Andorran mountains

These are dissected by three narrow valleys in a Y shape that combine into one as the main stream, the Gran Valira river, leaves the country for Spain (at Andorra's lowest point of 840 m/2,756 ft). Andorra's land area is 468 km^2 (181 sq mi).

Phytogeographically, Andorra belongs to the Atlantic European province of the Circumboreal Region within the Boreal Kingdom. According to the WWF, the territory of Andorra belongs to the ecoregion of Pyrenees conifer and mixed forests.

Climate

Andorra has an alpine climate and continental climate. Its higher elevation means there is, on average, more snow in winter, lower humidity, and it is slightly cooler in summer. There are, on average, 300 days per year of sunshine.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Andorra

Tourism, the mainstay of Andorra's tiny, well-to-do economy, accounts for roughly 80% of GDP. An estimated 10.2 million tourists visit annually,[11] attracted by Andorra's duty-free status and by its summer and winter resorts. Andorra's relative advantage has recently eroded as the economies of adjoining France and Spain have

been opened up, providing broader availability of goods and lower tariffs.


Caldea spa in Escaldes-Engordany, heated by natural hot spring water which is plentiful in the parish.

The banking sector, with its tax haven status, also contributes substantially to the economy. Agricultural production is limited—only 2% of the land is arable—and most food has to be imported. Some tobacco is grown locally. The principal livestock activity is domestic sheep raising. Manufacturing output consists mainly of cigarettes, cigars, and furniture. Andorra's natural resources include hydroelectric power, mineral water, timber, iron ore, and lead.[17]

Andorra is not a member of the European Union, but enjoys a special relationship with it, such as being treated as an EU member for trade in manufactured goods (no tariffs) and as a non-EU member for agricultural products. Andorra lacked a currency of its own and used both the French franc and the Spanish peseta in banking transactions until 31 December 1999, when both currencies were replaced by the EU's single currency, the euro. Coins and notes of both the franc and the peseta remained legal tender in Andorra until 31 December 2002. Andorra is negotiating to issue its own euro coins.

Andorra has one of the world's lowest unemployment rates, with the statistics on June 2009 showing almost 0% unemployment within the country.[*citation needed*]

Demography

Main article: Demographics of Andorra


View of the Ordino valley

Population

The population of Andorra is estimated to be 83,890 (July 2009).[18] The population has grown from 5,000 in 1900.

Andorran nationals are a plurality in the country (31,363);[19] other nationalities include Spaniards (27,300),[19] Portuguese (13,794),[19] French (5,213),[19] Britons (1,085)[19] and Italians.

Languages

Main article: Languages of Andorra


The town of Encamp, Andorra, as seen from the

The historic and official language is Catalan, a Romance language. The Andorran government is keen to encourage the use of Catalan. It funds a Commission for Catalan Toponymy in Andorra (Catalan: *la Comissió de Toponímia d'Andorra*), and provides free Catalan classes to assist immigrants. Andorran television and radio stations use Catalan.

Because of immigration, historical links, and close geographic

Vall dels Cortals

proximity, Spanish, Portuguese and French are also commonly spoken. Most Andorran residents can speak one or more of these, in addition to Catalan. English is less commonly spoken among the general population, though it is understood to varying degrees in the major tourist resorts. Andorra is one of only three European countries (together with France and Monaco)[20] that have never signed the Council of Europe Framework Convention on National Minorities.[21]

Religion

The population of Andorra is predominantly (90%) Roman Catholic.[22] Their patron saint is Our Lady of Meritxell. Though it is not an official state religion, the constitution acknowledges a special relationship with the Catholic Church, offering some special privileges to that group. The Muslim community is primarily made up of North African immigrants. Other Christian denominations include the Anglican Church, the Reunification Church, the New Apostolic Church, The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, and the Jehovah's Witnesses. There is a small community of Hindus and Bahá'ís.[23][24] Andorra also hosts a population of roughly 100 Jews (see: Andorran Jews).

Education

Schools

Children between the ages of 6 and 16 are required by law to have full-time education. Education up to secondary level is provided free of charge by the government.

There are three systems of schools – Andorran, French and Spanish – which use Catalan, French and Spanish, respectively, as the main language of instruction. Parents may choose which system their children attend. All schools are built and maintained by Andorran authorities, but teachers in the French and Spanish schools are paid for the most part by France and Spain. About 50% of Andorran children attend the French primary schools, and the rest attend Spanish or Andorran schools.

University of Andorra

The University of Andorra (UdA) is the state public university and is the only university in Andorra. It was established in 1997. The University provides first-level degrees in nursing, computer science, business administration, and educational sciences, in addition to higher professional education courses. The only two graduate schools in Andorra are the Nursing School and the School of Computer Science, the latter having a PhD programme.

Virtual Studies Centre

The geographical complexity of the country as well as the small number of students prevents the University of Andorra from developing a full academic program, and it serves principally as a centre for virtual studies, connected to Spanish and French universities. The Virtual Studies Centre (*Centre d'Estudis Virtuals*) at the University runs in the region of twenty degrees at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels in fields including tourism, law, Catalan philology, humanities, psychology, political sciences, audiovisual communication, telecommunications engineering, and East Asia studies. The Centre also runs various postgraduate programs and continuing-education courses for professionals.

Healthcare

Healthcare in Andorra is provided to all employed persons and their families by the government-run social security system, CASS (Caixa Andorrana de Seguretat Social), which is funded by employer and employee contributions in respect of salaries.[25] The cost of healthcare is covered by CASS at rates of 75% for out-patient expenses such as medicines and hospital visits, 90% for hospitalisation, and 100% for work-related accidents. The remainder of the costs may be covered by private health insurance. Other residents and tourists require full private health insurance.[25]

The main hospital, Meritxell, is in Escaldes-Engordany.[26] There are also 12 primary health care centres in various locations around the Principality.[26]

Transport

Main article: Transport in Andorra

Until the 20th century, Andorra had very limited transport links to the outside world, and development of the country was affected by its physical isolation. Even now, the nearest major airports at Toulouse and Barcelona are both three hours' drive from Andorra.

Andorra has a road network of 279 km (173 mi), of which 76 km (47 mi) is unpaved. The two main roads out of Andorra la Vella are the CG-1 to the Spanish border, and the CG-2 to the French border via the Envalira Tunnel near Pas de la Casa.[27] Bus services cover all metropolitan areas and many rural communities, with services on most major routes running half-hourly or more frequently during peak travel times. There are frequent long-distance bus services from Andorra to Barcelona and Toulouse. Bus services are mostly run by private companies, but some local ones are operated by the government.



A train at Latour-de-Carol (*La Tor de Querol*), one of the two stations serving Andorra. Andorra has no railways, although the line connecting Latour-de-Carol and Toulouse, which in turn connects to France's TGVs at Toulouse, runs within two kilometres of the Andorran border.

There are no railways, ports, or airports for fixed-wing aircraft in Andorra. There are, however, heliports in La Massana, Arinsal and Escaldes-Engordany with commercial helicopter services.[28][29] Nearby airports are located in Barcelona, Toulouse, Perpignan, Reus, and Girona. The closest public airport is Perpignan - Rivesaltes Airport, which is 160 km (99 mi) away and has short-haul services to several destinations in the United Kingdom and France. La Seu d'Urgell Airport, a small airfield 12 km (7 mi) south of Andorra currently used only by private aeroplanes, is being studied by the Catalan government as a possible future airport for public aviation services.[30]

The nearest railway station is L'Hospitalet-près-l'Andorre 10 km (6 mi) east of Andorra which is on the 1,435 mm (4 ft 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ in)-gauge line from Latour-de-Carol, (25 km/16 mi) southeast of Andorra, to Toulouse and on to Paris by the French high-speed trains. This line is operated by the SNCF. Latour-de-Carol has a scenic metre gauge trainline to Villefranche-de-Conflent, as well as the SNCF's 1,435 mm (4 ft 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ in)-gauge line connecting to Perpignan, and the RENFE's 1,668 mm (5 ft 5 $\frac{2}{3}$ in) -gauge line to Barcelona.[31][32]

Media and telecommunications

Main article: Telecommunications in Andorra

In Andorra, mobile and fixed telephone and internet services are operated exclusively by the Andorran national telecommunications company, SOM, also known as *Servei de Telecomunicacions d'Andorra* (STA). The same company also manages the technical infrastructure for national broadcasting of digital television and radio.

By the end of 2010, it is planned that every home in the country will have fiber-to-the-home for internet access at a minimum speed of 100 Mbit/s.[33]

There is only one Andorran television station, *Ràdio i Televisió d'Andorra* (RTVA). *Radio Nacional d'Andorra* operates two radio stations, *Radio Andorra* and *Andorra Música*. There are three national newspapers, *Diari d'Andorra*, *El Periòdic d'Andorra*, and *Bondia* as well as several local newspapers.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Andorra


Andorran flag on balcony, Ordino

The official and historic language is Catalan. Thus the culture is Catalan, with its own specificity.

Andorra is home to folk dances like the contrapàs and marratxa, which survive in Sant Julià de Lòria especially. Andorran folk music has similarities to the music of its neighbours, but is especially Catalan in character, especially in the presence of dances such as the sardana. Other Andorran folk dances include contrapàs in Andorra la Vella and Saint Anne's dance in Escaldes-Engordany. Andorra's national holiday is Our Lady of Meritxell Day, September 8.[17] American Folk Artist Malvina Reynolds, intrigued by its defense budget of $4.90, wrote a song "Andorra". Pete Seeger added verses, and sang "Andorra" on his 1962 album "The Bitter and the Sweet.".

See also: Music of Andorra

Sports

Andorra is famous for the practice of Winter Sports and also by Roller Hockey. Andorra usually plays in CERH Euro Cup and in FIRS Roller Hockey World Cup. In 2011, Andorra was the host country to the 2011 European League Final Eight. The country is represented in association football by the Andorra national football team. However, the team has had little success internationally because of Andorra's small population.[34]

See also

- Outline of Andorra
- Bibliography of Andorra
- Index of Andorra-related articles

- Andorra and the European
- List of Co-Princes of
- Scouting in Andorra

History of Andorra

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Andorra is the last independent survivor of the Marca Hispanica, the buffer states created by Charlemagne to keep the Islamic Moors from advancing into Christian France. Tradition holds that Charlemagne granted a charter to the Andorran people in return for their fighting the Moors. In the 9th century, Charlemagne's grandson, Charles the Bald, named the Count of Urgell as overlord of Andorra. A descendant of the count later gave the lands to the Diocese of Urgell, headed by Bishop of Urgell.

Contents

- 1 Early history
- 2 20th century
- 3 Modern history
- 4 See also
- 5 References
- 6 External links

Early history

In the 11th century, fearing military action by neighboring lords, the bishop placed himself under the protection of the Lord of Caboet, a Catalan nobleman. Later, the Count of Foix became heir to the Lord of Caboet through marriage, and a dispute arose between the French Count and the Catalan bishop over Andorra.

In 1278, the conflict was resolved by the signing of a pareage (*pariatges*), which provided that Andorra's sovereignty be shared between the Count of Foix and the Bishop of La Seu d'Urgell (Catalonia, Spain). The pareage, a feudal institution recognizing the principle of equality of rights shared by two rulers, gave the small state its territory and political form. In return, Andorra pays an annual tribute or *questia* to the co-rulers consisting of four hams, forty loaves of bread, and some wine. As of the year 2006, Andorra's borders have remained unchanged since 1278.[1]

Andorra was briefly annexed to the Crown of Aragon twice, in 1396 and 1512.

In 1505, Germaine of Foix married Ferdinand V of Castile, thereby bringing the lordship of Andorra under Spanish rule. On taking over the kingdom in 1519, Emperor Charles V granted the lordship of Les Valls, as it was then known, to Germaine of Foix's line in perpetuity. Henry III of Navarre, who was also count of Foix, in 1589 ascended the French throne as Henry IV, and by an edict of 1607 established the head of the French state, along with the bishop of Urgel, as co-princes of Andorra.

In 1793, the French revolutionary government refused the traditional Andorran tribute as smacking of feudalism and renounced its suzerainty, despite the wish of the Andorrans to enjoy French protection and avoid being under exclusively Spanish influence.

Andorra remained neutral during the Napoleonic Wars. Napoleon restored the co-principality in 1806 after the Andorrans petitioned him to do so. French title to the principality subsequently passed from the kings to the president of France. In the period 1812–13, the French Empire annexed Catalonia and divided it in four

departments. Andorra was also annexed and made part of the district of Puigcerdà (département of Sègre).

20th century

In 1933, France occupied Andorra as a result of social unrest before elections. On July 12, 1934, an adventurer named Boris Skossyreff issued a proclamation in Urgel, declaring himself Boris I, sovereign prince of Andorra, simultaneously declaring war on the Bishop of Urgell. He was arrested by Spanish authorities on July 20 and ultimately expelled from Spain. From 1936 to 1940, a French detachment was garrisoned in Andorra to prevent influences of the Spanish Civil War and Franco's Spain.

During World War II, Andorra remained neutral and was an important smuggling route from Spain into France. The French Resistance used Andorra as part of their route to get downed airmen out of France.

In 1943, Andorra carried out its first execution since the 19th century, that of Antoni Arenis for double fratricide by firing squad (because a trained executioner was unavailable to operate the legal method - Garrote).

In 1958, Andorra declared peace with Germany, having been forgotten on the Treaty of Versailles that ended World War I and, the conflict being extended by the lack of a peace treaty, remaining legally at war.[2]

Long an impoverished land having little contact with any nations other than adjoining France and Spain, Andorra after World War II achieved considerable prosperity through a developing tourist industry. This development, abetted by improvements in transport and communications, has tended to break down Andorra’s isolation and to bring Andorrans into the mainstream of European history. Public demands for democratic reforms led to the extension of the franchise to women in the 1970s and to the creation of new and more fully autonomous organs of government in the early 1980s.

Modern history

Andorra formally became a parliamentary democracy in May 1993 following approval of a new constitution by a popular referendum in March 1993. The new constitution retained the French and Spanish co-princes although with reduced, and narrowly defined powers. Civil rights were greatly expanded including the legalization of political parties and trade unions, and provision was made for an independent judiciary. Andorra entered into a customs union with the European Communities (now the EU) in 1991 and was admitted to the UN on 28 July 1993. The country has been seeking ways to improve its export potential and increase its economic ties with its European neighbors. The financial services sector of the economy is highly important, given Andorra’s status as a tax haven and its banking secrecy laws.

See also

- List of Co-Princes of Andorra
- History of Europe
- History of France
- History of Spain
- Politics of Andorra

References

1. ^ "Statement by H.E. Mr. Albert Pintat; President of the government of the principality of Andorra"

Co-Princes of Andorra

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Co-Princes of Andorra** are the two rulers of the Principality of Andorra, a tiny landlocked nation lying in the Pyrenees mountains between France and Spain. Founded in 1278 through a treaty between the Spanish Bishop of Urgell and the French Count of Foix, this unique monarchial arrangement has persisted through medieval times to the present day. Currently, the Bishop of Urgell and the President of France serve as Andorra's co-princes, following the transfer of the Count of Foix's claims to the Crown of France, and thence to the French Republic.

The Andorran principality has the unique distinction of being ruled by two non-Andorran sovereigns, one of whom (the French president) is the only monarch in the world to be elected by the people—though not by the people of Andorra, but rather those of France. He is also the only monarch to be the head of state of a republic at the same time.

Co-Princes of Andorra

MONARCHY



Arms of His Serene Highness the Co-Princes of Andorra



Incumbent:

Joan Enric Vives Sicília

since 5 May 2003



Co-incumbent:

Nicolas Sarkozy

since 16 May 2007

Style:	His Serene Highness
First monarch:	Pere d'Urtx Roger-Bernard III
Formation:	1278

Contents

- 1 Origin and development of the co-principality
- 2 Recent history
- 3 Contemporary political role
- 4 List of rulers
- 5 See also
- 6 References
- 7 External links

Origin and development of the co-principality

Tradition holds that Charlemagne granted a charter to the Andorran people in return for their fighting against the Moors. The feudal overlord of this territory was at first the Count of Urgell; however in 988 the count, Borrell II, gave Andorra to the Diocese of Urgell in exchange for land in Cerdanya.[1] The Bishop of Urgell, based in Seu d'Urgell, has ruled Andorra ever since.[2]

Before 1095, Andorra did not have any type of military

protection and since the Bishop of Urgell knew that the Count of Urgell wanted to reclaim the Andorran valleys,[2] he asked for help from the Lord of Caboet. In 1095, the Lord and the Bishop signed a declaration of their co-sovereignty over Andorra. Arnalda, daughter of Arnau of Caboet, married the Viscount of Castellbò and both became Viscounts of Castellbò and Cerdanya. Their daughter, Ermessenda,[3] married Roger Bernat II, the French Count of Foix. They became Roger Bernat II and Ermessenda I, Counts of Foix, Viscounts of Castellbò and Cerdanya, and also co-sovereigns of Andorra (together with the Bishop of Urgell).

In the 11th century, a dispute arose between the Bishop of Urgell and the Count of Foix. The conflict mediated by Aragon in 1278 and led to the signing of the first paréage, which provided that Andorra's sovereignty be shared between the count[2] and the bishop. This gave the principality its territory and political form, and marked the formal commencement of Andorra's unique monarchial arrangement.

Over the years, the French co-title to Andorra passed from the Count of Foix to the kings of Navarre. After King Henry III of Navarre became King Henry IV of France, he issued an edict in 1607 establishing the King of France and the Bishop of Urgell as co-princes of Andorra. In 1812–13, the First French Empire annexed Catalonia and divided it into four départements, with Andorra forming part of the district of Puigcerdà (département of Sègre). Following the defeat of Napoleon I, this annexation was reversed and Andorra reverted to its former independence and political state. French rulers—whether king, emperor or president—would continue to serve as co-princes of Andorra to the present day.

Recent history

On July 12, 1934, Andorra's monarchial system was challenged by an adventurer named Boris Skossyreff, who issued a proclamation in Urgel declaring himself "Boris I, King of Andorra". Though initially enjoying some support within Andorra's political establishment, he was ultimately arrested by Spanish authorities on July 20 of that year after declaring war on the Bishop of Urgell (who had refused to relinquish his own claim to the principality). Skossyfreff was expelled, and was never considered to have been the Andorran monarch in any legal sense.

Prior to 1993, Andorra had no written constitution, and the exact prerogatives of the co-princes were not specifically defined in law. This changed in March of that year, when a constitution was approved by a vote of the Andorran people and signed into law by the two co-princes at the time: President François Mitterrand and Bishop Joan Martí Alanis. It clarified the continuance of the unique Andorran monarchy, and also delineated the precise role and prerogatives of the two princes. Prior to adoption of the constitution, Andorra paid in odd-numbered years a tribute of approximately $460 to the French ruler, while on even-numbered years, it paid a tribute of approximately $12 to the Spanish bishop, plus six hams, six cheeses, and six live chickens, though this medieval custom was abandoned in 1993.[4]

In 2009, French president Nicholas Sarkozy threatened to resign his title of Andorran co-prince if the principality did not change its banking laws to eliminate its longstanding status as a tax haven.[5]

Contemporary political role

The Constitution of Andorra carefully defines the exact role and prerogatives of the co-princes of Andorra today. The constitution establishes Andorra as a "parliamentary coprincipat",[6] providing for the President of France and Bishop of Urgell to serve together as the joint heads of state.[7] The constitution distinguishes between which powers they may exercise on their own (Article 46), and which require the countersignature of the head of the

Andorran government, or the approval of the Syndic General, the Andorran legislature (Article 45).

Powers the princes may exercise on their own include:[8]

- Joint exercise of the "prerogative of grace" (the power to pardon);
- Each co-prince may appoint one member of the Superior Council of Justice and one member of the Constitutional Tribunal;
- Establishment of such services as they deem necessary to fulfil their constitutional prerogatives, and appointment of individuals to fulfil these services;
- Requesting a preliminary judgment about the constitutionality of proposed laws, or of international treaties;
- Agreeing to the text of any international treaty, prior to submitting it for parliamentary approval;
- Bringing a case before the Constitutional Tribunal in the event of any conflict over the exercise of their constitutional prerogatives.

Powers the princes may exercize in conjunction with the head of government include:[9]

- Calling for elections or referendums in accordance with constitutional provisions;
- Appointing the head of government in accordance with constitutional provisions;
- Dissolve the General Council (the Andorran legislature) prior to the expiration of its current term (but not until at least one year has passed since the prior election);[10]
- Accrediting diplomatic representatives from Andorra to foreign states, and receive credentials of foreign representatives to Andorra;
- Appointing office-holders in accordance with appropriate constitutional provisions;
- Sanctioning and enacting laws in accordance with constitutional provisions;
- Granting formal consent to international treaties, once ratified by the General Council.

Each prince is granted an annual allowance by the General Council, which they may dispose of as he or she sees fit.[11] Each appoints a personal representative in Andorra,[12] and in the case of incapacitation of one of them, the constitution provides for the other prince to govern in his or her absence, with the concurrence of the Andorran head of government and/or the General Council.[13]

Certain treaties require the participation of the co-princes (or their designated representatives) in their negotiation process as well as their final approval; these are detailed in Articles 66 and 67 of the constitution.

The co-princes jointly retain the right to propose amendments to the constitution; this same right rests with the General Council.[14] They have no veto power over legislation passed by the General Council, though they do retain a veto over certain international treaties, as described above.

List of rulers

Main article: List of Co-Princes of Andorra

See also

- List of heads of government of Andorra

References

Joan Enric Vives Sicília

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Archbishop **Joan Enric Vives i Sicília** (born 24 July 1949) is the current Bishop of Urgell, a Roman Catholic diocese, and *ex officio* Co-Prince of Andorra. On the retirement of his predecessor Joan Martí Alanis, he succeeded as Bishop of Urgell on 12 May 2003, and hence as Co-Prince of Andorra. Born in Barcelona, he was ordained as a priest in 1974, became Auxiliary Bishop of Barcelona (and Titular Bishop of Nona) in 1993, Coadjutor Bishop of Urgell in 2001 and in 2003 succeeded as Bishop of Urgell. In March 2010, Vives i Sicília was elevated to the dignity of archbishop as a personal title.[1]

His Serene Highness

Joan Enric Vives Sicília



Co-Prince of Andorra

Incumbent

Assumed office

12 May 2003

Prime Minister	Albert Pintat Jaume Bartumeu Pere López Agràs (Acting) Antoni Martí
Representative	Nemesi Marqués Oste
Preceded by	Joan Martí i Alanis

Personal details

Born	24 July 1949 Barcelona, Spain
Profession	Bishop
Religion	Roman Catholicism

See also

- List of Co-Princes of Andorra
- Andorra

External links

- Official Website (http://www.bisbaturgell.org)

Sources

1. ^ "Rinuncie e Nomine — Elevazione alla Dignità Arcivescovile Ad Personam del Vescovo di Urgell (Spagna) e Coprincipe di Andorra" (http://212.77.1.245/news_services/bulletin/news/25281.php?index=25281&po_date=19.03.2010&lang=ge#ELEVAZIONE%20ALLA%20DIGNIT%C3%80%20ARCIVESCOVILE%20AD%20PERSONAM%20DEL%20VESCOVO%20DI%20URGELL%20%28SPAGNA%29%20E%20COPRINCIPE%20DI%20ANDORRA) (in Italian). Holy See Press Office. 2010-03-19. http://212.77.1.245/news_services/bulletin/news/25281.php?index=25281&po_date=19.03.2010&lang=ge#ELEVAZIONE%20ALLA%20DIGNIT%C3%80%20ARCIVESCOVILE%20AD%20PERSONAM%20DEL%20VESCOVO%20DI%20URGELL%20%28SPAGNA%29%20E%20COPRINCIPE%20DI%20ANDORRA. Retrieved 2010-03-20.

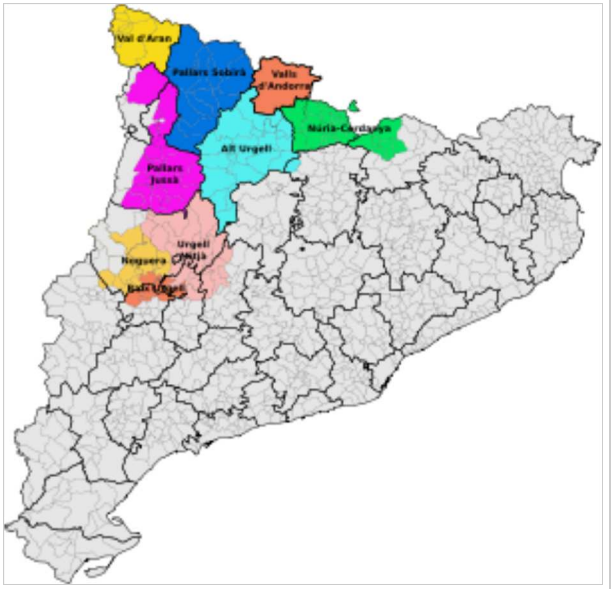
Catholic Church titles		
Preceded by **Joan Martí i Alanis**	**Bishop of Urgell** 2003–present	**Incumbent**
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Joan Martí i Alanis**	**Co-Prince of Andorra** 2003–present Served alongside: **Jacques Chirac, Nicolas Sarkozy**	**Incumbent**

Roman Catholic Diocese of Urgell

Coordinates: 42.358°N 1.462°E

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Diocese of Urgell** is a Roman Catholic diocese in Catalonia, Spain, and Andorra, with origins in the fifth century AD or possibly earlier. It is based in the region of the historical Catalan county of Urgell, though it has different borders. The seat and Cathedral of bishop are situated in a town la Seu d'Urgell. The whole state of Andorra is a part of this diocese.



Map of the diocese

Among its most notable events are Bishop Felix's adoptionist revolt, the coup of Bishop Esclua and the overthrowing of the bishop by members of aristocratic families (namely Salla i Ermengol del Conflent, Eribau i Folcs dels Cardona, Guillem Guifré de Cerdanya and Ot de Pallars) between the years 981 and 1122.

Also important is the diocese's patronage of Andorra, with the bishop holding the role of *ex officio* Co-Prince of the Pyrenean Catalan-speaking nation jointly with the President of the French Republic (and formerly, the King of France). Andorra was ceded to the Bishop of Urgell by the Count Ermengol IV of Urgell in the 12th century.


Urgell Cathedral

Up to 1802, the ecclesiastical border corresponded with the royal one established under the Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659. As such the 33 towns of the northern Cerdanya (now in France) came under the diocese's control.

Contents

- 1 Description of the Diocesan Territory
- 2 Origin of the Urgell Diocese
- 3 Early Middle Ages
- 4 List of Bishops of Urgell
  - 4.1 Bishops to 1695
  - 4.2 Bishops from 1695
- 5 External links

Description of the Diocesan Territory

The Roman Catholic Church controls the metropolitan church of Tarragona, with its see or capital of the Seu d'Urgell (Urgell See). It contains 7630 km² and a population of 200,761 according to the 2000 census and is the largest bishopric of the eight that have a see in Catalonia. In contrast, it is the most sparsely populated. The diocese borders the bishoprics of Vic, Solsona, Lleida, Barbastro-Monzón, Toulouse, Pamiers and Perpignan. It

has been deeply linked for many years to the regions that constituted the counties of Urgell, Pallars and Cerdanya during the Middle Ages, with which it identifies and forms a historical and geographic unit maintained up to the present day. The diocese totally or partially occupies the Ripollès, Cerdanya, Alt Urgell, Segarra, Urgell, Pla d'Urgell, Noguera, Pallars Jussà, Pallars Sobirà, Alta Ribagorça and the Vall d'Aran regions.

The bishopric's jurisdiction extends to 408 parishes, although today some have a very reduced population. Almost all of the parishes come from distant times, as the very titular saints of their churches. The most common are Saint Mary (in 90 parochial churches, as well as the cathedral), Saint Peter (35), Saint Martin (29), Saint Saturninus (24), Saint Steven (23), Saint Michael (19), Saint Andrew (17), Saint Julian (12), Saint Eulalia (11), Saint Vincent and Saint Felix (10). Many churches of the bishopric, parochial or not, conserve elements of great architectural interest, and thirty-six of them are considered cultural goods of national interest in Spain.

Amongst all Catalonian bishoprics, the Diocese of Urgell has been that which has experienced the most border-related changes throughout its existence, mainly for political reasons: the loss of Ribagorça (9th century), to the benefit of the Diocese of Roda, and the cession of 144 parishes of the Berguedà, the Solsonès and a part of the Segarra, to the benefit of the new diocese of Solsona (1593-1623); later, it was necessary to adapt the territory to the borders between states, and thus in 1803, the 24 parishes of French Cerdagne, which had been ceded to France from the Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659, also passed ecclesiastically to that country; and in 1804, the 28 from the Aran Valley, a territory circumscribed by France yet united fully to the Catalan-Aragonese territories at least since the 12th century, were annexed to the diocese of Urgell, coming from the eliminated Gascon diocese of Sant Bertran de Comenge. In 1874 the sixty-odd towns that formed the erstwhile exempt jurisdictions of Gerri, Mur, Montodó-Bonrepòs, the order of Saint John of Jerusalem and Meià were annexed to the diocese. Finally, in 1956, the diocese gained the seven parishes of the Artesa de Segre enclave and gave up the 19 of the Franja de Ponent [Western Strip] to Lleida and Barbastre, grouped into three enclaves.

Origin of the Urgell Diocese

The diocese, without excluding the possibility of a more remote origin, was already constituted at the beginning of the 6th century. The first known bishop, Saint Justus, figures among the participants of the councils of Toledo (531), Lleida and Valencia (546). His successors also took part regularly in the Toledo councils celebrated throughout the 7th century. The Episcopal succession, despite the uncertainty of names and chronology, seems to not be interrupted by the Saracen invasion of 714.

Monasticism must have been introduced into the diocese during the Visigothic period. The monasteries of Tavèrnoles, Gerri, Codinet, and Tresponts are probably anterior to the Saracen invasion. These foundations and the later ones--la Vedella, Elins, Bagà, la Portella, les Maleses, Villanega, Oveix, Bellera, el Burgal, Lavaix, Alaó, Escales, Ovarra, Taverna, Gualter, etc.--often adopted the Benedictine observance from the 9th century on, following the example of the majority of the coenobitic monasteries then extant in the Marca Hispanica. This became the norm for monastic life in the following century. These monasteries, alongside the parochial and canonical organization (the Urgell Diocese, Solsona, Cardona, Organyà, Ponts, Ager, Mur, Tremp) would greatly influence the Christianization of the country and in its human, cultural and economic development.

The canonical monasteries derived into colleges as a result of their secularization (1592), and due to their corruption, the 1851 concord eliminated them, along with the other preexisting ones (Castellbò, Guissona, Balaguer). Mur and Àger were without a doubt the most famous Catalan canonical colleges, exempt from episcopal jurisdiction

Early Middle Ages

During the pontificate of the Bishop Felix (781-799), who was accused of adoptionism by the Carolingian theologians and for this motive deposed and confined to Lyon, the city of Urgell and its church were completely destroyed by the Arabs around 793. With the founding of the Marca Hispanica, the diocese, like the others recently restored, became part of the ecclesiastical province of Narbonne until the recreation of the metropolitan see of Tarragona in 1091. The Frankish kings intervened effectively in the country's reconstruction, promoting the Reconquest laying the foundations of its government. The territory now being free, mainly, from the Moors' power, with the help of the first Catalan Counts, they promoted the construction of a new cathedral, completed in the second part of the 9th century, to which were assigned 289 towns or villages--all the northwestern area of the Pyrenees.

At the same time, the Urgell church, ruled for more than two centuries (914-1122) by members of the Counts' families, fully entered the ring of the feudal system, which allowed it to shape for itself an extensive seigniorial patrimony, which among other cities and territories included the city of Urgell, the valleys of Andorra, the Vall de la Llosa, the Vall d'Arques and the Ribera Salada, the villages of Sanaüja, Guissona, and from 1257 onwards, Tremp. This, however, forced it into a certain dependence on the superior power of the Counts. Also, the Gregorian Reform, introduced to the County of Urgell during the last years of the 11th century, preceded by the change of the Visigothic rite for the Roman rite, reduced those interventions of the laymen in ecclesiastical affairs and achieved the complete freedom of the Church in the spiritual and temporal domains. Moreover, the maintenance of those possessions originated constant tension and fighting throughout the Middle Ages with the Viscounts of Castellbó and his heirs, the Counts of Foix.

List of Bishops of Urgell

Bishops to 1695

- Justo bef. 527-aft. 546
- Epigan c. 550
- Marcel I c.570
- Simplici 589-599
- Gabila c. 604
- Renari c. 633
- Meurell 653-665
- Leuderic I 665-683
- Jacint ? 672-680 ?
- Leuberic 683-693
- Urbici 693-704
- Marcel II 704-721
- Just II 721-733
- Anambad ?
- Florenci 840-850
- Beat 850-857
- Guisad I 857-872
- Golderic 872-885
- Esclua 885-892
- Ingobert 893-900
- Nantigis 900-914
- Trigilbert 914
- Radulf 914-940
- Guisad I 940-981
- Sal.la 981-1010
- Ermengol 1010-1035
- Eribau 1035-1040
- Guillem Guifredo 1040-1075
- Bernat Guillermo 1075-1092
- Folc II of Cardona 1092-1095
- Guillem Arnau
- Bernat de Castelló 1195-1198
- Bernat de Vilamur 1198-1203
- Pere de Puigvert 1203-1230
- Ponç de Vilamur 1230-1257
- Abril Pérez Peláez 1257-1269
- Pere de Urtx 1269-1293
- Guillem de Montcada 1295-1308
- Ramon Trebailla 1308-1326
- Arnau de
- Francesc de Tovia 1415-1436
- Arnau Roger de Pallars 1436-1461
- Jaume de Cardona i Gandia 1461-1466
- Rodrigo de Borja 1467-1472
- Pere Folc de Cardona 1472-1515
- Joan d'Espés 1515-1530

vacant 1530-1532

- Pedro Jordán de Urries

vacant 1586-1588

- Andreu Capella 1588-1609
- Bernat de Salba i Salba 1609-1620

vacant 1620-1622

- Luis Díez de Aux y Armendáriz 1622-1627
- Antonio Pérez i Maxo 1627-1632

vacant 1632-1634

- Pau Duran

733-731
- Leuderic II 732-754
- Esteve 754-765
- Dotila 765-783
- Félix 783-792
- Radulf 792-798
- Félix (second time) 798-799
- Leidrat de Lió 799-806
- Posedoni I 806-819
- Sisebut I 819-823
- Posedoni II 823-833
- Sisebut 833-840

1092-1095
- Ot 1095-1122
- Pere Berenguer 1122-1141
- Bernat Sanç1141-1162
- Bernat Roger 1162-1166
- Arnau de Preixens 1166-1195

Llordat 1326-1341
- Pere de Narbona 1341-1348
- Niccoló Capocci 1348-1351
- Hug Desbac 1351-1361
- Guillem Arnau i Palau 1361-1364
- Pedro Martínez Luna 1364-1370
- Berenguer d'Erill i de Pallars 1370-1387
- Galcerà de Vilanova 1387-1415

1532-1533
- Francisco de Urries 1533 -1551
- Joan Punyet 1551-1553
- Miquel Despuig 1553-1556
- Juan Pérez Garcia de Oliván 1556-1560
- Pere de Castellet 1561-1571
- Joan Dimes Lloris 1571-1576

vacant 1576-1578

- Miquel Jeroni Morell 1578-1579
- Hug Ambrós de Montcada 1579-1586

1634-1651

vacant 1651-1655 (due to war)

- Juan Manuel de Espinosa 1655-1663

vacant 1663-1664

- Melcior Palau i Bosca 1664-1670

vacant 1670-1671

- Pere de Copons i Teixidor 1671-1681

vacant 1681-1682

- Joan Baptista Desbac i Mortorell 1682-1688

vacant 1688-1689

- Oleguer de Montserrat i Rufet 1689-1694

Bishops from 1695

Name	Reign
Julià Cano Thebar	1695-1714
Simeó de Guinda i Apeztegui	1714-1737
Jordi Curado i Torreblanca	1738-1747
Sebastià de Victoria Emparán y Loyola	1747-1756
Francesc Josep Catalán de Ocón	1757-1762

Francesc Fernández de Xátiva y Contreras	1763-1771
Joaquín de Santiyán i Valdivielso	1771-1779
Juan de García i Montenegro	1780-1783
Josep de Boltas	1785-1795
Francesc Antoni de la Dueña y Cisneros	1797-1816
Bernat Francés i Caballero	1817-1825
Bonifaci López i Pulido	1825-1827
Simó de Guardiola i Hortoneda	1827 to 1851
Josep Caixal i Estradé	(1853 to 1879)
Salvador Casañas i Pagès	(1879 to 1901)
Ramon Riu i Cabanes	(1901)
Toribio Martín (Vicar capitular)[1]	(1902)
Joan Josep Laguarda i Fenollera	(1902 to 1906)
Josep Pujargimzú (Vicar capitular)[1]	(1907)
Joan Baptista Benlloch i Vivó	(1907 to 1919)
Jaume Viladrich i Gaspa (Vicar capitular)[1]	(1919 to 1920)
Justí Guitart i Vilardebó	(1920 to 1940)
Ricard Fornesa i Puigdemasa (Vicar capitular)[1]	(1940 to 1943)
Ramon Iglésias Navarri	(1943 to 1969)
Ramon Malla Call (Apostolic Administrator)[1]	(1969 to 1971)
Joan Martí Alanis	(1971 to 2003)
Joan Enric Vives Sicília (Archbishop, personal title)	(2003-)

[1] During a *sede vacante*.

See also: List of Co-Princes of Andorra

External links

- Episcopologi de l'Església d'Urgell List of Bishops from 527 (http://www.bisbaturgell.org/bisbat_urgell/episcopologi.htm)

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Roman_Catholic_Diocese_of_Urgell&oldid=481489190"

Categories: Roman Catholic dioceses in Catalonia | Prince-Bishoprics of Spain | Prince-Bishops of Spain | Roman Catholic bishops by diocese | Religion in Andorra | La Seu d'Urgell

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Nicolas Sarkozy

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Nicolas Sarkozy (pronounced [ni.kɔ.la saʁ.kɔ.zi] (listen), born **Nicolas Paul Stéphane Sarközy de Nagy-Bocsa**; 28 January 1955) is the 23rd and current President of the French Republic and *ex officio* Co-Prince of Andorra. He assumed the office on 16 May 2007 after defeating the Socialist Party candidate Ségolène Royal 10 days earlier.

Before his presidency, he was leader of the Union for a Popular Movement (UMP). Under Jacques Chirac's presidency he served as Minister of the Interior in Jean-Pierre Raffarin's (UMP) first two governments (from May 2002 to March 2004), then was appointed Minister of Finances in Raffarin's last government (March 2004 to May 2005) and again Minister of the Interior in Dominique de Villepin's government (2005–2007).

Sarkozy was also president of the General council of the Hauts-de-Seine department from 2004 to 2007 and mayor of Neuilly-sur-Seine, one of the wealthiest communes of France from 1983 to 2002. He was Minister of the Budget in the government of Édouard Balladur (RPR, predecessor of the UMP) during François Mitterrand's last term.

In foreign affairs, he has promised a strengthening of the entente cordiale with the United Kingdom[1] and closer cooperation with the United States.[2] During his term, he faced the late-2000s financial crisis (followed by the recession and the debt crisis caused by it) and the Arab Spring (especially in Tunisia, Libya and Syria). He also married singer-songwriter Carla Bruni on 2 February 2008 at the Élysée Palace in Paris.

Nicolas Sarkozy



President of France

Incumbent

Assumed office
16 May 2007

Prime Minister	François Fillon
Preceded by	Jacques Chirac

Co-Prince of Andorra

Incumbent

Assumed office
16 May 2007
Serving with Joan Enric Vives Sicília

Prime Minister	Albert Pintat Jaume Bartumeu Pere López Agràs (Acting) Antoni Martí
Representative	Philippe Massoni Emmanuelle Mignon Christian Frémont
Preceded by	Jacques Chirac

Minister of the Interior

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Personal life

Family background

Main article: Family history of Nicolas Sarkozy

Sarkozy is the son of Pál István Ernő Sárközy de Nagy-Bócsa[3] (Hungarian: *nagybócsai Sárközy Pál* [nɒɟbo:tʃɒi ʃa:rkøzi pa:l] (listen); in some sources *Nagy-Bócsay Sárközy Pál István Ernő*),[4] a Hungarian aristocrat, and Andrée Jeanne "Dadu" Mallah (b. Paris, 12 October 1925), who is of half Greek Jewish and half French Catholic origin.[5][6] They were married at Saint-François-de-Sales, Paris XVII, on 8 February 1950 and divorced in 1959.[7]

Early life

During Sarkozy's childhood, his father allegedly refused to give his wife's family any financial help, even though he had founded his own advertising agency and had become wealthy. The family lived in a mansion owned by Sarkozy's grandfather, Benedict Mallah, in the 17th Arrondissement of

In office	
2 June 2005 – 26 March 2007	
Prime Minister	Dominique de Villepin
Preceded by	Dominique de Villepin
Succeeded by	François Baroin
In office	
7 May 2002 – 30 March 2004	
Prime Minister	Jean-Pierre Raffarin
Preceded by	Daniel Vaillant
Succeeded by	Dominique de Villepin
Minister of Finance	
In office	
31 March 2004 – 29 November 2004	
Prime Minister	Jean-Pierre Raffarin
Preceded by	Francis Mer
Succeeded by	Hervé Gaymard
Minister of the Budget	
In office	
30 March 1993 – 11 May 1995	
Prime Minister	Édouard Balladur
Preceded by	Michel Charasse
Succeeded by	François d'Aubert
Mayor of Neuilly-sur-Seine	
In office	
14 April 1983 – 7 May 2002	
Preceded by	Achille Peretti
Succeeded by	Louis-Charles Bary
Personal details	
Born	Nicolas Paul Stéphane Sarközy de Nagy-Bocsa 28 January 1955 Paris, France
Political party	Union for a Popular Movement (2002–present)
Other political affiliations	Rally for the Republic (1976–2002)
Spouse(s)	Marie-Dominique Culioli (1982–1996) Cécilia Ciganer-Albéniz (1996–2007) Carla Bruni (2008–present)

Paris. The family later moved to Neuilly-sur-Seine, one of the wealthiest communes of the Île-de-France *région* immediately west of the 17th Arrondissement just outside of Paris. According to Sarkozy, his staunchly Gaullist grandfather was more of an influence on him than his father, whom he rarely saw. Sarkozy was, accordingly, raised Catholic.[5]

Sarkozy said that being abandoned by his father shaped much of who he is today. He also has said that, in his early years, he felt inferior in relation to his wealthier and taller classmates.[8] "What made me who I am now is the sum of all the humiliations suffered during childhood", he said later.[8]

Education

Sarkozy was enrolled in the *Lycée Chaptal*, a well regarded public middle and high school in Paris's 8th arrondissement, where he failed his *sixième*. His family then sent him to the *Cours Saint-Louis de Monceau*, a private Catholic school in the 17th arrondissement, where he was reportedly a mediocre student,[9] but where he nonetheless obtained his *baccalauréat* in 1973. He enrolled at the *Université Paris X Nanterre*, where he graduated with an MA in Private law, and later with a DEA degree in Business law. Paris X Nanterre had been the starting place for the May '68 student movement and was still a stronghold of leftist students. Described as a quiet student, Sarkozy soon joined the right-wing student organization, in which he was very active. He completed his military service as a part time Air Force cleaner.[10] After graduating, he entered the *Institut d'Études Politiques de Paris*, better known as Sciences Po, (1979–1981) but failed to graduate[11] due to an insufficient command of the English language.[12] After passing the bar, he became a lawyer specializing in business and family law,[12] and was one of Silvio Berlusconi's top French advocates.[13][14][15]

Children	Pierre (by Culioli) Jean (by Culioli) Louis (by Ciganer-Albéniz) Giulia (by Bruni)
Residence	Élysée Palace
Alma mater	Paris West University Nanterre La Défense Paris Institute of Political Studies
Signature	
Website	Official website (http://www.sarkozy.fr/home/)

Styles of
Nicolas Sarkozy



Reference style	*Son Excellence (Monsieur)*
Spoken style	*Monsieur le Président*

Styles of
Nicolas Sarkozy



Reference style	His Serene Highness
Spoken style	*Your Serene Highness*

Marriages

Marie-Dominique Culioli

Sarkozy married his first wife, Marie-Dominique Culioli, on 23 September 1982; her father was a pharmacist from Vico (a village north of Ajaccio, Corsica). They had two sons, Pierre (born in 1985), now a hip-hop producer,[16] and Jean (born in 1986) now a local politician in the city of Neuilly-sur-Seine where Sarkozy started his own political career. Sarkozy's best man was the prominent right-wing politician Charles Pasqua, later to become a political opponent.[17] Sarkozy divorced Culioli in 1996, after they had been separated for several years.

Cécilia Ciganer-Albéniz

As mayor of Neuilly-sur-Seine, Sarkozy met former fashion model and public relations executive Cécilia Ciganer-Albéniz (great-granddaughter of composer Isaac Albéniz and daughter of a Moldovan father), when he officiated at her wedding[18] to television host Jacques Martin. In 1988, she left her husband for Sarkozy, and divorced Martin one year later. Sarkozy married her in October 1996, with witnesses Martin Bouygues and Bernard Arnault[19] They have one son, Louis, born 23 April 1997.

Between 2002 and 2005, the couple often appeared together on public occasions, with Cécilia Sarkozy acting as the chief aide for her husband.[20] On 25 May 2005, however, the Swiss newspaper *Le Matin* revealed that she had left Sarkozy for French-Moroccan national Richard Attias, head of Publicis in New York.[21] There were other accusations of a private nature in *Le Matin*, which led to Sarkozy suing the paper.[22] In the meantime, he was said to have had an affair with a journalist of *Le Figaro*, Anne Fulda.[23]

Sarkozy and Cécilia ultimately divorced on 15 October 2007, soon after his election as President.[24]

Carla Bruni



President Barack Obama is greeted by French President Nicolas Sarkozy and his wife Carla Bruni at the G8 Summit dinner in Deauville, France, 26 May 2011.

Less than a month after separating from Cécilia, Sarkozy met Italian-born singer Carla Bruni at a dinner party, and soon entered a relationship with her.[25] They married on 2 February 2008 at the Élysée Palace in Paris.[26]

The couple has a daughter, Giulia, born on 19 October 2011.[27] It is the first time a French president has had a child while in office.[28]

Personal wealth

Sarkozy declared to the Constitutional Council a net worth of €2 million, most of the assets being in the form of life insurance policies.[29] As the French President, one of his first actions was to give himself a pay rise: his yearly salary went from €101,000 to €240,000 (to match his European/French peers).[30] He is also entitled to a mayoral pension as a former mayor of Neuilly-sur-Seine.

Member of National Assembly

Sarkozy is recognised by both the right and left's French parties as a skilled politician and striking orator.[31] His supporters within France emphasize his charisma, political innovation and willingness to "make a dramatic break" amid mounting disaffection against "politics as usual". Overall, he is considered more pro-United States and pro-Israeli than most French politicians.

Since November 2004, Sarkozy has been president of the Union pour un Mouvement Populaire (UMP), France's major right-wing political party, and he was Minister of the Interior in the government of Dominique de Villepin, with the honorific title of Minister of State, making him effectively the number three official in the French State after President Jacques Chirac and the prime minister. His ministerial responsibilities included law enforcement and working to co-ordinate relationships between the national and local governments, as well as Minister of Worship (in this role he created the CFCM, French Council of Muslim Faith). Previously, he was a deputy to the French National Assembly. He was forced to resign this position in order to accept his ministerial appointment. He previously also held several ministerial posts, including Finance Minister.

In government

Sarkozy's political career began when he was 23, when he became a city councillor in Neuilly-sur-Seine. A member of the Neo-Gaullist party RPR, he went on to be elected mayor of that town, after the death of the incumbent mayor Achille Peretti. Sarkozy had been close to Peretti, as his mother was Peretti's secretary. The senior RPR politician at the time, Charles Pasqua, wanted to become mayor, and asked Sarkozy to organize his campaign. Instead Sarkozy profited from Pasqua's short illness to propel himself into the office of mayor.[32] He was the youngest mayor of any town in France with a population of over 50,000. He served from 1983 to 2002. In 1988, he became a deputy in the National Assembly.

In 1993, Sarkozy was in the national news for personally negotiating with the "Human Bomb", a man who had taken small children hostage in a kindergarten in Neuilly.[33] The "Human Bomb" was killed after two days of talks by policemen of the RAID, who entered the school stealthily while the attacker was resting.

At the same time, from 1993 to 1995, he was Minister for the Budget and spokesman for the executive in the cabinet of Prime Minister Édouard Balladur. Throughout most of his early career, Sarkozy had been seen as a protégé of Jacques Chirac. During his tenure, he increased France's public debt more than any other French Budget Minister, by the equivalent of €200 billion (USD260 billion) (FY 1994–1996). The first two budgets he submitted to the parliament (budgets for FY1994 and FY1995) assumed a yearly budget deficit equivalent to six percent of GDP.[34] According to the Maastricht Treaty, the French yearly budget deficit may not exceed three percent of France's GDP.

In 1995, he spurned Chirac and backed Édouard Balladur for President of France. After Chirac won the election, Sarkozy lost his position as Minister for the Budget, and found himself outside the circles of power.

However, he returned after the right-wing defeat at the 1997 parliamentary election, as the number two candidate of the RPR. When the party leader Philippe Séguin resigned, in 1999, he took the leadership of the Neo-Gaullist party. But it obtained its worst result at the 1999 European Parliament election, winning 12.7% of the votes, less than the dissident Rally for France of Charles Pasqua. Sarkozy lost the RPR leadership.

In 2002, however, after his re-election as President of the French Republic (see French presidential election, 2002), Chirac appointed Sarkozy as French Minister of the Interior in the cabinet of Prime Minister Jean-Pierre Raffarin, despite Sarkozy's support of Edouard Balladur for French President in 1995.[35] Following Chirac's 14 July keynote speech on road safety, Sarkozy as interior minister pushed through new legislation leading to the mass purchase of speed cameras and a campaign to increase the awareness of dangers on the roads.



Nicolas Sarkozy speaking at the congress of his party, 28 November 2004

In the cabinet reshuffle of 30 April 2004, Sarkozy became Finance Minister. Tensions continued to build between Sarkozy and Chirac and within the UMP party, as Sarkozy's intentions of becoming head of the party after the resignation of Alain Juppé became clear.

In party elections of 10 November 2004, Sarkozy became leader of the UMP with 85% of the vote. In accordance with an agreement with Chirac, he resigned as Finance Minister. Sarkozy's ascent was marked by the division of UMP between *sarkozystes*, such as Sarkozy's "first lieutenant", Brice Hortefeux, and Chirac loyalists, such as Jean-Louis Debré.

Sarkozy was made Chevalier de la Légion d'honneur (Knight of the Legion of Honour) by President Chirac in February 2005. He was re-elected on 13 March 2005 to the National Assembly (as required by the constitution,[36] he had to resign as a deputy when he became minister in 2002).

On 31 May 2005 the main French news radio station *France Info* reported a rumour that Sarkozy was to be reappointed Minister of the Interior in the government of Dominique de Villepin without resigning from the UMP leadership. This was confirmed on 2 June 2005, when the members of the government were officially announced.

First term as Minister of the Interior

Towards the end of his first term as Minister of the Interior, in 2004, Sarkozy was the most divisive conservative politician in France, according to polls conducted at the beginning of 2004.

Sarkozy has sought to ease the sometimes tense relationships between the general French population and the Muslim community. Unlike the Catholic Church in France with their official leaders or Protestants with their umbrella organisations, the French Muslim community had a lack of structure with no group that could legitimately deal with the French government on their behalf. Sarkozy supported the foundation in May 2003 of the private non-profit Conseil français du culte musulman ("French Council of the Muslim Faith"), an organisation meant to be representative of French Muslims.[37] In addition, Sarkozy has suggested amending the 1905 law on the separation of Church and State, mostly in order to be able to finance mosques and other Muslim institutions with public funds[38] so that they are less reliant on money from outside of France. It was not followed by any concrete measure.

Minister of Finance

During his short appointment as Minister of Finance, Sarkozy was responsible for introducing a number of policies. The degree to which this reflected *libéralisme* (a hands-off approach to running the economy) or more traditional French state *dirigisme* (intervention) is controversial. He resigned the day following his election as president of the UMP.

- In September 2004, Sarkozy oversaw the reduction of the government ownership stake in France Télécom from 50.4 percent to 41 percent.[39]
- Sarkozy backed a partial nationalisation of the large engineering company Alstom decided by his predecessor when the company was exposed to bankruptcy in 2003.[40]
- In June 2004, Sarkozy reached an agreement with the major retail chains in France to concertedly lower prices on household goods by an average of two percent; the success of this measure is disputed, with studies suggesting that the decrease was close to one percent in September.[41]
- Taxes: Sarkozy avoided taking a position on the ISF (solidarity tax on wealth). This is considered an ideological symbol by many on the left and right. Some in the business world and on the liberal right, such as Alain Madelin, wanted it abolished. For Sarkozy, that would have risked being categorised by the left as a gift to the richest classes of society at a time of economic difficulties.[42]

Villepin government

Second term as Minister of the Interior

During his second term at the Ministry of the Interior, Sarkozy was initially more discreet about his ministerial activities: instead of focusing on his own topic of law and order, many of his declarations addressed wider issues,

since he was expressing his opinions as head of the UMP party.

Main article: Response to the 2005 civil unrest in France

However, the civil unrest in autumn 2005 put law enforcement in the spotlight again. Sarkozy was accused of having provoked the unrest by calling young delinquents from housing projects "rabble" *("racaille")* in Argenteuil near Paris, and controversially suggested cleansing the minority suburbs with a Kärcher. After the accidental death of two youths, which sparked the riots, Sarkozy first blamed it on "hoodlums" and gangsters. These remarks were sharply criticised by many on the left wing and by a member of his own government, Delegate Minister for Equal Opportunities Azouz Begag.[43]

After the rioting, he made a number of announcements on future policy: selection of immigrants, greater tracking of immigrants, and a reform on the 1945 ordinance government justice measures for young delinquents.



Sarkozy as Minister of the Interior with then U.S. Secretary of State Condoleezza Rice, after their bilateral meeting in Washington, D.C., 12 September 2006

UMP leader

Before he was elected President of France, Sarkozy was president of UMP, the French conservative party, elected with 85 percent of the vote. During his presidency, the number of members has significantly increased. In 2005, he supported a "yes" vote in the French referendum on the European Constitution, but the "No" vote won.

Throughout 2005, Sarkozy called for radical changes in France's economic and social policies. These calls culminated in an interview with *Le Monde* on 8 September 2005, during which he claimed that the French had been misled for 30 years by false promises.[44] Among other issues:

- he called for a simplified and "fairer" taxation system, with fewer loopholes and a maximum taxation rate (all *direct* taxes combined) at 50 percent of revenue;
- he approved measures reducing or denying social support to unemployed workers who refuse work offered to them;
- he pressed for a reduction in the budget deficit, claiming that the French state has been living off credit for some time.

Such policies are what are called in France *libéral* (that is, in favour of laissez-faire economic policies) or, with a pejorative undertone, *ultra-libéral*. Sarkozy rejects this label of *libéral* and prefers to call himself a pragmatist.

Sarkozy opened another avenue of controversy by declaring that he wanted a reform of the immigration system, with quotas designed to admit the skilled workers needed by the French economy. He also wants to reform the current French system for foreign students, saying that it enables foreign students to take open-ended curricula in order to obtain residency in France; instead, he wants to select the best students to the best curricula in France.

In early 2006, the French parliament adopted a controversial bill known as DADVSI, which reforms French copyright law. Since his party was divided on the issue, Sarkozy stepped in and organised meetings between various parties involved. Later, groups such as the Odebi League and EUCD.info alleged that Sarkozy personally and unofficially supported certain amendments to the law, which enacted strong penalties against designers of peer-to-peer systems.

Presidential campaign

Main article: French presidential election, 2007

Sarkozy was a likely candidate for the presidency in 2007; in an often-repeated comment made on television channel France 2, when asked by a journalist whether he thought about the presidential election when he shaved in the morning, Sarkozy commented, "not just when I shave".[45]



Ségolène Royal was Sarkozy's opponent during the presidential election.

On 14 January 2007, Sarkozy was chosen by the UMP to be its candidate in the 2007 presidential election. Sarkozy, who was running unopposed, won 98 percent of the votes. Of the 327,000 UMP members who could vote, 69 percent participated in the online ballot.[46]

In February 2007, Sarkozy appeared on a televised debate on TF1 where he expressed his support for affirmative action and the freedom to work overtime. Despite his opposition to same-sex marriage, he advocated civil unions and the possibility for same-sex partners to inherit under the same regime as married couples. The law was voted in July 2007.[47]

On 7 February, Sarkozy decided in favour of a projected second, non-nuclear, aircraft carrier for the national Navy (adding to the nuclear *Charles de Gaulle*), during an official visit in Toulon with Defence Minister Michèle Alliot-Marie. "This would allow permanently having an operational ship, taking into account the constraints of maintenance", he explained.[48]

On 21 March, President Jacques Chirac announced his support for Sarkozy. Chirac pointed out that Sarkozy had been chosen as presidential candidate for the ruling UMP party, and said: "So it is totally natural that I give him my vote and my support." To focus on his campaign, Sarkozy stepped down as interior minister on 26 March.[49]


Demonstrations and riots, Paris, May 6, 2007, following the election of Nicolas Sarkozy to the presidency of the French republic.

During the campaign, rival candidates had accused Sarkozy of being a "candidate for brutality" and of presenting hard-line views about France's future.[50] Opponents also accused him of courting conservative voters in policy-making in a bid to capitalise on right-wing sentiments among some communities. However, his popularity was sufficient to see him polling as the frontrunner throughout the later campaign period, consistently ahead of rival Socialist candidate, Ségolène Royal.

The first round of the presidential election was held on 22 April 2007. Sarkozy came in first with 31.18 percent of the votes, ahead of Ségolène Royal of the Socialists with 25.87 percent. In the second round, Sarkozy came out on top to win the election with 53.06 percent of the votes ahead of Ségolène Royal with 46.94 percent.[51] In his speech immediately following the announcement of the election results, Sarkozy stressed the need for France's modernisation, but also called for national unity, mentioning that Royal was in his thoughts. In that speech, he claimed "The French have chosen to break with the ideas, habits and behaviour of the past. I will restore the value of work, authority, merit and respect for the nation."

Political career

- President of the French Republic : Since 2007.
- Co-Prince of Andorra: Since 2007

Governmental functions

- Minister of Budget and government's spokesman : 1993–1995.
- Minister of Communication and government's spokesman : 1994–1995.
- Minister of State, minister of Interior, of the Internal Security and Local Freedoms : 2002–2004.
- Minister of State, minister of Economy, Finance and Industry : March–November 2004 (resignation).
- Minister of State, minister of Interior and Planning : 2005–2007 (resignation).

Electoral mandates

European Parliament

- Member of the European Parliament : July–September 1999 (Resignation). Elected in 1999.

National Assembly of France

- Member of the National Assembly of France for Hauts-de-Seine (6th constituency) : 1988–1993 (became minister in 1993) / 1995–2002 (became minister in 2002) / March–June 2005 (became minister in June 2005). Elected in 1988, reelected in 1993, 1995, 1997, 2002, 2005.

Regional Council

- Regional councillor of Île-de-France : 1983–1988 (Resignation). Elected in 1986.

General Council

- President of the General Council of Hauts-de-Seine : 2004–2007 (Resignation, became President of the French Republic in 2007).
- Vice-president of the General Council of Hauts-de-Seine : 1986–1988 (Resignation).
- General councillor of Hauts-de-Seine : 1985–1988 / 2004–2007 (Resignation, became President of the French Republic in 2007).

Municipal Council

- Mayor of Neuilly-sur-Seine : 1983–2002 (Resignation). Reelected in 1989, 1995, and 2001.
- Deputy-mayor of Neuilly-sur-Seine : 2002–2007 (Resignation).
- Municipal councillor of Neuilly-sur-Seine : 1977–2007 (Resignation). Reelected in 1983, 1989, 1995, and 2001.

Political functions

- President of the Union for a Popular Movement : 2004–2007 (resignation, became President of the French Republic in 2007). Elected in 2004.
- President of the Rally for the Republic : April–October 1999.
- General secretary of the Rally for the Republic : 1998–1999.
- Deputy general secretary of the Rally for the Republic : 1992–1993.

Presidency

Main article: Presidency of Nicolas Sarkozy

On 6 May 2007, Nicolas Sarkozy became the sixth person to be elected President of the Fifth Republic (which

was established in 1958), and the 23rd president in French history. He is the first French president to have been born after World War II.

The official transfer of power from Jacques Chirac took place on 16 May at 11:00 am (9:00 UTC) at the Élysée Palace, where he was given the authorization codes of the French nuclear arsenal.[52] In the afternoon, the new President flew to Berlin to meet with German Chancellor Angela Merkel.

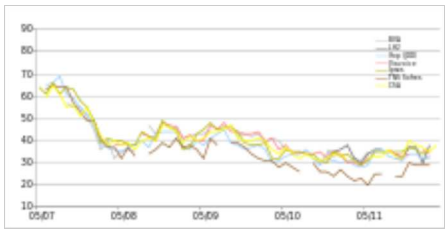


Nicolas Sarkozy and General Jean-Louis Georgelin, Chief of the Defence Staff, reviewing troops during the Bastille Day 2008 military parade on the Champs-Élysées, Paris

Under Sarkozy's government, François Fillon replaced Dominique de Villepin as Prime Minister.[53] Sarkozy appointed Bernard Kouchner, the left-wing founder of Médecins Sans Frontières, as his foreign minister, leading to Kouchner's expulsion from the Socialist Party. In addition to Kouchner, three more Sarkozy ministers are from the left, including Eric Besson, who served as Ségolène Royal's economic adviser at the beginning of her campaign. Sarkozy also appointed seven women to form a total cabinet of 15; one, Justice Minister Rachida Dati, is the first woman of Northern African origin to serve in a French cabinet. Of the 15, two attended the elite École nationale d'administration (ENA).[54] The ministers were reorganised, with the controversial creation of a 'Ministry of Immigration, Integration, National Identity and Co-Development'—given to his right-hand man Brice Hortefeux—and of a 'Ministry of Budget, Public Accounts and Civil Administration'—handed out to Éric Wœrth, supposed to prepare the replacement of only a third of all civil servants who retire. However, after the 17 June parliamentary elections, the Cabinet has been adjusted to 15 ministers and 16 deputy ministers, totalling 31 officials.



Sarkozy greets US first lady Laura Bush in Germany, June 2007



Popularity polls

Shortly after taking office, Sarkozy began negotiations with Colombian president Álvaro Uribe and the left-wing guerrilla FARC, regarding the release of hostages held by the rebel group, especially Franco-Colombian politician Ingrid Betancourt. According to some sources, Sarkozy himself asked for Uribe to release FARC's "chancellor" Rodrigo Granda.[55] Furthermore, he announced on 24 July 2007, that French and European representatives had obtained the extradition of the Bulgarian nurses detained in Libya to their country. In exchange, he signed with Muammar Gaddafi security, health care and immigration pacts—and a $230 million (168 million euros) MILAN antitank missile sale.[56] The contract was the first made by Libya since 2004, and was negotiated with MBDA, a subsidiary of EADS. Another 128 millions euros contract would have been signed, according to Tripoli, with EADS for a TETRA radio system. The Socialist Party (PS) and the Communist Party (PCF) criticised a "state affair" and a "barter" with a "Rogue state".[57] The leader of the PS, François Hollande, requested the opening of a parliamentary investigation.[56]

On 8 June 2007, during the 33rd G8 summit in Heiligendamm, Sarkozy set a goal of reducing French CO_2 emissions by 50 percent by 2050 in order to prevent global warming. He then pushed forward Socialist Dominique Strauss-Kahn as European nominee to the International Monetary Fund (IMF).[58] Critics alleged

that Sarkozy proposed to nominate Strauss-Kahn as managing director of the IMF to deprive the Socialist Party of one of its more popular figures.[59]

In 2010, a study of Yale and Columbia universities ranked France the most respectful country of the G20 concerning the environment.[60]

The Union for a Popular Movement (UMP), Sarkozy's party, won a majority at the June 2007 legislative election, although by less than expected. In July, the UMP majority, seconded by the *Nouveau Centre*, ratified one of Sarkozy's electoral promises, which was to partially revoke the inheritance tax.[61][62] The inheritance tax formerly brought eight billion euros into state coffers.[63]

Sarkozy's UMP majority prepared a budget that reduced taxes, in particular for upper middle-class people, allegedly in an effort to boost GDP growth, but did not reduce state expenditures. He was criticised by the European Commission for doing so.



Sarkozy (at left) attending the G-8 Summit in 2009

Sarkozy broke with the custom of amnestying traffic tickets and of releasing thousands of prisoners from overcrowded jails on Bastille Day, a tradition that Napoleon had started in 1802 to commemorate the storming of the Bastille during the French Revolution.[56]

Sarkozy's government issued a decree on 7 August 2007 to generalise a voluntary biometric profiling program of travellers in airports. The program, called 'Parafes', was to use fingerprints. The new database would be interconnected with the Schengen Information System (SIS) as well as with a national database of wanted persons (FPR). The Commission nationale de l'informatique et des libertés (CNIL) protested against this new decree, opposing itself to the recording of fingerprints and to the interconnection between the SIS and the FPR.[64]

On 21 July 2008, the French parliament passed constitutional reforms which Sarkozy had made one of the key pledges of his presidential campaign. The vote was 539 to 357, one vote over the three-fifths majority required; the changes are not yet finalized. They would introduce a two-term limit for the presidency, and end the president's right of collective pardon. They would allow the president to address parliament in-session, and parliament, to set its own agenda. They would give parliament a veto over some presidential appointments, while ending government control over parliament's committee system. He has claimed that these reforms strengthen parliament, while some opposition socialist lawmakers have described it as a "consolidation of a monocracy".[65]

On 23 July 2008, parliament voted the "loi de modernisation de l'économie" (Modernization of the Economy Law) which loosened restrictions on retail prices and reduced limitations on the creation of businesses. The Government has also made changes to long-standing French work-hour regulations, allowing employers to negotiate overtime with employees and making all hours worked past the traditional French 35-hour week tax-free.[66]

However, as a result of the global financial crisis that came to a head in September 2008, Sarkozy has returned to the state interventionism of his predecessors, declaring that "laissez-faire capitalism is over" and denouncing the "dictatorship of the market". Confronted with the suggestion that he had become a socialist, he responded: "Have I become socialist? Perhaps." He has also pledged to create 100,000 state-subsidised jobs.[67] This reversion to *dirigisme* is seen as an attempt to stem the growing popularity of revolutionary socialist leader Olivier Besancenot.[68]

France wielded special international power when Sarkozy held the rotating EU Presidency from July 2008



President Nicolas Sarkozy with President of Brazil Dilma Rousseff

through December 2008. Sarkozy has publicly stated his intention to attain EU approval of a progressive energy package before the end of his EU Presidency. This energy package would clearly define climate change objectives for the EU and hold members to specific reductions in emissions. In further support of his collaborative outlook on climate change, Sarkozy has led the EU into a partnership with China.[69] On 6 December 2008, Nicolas Sarkozy, current Chairman of the European Union, met the Dalai Lama in Poland and outraged China, which has announced that it would postpone the China-EU summit indefinitely.[70] On 3 April 2009, at the NATO Summit in Strasbourg, Sarkozy announced that France would offer asylum to a former Guantanamo captive.[71][72] "We are on the path to failure if we continue to act as we have", French President Nicolas Sarkozy cautioned at the U.N. Climate Summit on 22 September 2009.[73]



Nicolas Sarkozy with cypriot opposition leader Nicos Anastasiades

On 27 February 2011, Sarkozy did for the 10th time of his presidency a government reshuffle.[74]

On 29 June 2011, he did a 11th government reshuffle, after the resignation of Christine Lagarde, who was appointed at the head of the International Monetary Fund. Five new ministers were appointed.

Middle East

On 5 January 2009, Sarkozy called for a ceasefire plan for the Gaza Strip Conflict.[75] The plan, which was jointly proposed by Sarkozy and Egyptian ex-President Hosni Mubarak envisions the continuation of the delivery of aid to Gaza and talks with Israel on border security, a key issue for Israel as it says Hamas smuggles its rockets into Gaza through the Egyptian border. Welcoming the proposal, US Secretary of State Condoleezza Rice called for a "ceasefire that can endure and that can bring real security".[76]

Involvement in Libya



Nicolas Sarkozy address the E-G8 Forum in Paris in 2011

In March 2011, after having been criticized for his unwillingness to support the Egyptian and Tunisian revolutions, and persuaded by the philosopher Bernard-Henri Levy to have France actively engage against the forces of the Libyan leader, Muammar Gaddafi, Nicolas Sarkozy was amongst the first Heads of State to demand the resignation of Gaddafi and his government, which was then fighting a civil war in Libya. On 10 March 2011, Nicolas Sarkozy welcomed to the Elysee Palace, three emissaries from the Libyan Transitory Rebel Council (CNTT), brought to him by Bernard-Henri Levy who mediated at the meeting. Nicolas Sarkozy promised them a no-fly zone would be imposed on Gaddafi's aeroplanes. He also promised them France's military assistance. On 17 March 2011, at the behest of France, resolution 1973 was adopted by the Security Council of the United Nations, permitting the creation of a "no fly" zone over Libya, and for the undertaking of "necessary measures" for the protection of the country's civilian population. On 19 March 2011, Nicolas Sarkozy officially announced the beginning of a military intervention in Libya, with France's participation. These actions of Nicolas Sarkozy were favorably received by the majority of

the French political class and public opinion.[77][78][79]

Public image

Sarkozy was named the 68th best-dressed person in the world by *Vanity Fair*, alongside David Beckham and Brad Pitt.[80] However, Sarkozy has also been named as the third worst-dressed person in the world by *GQ*,[81] a listing that has been disputed.[82] Beside publicizing, at times, and at others, refusing to publicise his ex-wife Cécilia Ciganer-Albéniz's image,[83] Sarkozy takes care of his own personal image, sometimes to the point of censorship—such as in the *Paris Match* affair, when he allegedly forced its director to resign following an article on his ex-wife and her affair with Publicis executive Richard Attias, or pressures exercised on the *Journal du dimanche*, which was preparing to publish an article concerning Ciganer-Albéniz's decision not to vote in the second round of the 2007 presidential election.[84] In its 9 August 2007 edition, *Paris Match* retouched a photo of Sarkozy in order to erase a love handle.[85][86][87] His official portrait destined for all French town halls was done by SIPA (http://www.sipa.com) photographer Philippe Warrin, better known for his paparazzi work.[88]

Former *Daily Telegraph* journalist Colin Randall has highlighted Sarkozy's tighter control of his image and frequent interventions in the media: "he censors a book, or fires the chief editor of a weekly."[88] Sarkozy is reported by Reuters to be sensitive about his height (believed to be 165 cm (5 ft 5 in)).[89] The French media have pointed out that Carla Bruni frequently wears flats when in public with him. In 2009, this was the subject of a political row, when a worker at a factory where Sarkozy gave a speech said she was asked to stand next to him because she was of a similar height (this story was corroborated by some trade union officials). The president's office called the accusation "completely absurd and grotesque", while the Socialist Party mocked his fastidious preparation.[90]

Sarkozy lost a suit against a manufacturer of Sarkozy voodoo dolls, in which he claimed that he had a right to his own image.[91]

La Conquête

The biopic *La Conquête* is a 2011 film that dramatizes Sarkozy's rise to power, with candid portrayals of Sarkozy himself, Chirac and Villepin, and that was shown at the 2011 Cannes Film Festival.[92]

Controversies

Generally, Sarkozy is strongly disliked by the Left, and is also criticised by some on the Right, most vocally by supporters of Jacques Chirac and Dominique de Villepin, such as Jean-Louis Debré.[93][94]

The magazine *Marianne* accused Sarkozy of changing opinion in an Airbus affair.[95] The communist-leaning magazine *L'Humanité* accused Sarkozy of being a populist.[96]

In 2004 Sarkozy co-authored a book, *La République, les religions, l'espérance* (*The Republic, Religions, and Hope*),[97] in which he argued that the young should not be brought up solely on secular or republican values. He advocated reducing the separation of church and state, arguing for the government subsidy of mosques in order to encourage Islamic integration into French society.[98] He opposes financing of religious institutions with funds from outside France. After meeting with Tom Cruise, Sarkozy was criticised by some for meeting with a member of the Church of Scientology, which is seen as a cult in France (see Parliamentary Commission on Cults in

France).[99] Sarkozy stated that "the roots of France are essentially Christian" at December 2007 speech in Rome. He called Islam "one of the greatest and most beautiful civilizations the world has known" at a speech in Riyadh in January 2008. Both comments drew criticism from Christians.[100]



Many on the Left have a particular distrust for Nicolas Sarkozy; specific "anti-Sarko" movements have been started

In the midst of a tense period and following the accidental death of an 11-year-old boy in the Paris suburb of La Courneuve in June 2005, Sarkozy quoted a local resident and vowed to clean the area out "with a Kärcher" (*nettoyer la cité au Kärcher*, referring to a well-known German brand of pressure-cleaning equipment), and two days before the 2005 Paris riots he referred to the criminal youth of the housing projects as *voyous* (thugs) and *racaille*, a slang term which can be translated into English as *rabble*, *scum* or *riff-raff*;[101] the French Communist Party's publication *L'Humanité* branded this language as inappropriate.[102]

In September 2005 Sarkozy was accused of pushing for a hasty inquiry into an arson attack on a police station in Pau, of which the alleged perpetrators were acquitted for lack of proof.[103] On 22 June 2005 Sarkozy told law enforcement officials that he had questioned the Minister of Justice about the future of "the judge" who had freed a man on parole who had later committed a murder.[104]

Sarkozy opposed the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq. However, he was critical of the way Jacques Chirac and his foreign minister Dominique de Villepin expressed France's opposition to the war. Talking at the French-American Foundation in Washington, D.C. on 12 September 2006, he denounced what he called the "French arrogance" and said: "It is bad manners to embarrass one's allies or sound like one is taking delight in their troubles."[105] He added: "We must never again turn our disagreements into a crisis." Jacques Chirac reportedly said in private that Sarkozy's speech was "appalling" and "a shameful act".[105]

Even though his former foreign minister Bernard Kouchner (excluded from the Socialist party after his inclusion in François Fillon's government) had been one of the few supporters in France of removal of Saddam Hussein from power, Sarkozy's stance on the war has not changed.

A few weeks before the first round of the 2007 presidential elections, Sarkozy said during an interview with philosopher Michel Onfray[106] that he thinks disorders such as paedophilia and depression have a genetic as well as social basis, saying "I don't agree with you, I'd be inclined to think that one is born a paedophile, and it is actually a problem that we do not know how to cure this disease"; he also claimed that suicides among youth were linked to genetic predispositions by stating, "I don't want to give parents a complex. It's not exclusively the parents' fault every time a youngster commits suicide." These statements were criticised by some scientists, including controversial geneticist Axel Kahn.[107][108] Sarkozy later said, "What part is innate and what part is acquired? At least let's debate it, let's not close the door to all debate."[109]

On 27 July 2007, Sarkozy delivered a speech in Senegal, written by Henri Guaino, in which he made reference to "African peasants".[110][111] The controversial remarks were widely condemned by Africans, who viewed them as racist.[111][112][113] South African president Thabo Mbeki praised Sarkozy's speech, which raised criticism by some in the South African media.[111][113]

On 23 February 2008, Sarkozy was filmed by a reporter for French newspaper *Le Parisien* having the following exchange while visiting the Paris International Agricultural Show:[114]

> While quickly crossing the hall Saturday morning, in the middle of the crowd, Sarkozy encounters a recalcitrant visitor who refuses to shake his hand. "Ah no, don't touch me!", said the man. The president retorted immediately: "Get lost, then." "You're making me dirty", yelled the man. With a frozen smile, Sarkozy says, his teeth glistening, a refined "Get lost, then, poor dumb-ass, go."[115]

This exchange has been cause for much humour and debate regarding its propriety in the French press. It should also be noted that a precise translation into English has many possible variations.[116][117][118]

On 28 August 2008, Hervé Eon, from Laval came to an anti-Sarkozy demonstration with a sign bearing the words *Casse-toi pov' con*, the exact words Sarkozy had uttered. Eon was arrested for causing offence to the presidential function and the prosecutor, who in France indirectly reports to the president, requested a fine of 1000€.[119][120] The court eventually imposed a symbolic 30€ suspended fine, which has generally been interpreted as a defeat for the prosecution side.[121] This incident was widely reported on, in particular as Sarkozy, as president of the Republic, is immune from prosecution, notably restricting Eon's rights to sue Sarkozy for defamation.[122]

On 8 November 2009, Sarkozy posted on his Facebook page a picture supposedly showing him chipping away at the Berlin Wall during its fall. However, the dates were inconsistent and the picture was proven to be fake – and later archived footage confirmed this. This news of forgery spread in France, and later evolved into a meme, "Sarkozy Was There", where Sarkozy is photoshopped into historical events.

On 5 July 2010, following its investigations on the Bettencourt affair, online newspaper Mediapart ran an article in which Claire Thibout, an ex-accountant working for Liliane Bettencourt, accused Nicolas Sarkozy and Eric Woerth of receiving illegal campaign donations in 2007, in cash.[123][124]

On 30 July 2010, Sarkozy suggested a new policy of security, and he proposed "stripping foreign-born French citizens who opted to acquire their nationality at their majority of their citizenship if they are convicted of threatening the life of a police officer or other serious crimes".[125] This policy has been criticized for example by the US newspaper *The New York Times*,[125] by Sarkozy's political opponents, including the leader of the PS, Martine Aubry,[126] and by experts of French law, including the ex-member of the Constitutional Council of France, Robert Badinter, who said that such action would be unconstitutional.[127]

Awards and honours

French honours

- Legion of Honour
  - Grand Cross (2007 — automatic when taking office)
  - Knight (2004)
- Grand Cross of the National Order of Merit (2007 — automatic when taking office)

Other countries

- Belgium: Commander of the Order of Leopold
- Bulgaria: Grand Cross of Order of Stara Planina
- Georgia: Saint George's Victory Order[128]
- Holy See: Proto-canon of the Papal Basilica of St. John Lateran (2007 - the post is held *ex officio* by the French Head of State)[129]

- Italy: Premio Mediterraneo[130]
- Spain: Knight of the Order of the Golden Fleece (2011)[131]
- Spain: Grand Cross of the Order of Charles III (2004)[132]
- United Kingdom: Honorary Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath (2008)[133]

Notes

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2. ^ Anderson, John Ward and Molly Moore; "Sarkozy Wins, Vows to Restore Pride in France" (http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2007/05/06/AR2007050600216.html) , *Washington Post*, 7 May 2007
3. ^ It is the "westernised", or "internationalised", version of his Hungarian name, in which the given name is put first (whereas in Hungarian given names come last), and the French aristocratic particle "de" is used instead of the Hungarian aristocratic ending "-i". This "westernisation" of Hungarian names is frequent, particularly for people with an aristocratic name. Check for example the leader of Hungary from 1920 to 1944, whose Hungarian name is nagybányai Horthy Miklós, but who is known in English as Miklós Horthy de Nagybánya. The French name of Pál Sárközy de Nagy-Bócsa from 1948 is Paul Étienne Arnaud Sarközy de Nagy-Bocsa, where the given name Pál has been translated into Paul in French, and the acute accents on the "a" of Sarközy and the "o" of Bocsa were dropped as these letters never carry an acute accent (*accent aigu*) in French. The trema on the "o" of Sárközy was kept, probably because French typewriters allow this combination, whereas it is impossible to write "a" or "o" with an acute accent using a French typewriter.
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5. ^ ***a*** ***b*** "Profile: Nicolas Sarkozy" (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/3673102.stm) . BBC News. 26 July 2009. http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/3673102.stm. Retrieved 9 March 2010.
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8. ^ ***a*** ***b*** *see Catherine Nay's semi-official biography*
9. ^ *Un pouvoir nommé désir*, Catherine Nay, 2007
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12. ^ ***a*** ***b*** See Catherine Nay's semi-official biography
13. ^ "Berlusconi : le "bon Nicolas Sarkozy" a été mon avocat" (http://tempsreel.nouvelobs.com/actualites/international/europe/20090629.OBS2316/berlusconi__le_bon_nicolas_sarkozy_a_ete_mon_avocat.html) . *Le Nouvel Observateur*. France. 29 June 2009. http://tempsreel.nouvelobs.com/actualites/international/europe/20090629.OBS2316/berlusconi__le_bon_nicolas_sarkozy_a_ete_mon_avocat.html. Retrieved 9 March 2010.
14. ^ "Corfù, il vertice del disgelo "Riparte collaborazione Nato-Russia" Il Cavaliere: "Mandai il mio avvocato Sarkozy da lui per la Georgia..."" (http://www.repubblica.it/2009/06/sezioni/politica/berlusconi-varie-2/berlusconi-russia/berlusconi-russia.html) . Repubblica. http://www.repubblica.it/2009/06/sezioni/politica/berlusconi-varie-2/berlusconi-russia/berlusconi-russia.html. Retrieved 9 March 2010.
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President of France

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **President of the French Republic** (French: *Président de la République française*) colloquially referred to in English as the **President of France**, is France's elected Head of State.

Four of France's five republics have had presidents as their heads of state, making the French presidency the oldest presidency in Europe still to exist in some form. In each of the republics' constitutions, the president's powers, functions and duties, and their relation with French governments differed.

For details about the French system of government see Government of France.

The president of France is also the ex officio Co-Prince of Andorra, Grand Master of the Légion d'honneur and the Ordre national du Mérite and honorary proto-canon of the Basilica of St. John Lateran in Rome.

The current President of the Republic is Nicolas Sarkozy, since 16 May 2007.

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President of the French Republic



Incumbent
Nicolas Sarkozy
since 16 May 2007

Residence	Élysée Palace, Paris
Term length	Five years, renewable once consecutively
Inaugural holder	Louis-Napoléon Bonaparte 20 December 1848
Formation	Constitution of the Fifth Republic, 4 October 1958
Salary	21 194.52 euros/month
Website	http://www.elysee.fr/

Current presidential powers

The French Fifth Republic is a semi-presidential system. Unlike many other European presidents, the office of the French President is quite powerful. Although it is the Prime Minister of France and parliament that oversee much of the nation's actual lawmaking, the French President wields significant influence. The president holds the nation's most senior office, and outranks all other politicians.

Summary

The president's greatest power is their ability to choose the Prime Minister. However, since only the French National Assembly has the power to dismiss the Prime Minister's government, the president is forced to name a prime minister who can command the support of a majority in the assembly.

- When the majority of the Assembly has opposite political views to that of the president, this leads to political *cohabitation*. In that case, the president's power is diminished, since much of the de facto power relies on a supportive prime minister and National Assembly, and is not directly attributed to the post of president.
- When the majority of the Assembly sides with him, the President can take a more active role and may, in effect, direct government policy. The prime minister is then the personal choice of the President, and can be easily replaced if the administration becomes unpopular. This device has been used in recent years by both François Mitterrand and Jacques Chirac.

Since 2002, the mandate of the president and the Assembly are both 5 years and the two elections are close to each other. Therefore, the likelihood of a "cohabitation" is lower. Among the powers of the government:

- The president promulgates laws.
  - The president has a very limited form of suspensive veto: when presented with a law, he or she can request another reading of it by Parliament, but only once per law.
  - The president may also refer the law for review to the Constitutional Council prior to promulgation.
- The president may dissolve the French National Assembly
- The president may refer treaties or certain types of laws to popular referendum, within certain conditions, among them the agreement of the Prime minister or the parliament.
- The president is the Commander-in-Chief (CINC) of the armies.
- The president may order the use of nuclear weapons.
- The president names the Prime minister but he cannot dismiss him. He names and dismisses the other ministers, with the agreement of the Prime minister.
- The president names most officials (with the assent of the cabinet).
- The president names certain members of the Constitutional Council.
- The president receives foreign ambassadors.
- The president may grant a pardon (but not an amnesty) to convicted criminals; the president can also lessen or suppress criminal sentences. This was of crucial importance when France still operated the death penalty: criminals sentenced to death would generally request that the president commute their sentence to life imprisonment.

All decisions of the president must be countersigned by the Prime minister, except dissolving the French National Assembly.

Detailed constitutional powers

The constitutional attributions of the president are defined in Title II of the Constitution of France.

Article 5 The President of the Republic shall see that the Constitution is observed. He shall ensure, by his arbitration, the proper functioning of the public authorities and the continuity of the State. He shall be the guarantor of national independence, territorial integrity and observance of treaties.

Article 8 The President of the Republic shall appoint the Prime Minister. He shall terminate the appointment of the Prime Minister when the latter tenders the resignation of the Government. On the proposal of the Prime Minister, he shall appoint the other members of the Government and terminate their appointments.

Article 9 The President of the Republic shall preside over the Council of Ministers.

Article 10 The President of the Republic shall promulgate Acts of Parliament within fifteen days following the final adoption of an Act and its transmission to the Government. He may, before the expiry of this time limit, ask Parliament to reconsider the Act or sections of the Act. Reconsideration shall not be refused.

While the president has to sign all acts adopted by parliament into law, he cannot refuse to do so and exercise a kind of right of veto; his only power in that matter is to ask for a single reconsideration of the law by parliament and this power is subject to countersigning by the Prime minister.

Article 11 The president may submit laws to the citizens in a referendum with advice and consent of the cabinet.

Article 12 The President of the Republic may, after consulting the Prime Minister and the Presidents of the assemblies, declare the National Assembly dissolved. A general election shall take place not less than twenty days and not more than forty days after the dissolution. The National Assembly shall convene as of right on the second Thursday following its election. Should it so convene outside the period prescribed for the ordinary session, a session shall be called by right for a fifteen-day period. No further dissolution shall take place within a year following this election.

Article 13 The President of the Republic shall sign the ordinances and decrees deliberated upon in the Council of Ministers. He shall make appointments to the civil and military posts of the State. [...]

Article 14 The President of the Republic shall accredit ambassadors and envoys extraordinary to foreign powers ; foreign ambassadors and envoys extraordinary shall be accredited to him.

Article 15 The President of the Republic shall be commander-in-chief of the armed forces. He shall preside over the higher national defence councils and committees.

Article 16 Where the institutions of the Republic, the independence of the Nation, the integrity of its territory or the fulfilment of its international commitments are under serious and immediate threat, and where the proper functioning of the constitutional public authorities is interrupted, the President of the Republic shall take the measures required by these circumstances, after formally consulting the Prime Minister, the Presidents of the assemblies and the Constitutional Council. He shall inform the Nation of these measures in a message. The measures must stem from the desire to provide the constitutional public authorities, in the shortest possible time, with the means to carry out their duties. The Constitutional Council shall be consulted with regard to such measures. Parliament shall convene as of right. The National Assembly shall not be dissolved during the exercise of the emergency powers.

Article 16, allowing the president a limited form of rule by decree for a limited period of time in exceptional circumstance, has been used only once, by Charles de Gaulle during the Algerian War, from 23 April to 29 September 1961.

Article 17 The President of the Republic has the right to grant pardon.

Article 18 The President of the Republic shall communicate with the two assemblies of Parliament by means of messages, which he shall cause to be read and which shall not be the occasion for any debate. He can also give an address in front of the Congress of France in Versailles. Outside sessions, Parliament shall be convened especially for this purpose.

From 1875 to 2008, the President was prohibited from entering the houses of Parliament.

Article 19 Acts of the President of the Republic, other than those provided for under articles 8 (first paragraph), 11, 12, 16, 18, 54, 56 and 61, shall be countersigned by the Prime Minister and, where required, by the appropriate ministers.

Article 49 Para 3 allows the president to adopt a law on his authority. To this end, the prime minister goes before the lower and upper houses, reads out the bill to the legislators and closes with "the administration engages its responsibility" on the foregoing. Deprived of Gaullist party support halfway into his seven-year term spanning 1974 to 1981, Pres. Valéry Giscard d'Estaing relied heavily on this provision to stalemate Paris Mayor Jacques Chirac's attempt to bring him back under Gaullist control.

Presidential amnesties

There is a tradition of so-called "presidential amnesties", which are something of a misnomer: after the election of a president, and of a National Assembly of the same party, parliament traditionally votes a law granting amnesty for some petty crimes. This practice has been increasingly criticized, particularly because it is believed to incite people to commit traffic offences in the months preceding the election. Such an amnesty law may also authorize the president to designate individuals who have committed certain categories of crimes to be offered amnesty, if certain conditions are met. Such individual measures have been criticized for the political patronage that they allow. Still, it is argued that such amnesty laws help reduce prison overpopulation. An amnesty law was passed in 2002; none have yet been passed as of January 2008.

The difference between an amnesty and a presidential pardon is that the former clears all subsequent effects of the sentencing, as though the crime had not been committed, while pardon simply relieves the sentenced individual from part or all of the remainder of the sentence.

Criminal responsibility and impeachment

Articles 67 and 68 organize the regime of criminal responsibility of the President. They were reformed by a 2007 constitutional act,[1] in order to clarify a situation that previously resulted in legal controversies.[2]

The President of the Republic enjoys immunity during his term: he cannot be requested to testify before any jurisdiction, he cannot be prosecuted, etc. However, the statute of limitation is suspended during his term, and enquiries and prosecutions can be restarted, at the latest one month after he leaves office.

The President is irresponsible for his actions in his official capacity, except for prosecution before the International Criminal Court and impeachment. Impeachment can be pronounced by the High Court, a special court convened from both houses of Parliament on the proposal of either House, should the president have failed to discharge his duties in a way that evidently precludes the continuation of his term.

Election

Further information: Elections in France

Since a 1962 referendum, the President of France has been directly elected by universal suffrage; it was previously elected by an electoral college. Following a 2000 referendum, the length of the term was reduced from 7 to 5 years; the first election to a shorter term was held in 2002. President Chirac was first elected in 1995 and again in 2002. There was no term limit, so Chirac could have run again, but chose not to. He was succeeded by Nicolas Sarkozy on 16 May 2007. Since the constitutional law of 23 July 2008, a president cannot serve more than two consecutive terms. François Mitterrand and Jacques Chirac are the only Presidents to date who have served a full two terms (14 years for the former, 12 years for the latter).

In order to be admitted as an official candidate, potential candidates must receive signed nominations (informally known as *parrainages*, for "godfathering") from more than 500 elected officials, mostly mayors. These officials must be from at least 30 *départements* or overseas collectivities, and no more than 10% of them should be from the same *département* or collectivity.[3] Furthermore, each official may nominate only one candidate.[4]

There are approximately 45,000 elected officials that are on the list of such officials, including around 36,000 mayors.

Spending and financing of campaigns and political parties are highly regulated. There is a cap on spending, at approximately 20 million euros, and government public financing of 50% of spending if the candidate scores more than 5%. If the candidate receives less than 5% of the vote, the government funds €800,000 to the party (€150,000 paid in advance)[5] Advertising on TV is forbidden but official time is given to candidates on public TV. An independent agency regulates election and party financing.

French presidential elections are conducted via run-off voting which ensures that the elected President always obtains a majority: if no candidate receives a majority of votes in the first round of voting, the two highest-scoring candidates arrive at a run-off. After the president is elected, he goes through a solemn investiture ceremony called a "*passation des pouvoirs*" ("handing over of powers").[6]

Succession and incapacity

Upon the death or resignation of the President, the President of the Senate acts as interim president.[7] Alain Poher is the only person to have served this temporary position. The first time was in 1969 after Charles de Gaulle's resignation and a second time in 1974 after Georges Pompidou's death. It is important to note that, in this situation, the President of the Senate became an Interim President of the Republic; they do not become the new President of the Republic as elected and therefore do not have to resign from their position as President of the Senate. In spite of his title as Interim President of the Republic, Poher is regarded in France as a former President and is listed in the presidents' gallery on elysee.fr (the President's official site). This is in contrast to acting presidents from the Third Republic.

The first round of a new presidential election must be organized no sooner than twenty days and no later than thirty-five days following the vacancy of the presidency. Because fifteen days can separate the first and second rounds of a presidential election, this means that the President of the Senate can only act as President of the Republic for a maximum period of fifty days. During this period of Interim president is not allowed to dismiss the national assembly nor are they allowed to call for a referendum or initiate any constitutional changes.

If there is no acting president of the senate, the powers of the president of the republic are exercised by the "Gouvernement", meaning the Cabinet. This has been interpreted by some constitutional academics as meaning first the Prime Minister and, if he is himself not able to act, the members of the cabinet in the order of the list of the decree that nominated them. This is in fact unlikely to happen, because if the president of the Senate is not able to act, the Senate will normally name a new president of the Senate, that will act as President of the Republic.

During the Third French Republic the President of the Council of Ministers acted as President whenever office was vacant.[8]

According to article 7 of the Constitution, if the presidency becomes vacant for any reason, or if the president becomes incapacitated, upon the request of the *gouvernement*, the Constitutional Council may rule, by a majority vote.[9] that the presidency is to be temporarily assumed by the President of the Senate. If the Council rules that the incapacity is permanent, the same procedure as for the resignation is applied, as described above.

If the President cannot attend meetings, including meetings of the Council of Ministers, he can ask the Prime Minister to attend in his stead (Constitution, article 21). This clause has been applied by presidents travelling abroad, ill, or undergoing surgery.

Pay and official residences

The President of the Republic is paid a salary according to a pay grade defined in comparison to the pay grades of the most seniors members of the French Civil Service ("out of scale", *hors échelle*, those whose pay grades are known as letters and not as numeric indices). In addition he is paid a residence stipend of 3%, and a function stipend of 25% on top of the salary and residence indemnity. This gross salary and these indemnities are the same as those of the Prime Minister, and are 50% higher than the highest paid to other members of the government,[10] which is itself defined as twice the average of the highest (pay grade G) and the lowest (pay grade A1) salaries in the "out of scale" pay grades.[11] Using the 2008 "out of scale" pay grades[12] this amounts to a monthly pay of €20,963, which fits the €19,000 quoted to the press in early 2008.[13] Using the pay grades starting from 1 July 2009,[14] this amounts to a gross monthly pay of €21,131.

The salary and the residence stipend are taxable for income tax.[15]

The official residence and office of the president is the Élysée Palace in Paris. Other presidential residences include:

- the *Fort de Brégançon*, in southeastern France, is the current official presidential vacation residence;
- the *Hôtel de Marigny*; standing next to the Élysée Palace, houses foreign official guests;
- the *Château de Rambouillet* is normally open to visitors when not used for (rare) official meetings;
- the *Domaine National de Marly* is normally open to visitors when not used for (rare) official meetings;
- the *Domaine de Souzy-la-Briche* has not been used by the President since 2007, and is available for lease.[16]

Latest election

Summary of the 21–22 April and 5–6 May 2007 French presidential election results

Candidates – Parties			**1st round**		**2nd round**	
			Votes	**%**	**Votes**	**%**
Nicolas Sarkozy	Union for a Popular Movement (*Union pour un mouvement populaire*)	UMP	**11,448,663**	**31.18%**	**18,983,138**	**53.06%**
Ségolène Royal	Socialist Party (*Parti socialiste*)	PS	**9,500,112**	**25.87%**	16,790,440	46.94%

François Bayrou	Union for French Democracy (*Union pour la démocratie française*)	UDF	6,820,119	18.57%		
Jean-Marie Le Pen	National Front (*Front national*)	FN	3,834,530	10.44%		
Olivier Besancenot	Revolutionary Communist League (*Ligue communiste révolutionnaire*)	LCR	1,498,581	4.08%		
Philippe de Villiers	Movement for France (*Mouvement pour la France*)	MPF	818,407	2.23%		
Marie-George Buffet	French Communist Party (*Parti communiste français*)	PCF	707,268	1.93%		
Dominique Voynet	The Greens (*Les Verts*)	VEC	576,666	1.57%		
Arlette Laguiller	Workers' Struggle (*Lutte ouvrière*)	LO	487,857	1.33%		
José Bové	Alter-globalization activist		483,008	1.32%		
Frédéric Nihous	Hunting, Fishing, Nature, Tradition (*Chasse, pêche, nature, traditions*)	CPNT	420,645	1.15%		
Gérard Schivardi	Workers' Party (*Parti des travailleurs*)	PT	123,540	0.34%		
Total			**36,719,396**	100%	**35,773,578**	100%

Valid votes	36,719,396	98.56%	35,773,578	95.80%
Spoilt and null votes	534,846	1.44%	1,568,426	4.20%
Votes cast / turnout	37,254,242	83.77%	37,342,004	83.97%
Abstentions	7,218,592	16.23%	7,130,729	16.03%
Registered voters	44,472,834		44,472,733	

Table of results – ordered by number of votes received in first round, official results by Constitutional Council (http://www.conseil-constitutionnel.fr/conseil-constitutionnel/francais/les-decisions/depuis-1958/decisions-par-date/2007/declaration-presidentielle-premier-tour-2007/decision-declaration-presidentielle-premier-tour-2007-du-25-avril-2007.5977.html) . List of candidates source: Decision of 19 March 2007 by the Constitutional Council. (http://www.conseil-constitutionnel.fr/conseil-constitutionnel/francais/les-decisions/depuis-1958/decisions-par-date/2007/liste-candidats-premier-tour-2007/decision-liste-candidats-premier-tour-2007-du-19-mars-2007.5967.html)

First round results source: Official first round results announced on 25 April 2007. (http://www.conseil-constitutionnel.fr/conseil-constitutionnel/francais/les-decisions/depuis-1958/decisions-par-date/2007/declaration-presidentielle-premier-tour-2007/decision-declaration-presidentielle-premier-tour-2007-du-25-avril-2007.5977.html)
Second round results source: Official second round results announced on 10 May 2007. (http://www.conseil-constitutionnel.fr/conseil-constitutionnel/francais/les-decisions/depuis-1958/decisions-par-date/2007/proclamation-presidentielle-2007/decision-proclamation-presidentielle-2007-du-10-mai-2007.5981.html)

Former Presidents

Further information: List of Presidents of France

As of 2011 there were two living former Presidents:

- Valéry Giscard d'Estaing (served 1974–1981)
- Jacques Chirac (served 1995–2007)

According to French law, Former Presidents have guaranteed lifetime pension defined according to the pay grade of the Councillors of State,[17] a courtesy diplomatic passport,[18] and, according to the French Constitution (Article 56), membership of the Constitutional Council.

They also get personnel, an apartment and/or office, and other amenities, though the legal basis for these is disputed.[19] In 2008, according to an answer by the services of the Prime Minister to a question from member of the National Assembly René Dosière,[20] these facilities comprised: a security detail, a car with a chauffeur, office or housing space, maintained by the State. Two people service this space. In addition, the State funds 7 permanent collaborators.

Presidential spouse

Further information: Wife of the President of the French Republic

There is no official status or title such as 'First Lady' for the spouse of the President under the French constitution. Charity work has traditionally been the main task of French presidential spouses under the Third, Fourth and Fifth Republics.

Presidents	**Spouses**	***years***
Nicolas Sarkozy	Carla Bruni-Sarkozy Cécilia Sarkozy	February 2008– May 2007 – October 2007
Jacques Chirac	Bernadette Chirac	1995–2007
François Mitterrand	Danielle Mitterrand	1981–1995
Valéry Giscard d'Estaing	Anne-Aymone Giscard d'Estaing	1974–1981
Georges Pompidou	Claude Pompidou	1969–1974
Charles de Gaulle	Yvonne de Gaulle	1959–1969
René Coty	Germaine Coty	1954–1959
Vincent Auriol	Michelle Aucouturier	1947–1954
Albert Lebrun	Marguerite Lebrun	1932–1940
Paul Doumer	Blanche Doumer	1931–1932
Gaston Doumergue		1924–1931
Paul Deschanel	Germaine Deschanel	1920
Émile Loubet	Marie-Louise Picard	1899–1906
Félix Faure		1895-1899
Jean Casimir-Perier	Hélène Casimir-Perier	1894–1895
Adolphe Thiers	Élise Thiers	1871–1873

Age upon entering and leaving office

N°	President	Age upon entering office	Age upon leaving office
1	Louis-Napoléon Bonaparte	40	44
2	Adolphe Thiers	74	76
3	Patrice de Mac-Mahon	64	70
4	Jules Grévy	71	80
5	Marie François Sadi Carnot	50	56
6	Jean Casimir-Perier	46	47
7	Félix Faure	53	58
8	Émile Loubet	60	67
9	Armand Fallières	64	71
10	Raymond Poincaré	52	59
11	Paul Deschanel	65	65
12	Alexandre Millerand	61	65
13	Gaston Doumergue	60	67
14	Paul Doumer	74	75
15	Albert François Lebrun	60	68
16	Vincent Auriol	62	69
17	René Coty	71	76
18	Charles de Gaulle	68	78
19	Georges Pompidou	57	62
20	Valéry Giscard d'Estaing	48	55
21	François Mitterrand	64	78
22	Jacques Chirac	62	74
23	Nicolas Sarkozy	52	**Incumbent**

Time in office

N°	President	Length in days	Rank	Notes
21	François Mitterrand	5109	1	Served two full terms of seven years.
22	Jacques Chirac	4382	2	Served one full term of seven years and one full term of five years.
18	Charles de Gaulle	3763	3	Served one full term of seven years and resigned during second term.

N°	President	Length in days	Rank	Notes
4	Jules Grévy	3228	4	Served one full term of seven years and resigned during second term.
15	Albert François Lebrun	2983	5	Served one full term of seven years and was replaced by Philippe Pétain during second term.
8	Émile Loubet	2556	6	Served one full term of seven years.
9	Armand Fallières	2557	7	Served one full term of seven years.
10	Raymond Poincaré	2556	8	Served one full term of seven years.
13	Gaston Doumergue	2556	9	Served one full term of seven years.
16	Vincent Auriol	2557	10	Served one full term of seven years.
20	Valéry Giscard d'Estaing	2551	11	Served one full term of seven years.
5	Sadi Carnot	2396	12	Served less than one full term of seven years (assassinated).
3	Patrice de Mac-Mahon	2077	13	Served less than one full term of seven years (resigned).
17	René Coty	1818	14	Served less than one full term of seven years (end of the Fourth Republic).
23	Nicolas Sarkozy	1771[21]	15	**Incumbent.**
19	Georges Pompidou	1747	16	Served less than one full term of seven years (died in office).
7	Félix Faure	1491	17	Served less than one full term of seven years (died in office).
1	Louis-Napoléon Bonaparte	1443	18	Served less than one full term of seven years (end of the Second Republic, proclaimed himself as Emperor).
12	Alexandre Millerand	1357	19	Served less than one full term of seven years (resigned).
2	Adolphe Thiers	632	20	Served less than one full term of seven years (resigned).
14	Paul Doumer	329	21	Served less than one full term of seven years (assassinated).
11	Paul Deschanel	216	22	Served less than one full term of seven years (resigned).
6	Jean Casimir-Perier	203	23	Served less than one full term of seven years (resigned).

Interim President

1. Alain Poher (served nearly two months in 1969 and about one month in 1974)

Non-Presidential Heads of State

1. Jacques-Charles Dupont de l'Eure, Chairman of the Provisional Government and de facto head of state in 1848 : served less than three months
2. Executive Commission: joint head of state with five co-presidents in 1848 : served less than two months. François Arago was its most prominent member.

3. Louis-Eugène Cavaignac, head of government and de facto head of state in 1848 : served about six months
4. Louis Jules Trochu, President of the Government of National Defense and de facto head of state (served 4 months, September 1870 to January 1871)
5. Philippe Pétain, *Chief of State* of Vichy France: served four years (considered an illegal usurper by later governments[22])
6. Charles de Gaulle, President of the Provisional Government: served over one and a half years
7. Félix Gouin, President of the Provisional Government: served five months
8. Georges Bidault, President of the Provisional Government: served five months
9. Vincent Auriol, President of the Provisional Government: served less than a month
10. Léon Blum, President of the Provisional Government: served one month

History

Under the Third and Fourth Republic, which were parliamentary systems, the office of President of the Republic was a largely ceremonial and powerless one.

The constitution of the Fifth Republic greatly increased the President's powers. A 1962 referendum changed the constitution, so that the President would be directly elected by universal suffrage and not by the Parliament.

In 2000, a referendum shortened the presidential term from seven years to five years.

A maximum of two consecutive terms was imposed after the 2008 constitutional reform.

See also

- French Presidential elections under the Third Republic
- List of Presidents of France
- Prime Minister of France

Further reading

- John Gaffney. *Political Leadership in France: From Charles de Gaulle to Nicolas Sarkozy* (Palgrave Macmillan; 2010) 258 pages. Explores mythology and symbolism in French political culture through a study of the personas crafted by de Gaulle and his five successors.

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1. ^ "Loi constitutionnelle n° 2007-238 du 23 février 2007 portant modification du titre IX de la Constitution" (http://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/affichTexte.do?cidTexte=JORFTEXT000000245803) (in French). Legifrance.gouv.fr. http://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/affichTexte.do?cidTexte=JORFTEXT000000245803. Retrieved 2011-06-09.
2. ^ For all this section, see Articles 67 and 68 and *La responsabilité pénale du président de la République (http://www.cairn.info/revue-francaise-de-droit-constitutionnel-2002-1.htm)* , Revue française de droit constitutionnel, n° 49 –2002/1, P.U.F., ISBN 9782130527893
3. ^ Law 62-1292 of 6 November 1962 (http://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/texteconsolide/PPEAG.htm) , article 4
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6. ^ http://www.elysee.fr/junior/faq/faq.htm#5

Belgium

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Belgium (/ˈbɛlʤəm/ *BEL-jəm*), officially the **Kingdom of Belgium**, is a federal state in Western Europe. It is a founding member of the European Union and hosts the EU's headquarters, and those of several other major international organisations such as NATO.[nb 1] Belgium covers an area of 30,528 square kilometres (11,787 sq mi), and it has a population of about 11 million people. Straddling the cultural boundary between Germanic and Latin Europe, Belgium is home to two main linguistic groups, the Dutch-speakers, mostly Flemish (about 60%), and the French-speakers, mostly Walloons (about 40%), plus a small group of German-speakers. Belgium's two largest regions are the Dutch-speaking region of Flanders in the north and the French-speaking southern region of Wallonia. The Brussels-Capital Region, officially bilingual, is a mostly French-speaking enclave within the Flemish Region.[2] A German-speaking Community exists in eastern Wallonia.[6] Belgium's linguistic diversity and related political conflicts are reflected in the political history and a complex system of government.[7][8]

Historically, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg were known as the Low Countries, which used to cover a somewhat larger area than the current Benelux group of states. The region was called Belgica in Latin because of the Roman province Gallia Belgica which covered more or less the same area. From the end of the Middle Ages until the 17th century, it was a prosperous centre of commerce and culture. From the 16th century until the Belgian Revolution in 1830, when Belgium seceded from the Netherlands, many battles between European powers were fought in the area of Belgium, causing it to be dubbed the battleground of Europe,[9] a reputation strengthened by both World Wars.

Upon its independence, Belgium participated in the Industrial Revolution[10][11] and, during the course of the 20th century, possessed a number of colonies in Africa.[12] The second half of the 20th century was marked by the rise of contrasts between the Flemish and the Francophones fuelled by language differences on the one hand and an asymmetrical economic evolution of Flanders and Wallonia on the other hand. These ongoing conflicts have caused far-reaching reforms of the formerly unitary Belgian state into a federal state and a very long political instability.[13][14][15]

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Kingdom of Belgium
Koninkrijk België (Dutch)
Royaume de Belgique (French)
Königreich Belgien (German)


Flag


Coat of arms

Motto: *Eendracht maakt macht* (Dutch)
L'union fait la force (French)
Einigkeit macht Stark (German)
"Strength through Unity" (lit. "Unity makes strength")

Anthem: The "Brabançonne"
instrumental version:


Location of **Belgium** (dark green)
– — [Legend]

Capital	Brussels 50°51′N 4°21′E
Largest metropolitan area	Brussels
Official language(s)	Dutch French German
Ethnic groups	see Demographics
Demonym	Belgian
Government	Federal parliamentary constitutional monarchy[1]
- King	Albert II
- Prime Minister	Elio Di Rupo
Legislature	Federal Parliament
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	Chamber of Representatives
Independence	

- 10 See also
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- 13 External links

- Declared from the Netherlands	4 October 1830
- Recognised	19 April 1839
Area	
- Total	30,528 km^2 (139th) 11,787 sq mi
- Water (%)	6.4
Population	
- 2011 estimate	11,007,020[2] (76th)
- 2001 census	10,296,350
- Density	354.7[3]/km^2 (33rd) 918.6/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$405.470 billion[4] (30th)
- Per capita	$36,834[4] (20th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$499.397 billion[4] (21st)
- Per capita	$45,367[4] (16th)
Gini (2005)	28[2] (low)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.886[5] (very high) (18th)
Currency	Euro (€)[1] (EUR)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	BE
Internet TLD	.be[2]
Calling code	32

1 Before 1999: Belgian franc (BEF).

2 The .eu domain is also used, as it is shared with other European Union member states.

History

Main article: History of Belgium



The Seventeen Provinces (orange, brown and yellow areas) and the Bishopric of Liège (green)

The name 'Belgium' is derived from *Gallia Belgica*, a Roman province in the northernmost part of Gaul that, before Roman invasion in 100 BC, was inhabited by the *Belgae*, a mix of Celtic and Germanic peoples.[16][17] A gradual immigration by Germanic Frankish tribes during the 5th century brought the area under the rule of the Merovingian kings. A gradual shift of power during the 8th century led the kingdom of the Franks to evolve into the Carolingian Empire.[18] The Treaty of Verdun in 843 divided the region into Middle and West Francia and therefore into a set of more or less independent fiefdoms which, during the Middle Ages, were vassals either of the King of France or of the Holy Roman Emperor.[18]

Many of these fiefdoms were united in the Burgundian Netherlands of the 14th and 15th centuries.[19] Emperor Charles V extended the personal union of the Seventeen Provinces in the 1540s, making it far more than a personal union by the Pragmatic Sanction of 1549 and increased his influence over the Prince-Bishopric of Liège.[20] The Eighty Years' War (1568–1648) divided the Low Countries into the northern United Provinces (*Belgica Foederata* in Latin, the "Federated Netherlands") and the Southern Netherlands (*Belgica Regia*, the "Royal Netherlands"). The latter were ruled successively by the Spanish and the Austrian Habsburgs and comprised most of modern Belgium. This was the theatre of most Franco-Spanish and Franco-Austrian wars during the 17th and 18th centuries. Following the campaigns of 1794 in the French Revolutionary Wars, the Low Countries—including territories that were never nominally under Habsburg rule, such as the Prince-Bishopric of Liège—were annexed by the French First Republic, ending Austrian rule in the region. The reunification of the Low Countries as the United Kingdom of the Netherlands occurred at the dissolution of the First French Empire in 1815.

The 1830 Belgian Revolution led to the establishment of a Catholic and bourgeois, officially French-speaking and neutral, independent Belgium under a provisional government and a national congress.[21][22] Since the installation of Leopold I as king on 21 July 1831 (which is now celebrated as Belgium's National Day[23]), Belgium has been a constitutional monarchy and parliamentary democracy, with a laicist constitution based on the Napoleonic code. Although the franchise was initially restricted, universal suffrage for men was introduced after the general strike of 1893 (with plural voting until 1919) and for women in 1949.



Episode of the Belgian Revolution of 1

The main political parties of the 19th century were the Catholic Party and the Liberal Party, with the Belgian Labour Party emerging towards the end of the 19th century. French was originally the single official language adopted by the nobility and the bourgeoisie. It progressively lost its overall importance as Dutch became recognised as well. This recognition became official in 1898 and in 1967 a Dutch version of the Constitution was legally accepted.[24]

The Berlin Conference of 1885 ceded control of the Congo Free State to King Leopold II as his private possession. From around 1900 there was growing international concern for the extreme and savage treatment of the Congolese population under Leopold II, for whom the Congo was

(1834),
by Egide Charles Gustave Wappers,
Museum of Ancient Art, Brussels

primarily a source of revenue from ivory and rubber production. In 1908 this outcry led the Belgian state to assume responsibility for the government of the colony, henceforth called the Belgian Congo.[25] Germany invaded Belgium in 1914 as part of the Schlieffen Plan and much of the Western Front fighting of World War I occurred in western parts of the country. The opening months of the war were known as the Rape of Belgium due to German atrocities. Belgium took over the German colonies of Ruanda-Urundi (modern day Rwanda and Burundi) during the war, and they were mandated to Belgium in 1924 by the League of Nations. In the aftermath of the First World War, the Prussian districts of Eupen and Malmedy were annexed by Belgium in 1925, thereby causing the presence of a German-speaking minority.

The country was again invaded by Germany in 1940 and was occupied until its liberation by the Allies in 1944. After World War II, a general strike forced king Leopold III, who many saw as collaborating with the Germans during the war, to abdicate in 1951.[*citation needed*] The Belgian Congo gained independence in 1960 during the Congo Crisis;[26] Ruanda-Urundi followed with its independence two years later. Belgium joined NATO as a founding member and formed the Benelux group of nations with the Netherlands and Luxembourg. Belgium became one of the six founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community in 1951 and of the European Atomic Energy Community and European Economic Community, established in 1957. The latter is now the European Union, for which Belgium hosts major administrations and institutions, including the European Commission, the Council of the European Union and the extraordinary and committee sessions of the European Parliament.

Politics

Main articles: Politics of Belgium and Belgian federal government

Belgium is a constitutional, popular monarchy and a parliamentary democracy. The bicameral federal parliament is composed of a Senate and a Chamber of Representatives. The former is made up of 40 directly elected politicians and 21 representatives appointed by the 3 Community parliaments, 10 co-opted senators and the children of the king, as Senators by Right who in practice do not cast their vote. The Chamber's 150 representatives are elected under a proportional voting system from 11 electoral districts. Belgium has compulsory voting and thus holds one of the highest rates of voter turnout in the world.[27]


Albert II, King of the Belgians

The King (currently Albert II) is the head of state, though with limited prerogatives. He appoints ministers, including a Prime Minister, that have the confidence of the Chamber of Representatives to form the federal government. The Council of Ministers is composed of no more than fifteen members. With the possible exception of the Prime Minister, the Council of Ministers is composed of an equal number of Dutch-speaking members and French-speaking members.[28] The judicial system is based on civil law and originates from the Napoleonic code. The Court of Cassation is the court of last resort, with the Court of Appeal one level below.

Belgium's political institutions are complex; most political power is organised around the need to represent the main cultural communities.[29] Since around 1970, the significant national Belgian political parties have split into distinct components that mainly represent the political and linguistic interests of these communities.[30] The major parties in each Community, though close to the political centre, belong to three main groups: Christian Democrats, Liberals, and Social Democrats.[31] Further notable parties came into being well after the middle of last century, mainly around linguistic, nationalist, or environmental themes and recently smaller ones of some specific liberal nature.[30]


Prime Minister Elio Di Rupo

A string of Christian Democrat coalition governments from 1958 was broken in 1999 after the first dioxin crisis, a major food contamination scandal.[32][33][34] A 'rainbow coalition' emerged from six parties: the Flemish and the French-speaking Liberals, Social Democrats, Greens.[35] Later, a 'purple coalition' of Liberals and Social Democrats formed after the Greens lost most of their seats in the 2003 election.[36] The government led by Prime Minister Guy Verhofstadt from 1999 to 2007 achieved a balanced budget, some tax reforms, a labour-market reform, scheduled nuclear phase-out and instigated legislation allowing more stringent war crime and more lenient soft drug usage prosecution. Restrictions on withholding euthanasia were reduced and same-sex marriage legalized. The government promoted active diplomacy in Africa[37] and opposed the invasion of Iraq.[38]

Verhofstadt's coalition fared badly in the June 2007 elections. For more than a year, the country experienced a political crisis.[39] This crisis was such that many observers speculated on a possible partition of Belgium.[13][14][15] From 21 December 2007 until 20 March 2008 the temporary

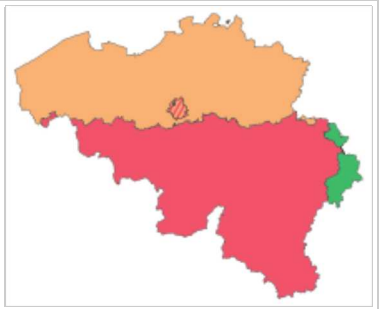
Verhofstadt III Government was in office. This coalition of the Flemish and Francophone Christian Democrats, the Flemish and Francophone Liberals together with the Francophone Social Democrats was an interim government until 20 March 2008. On that day a new government, led by Flemish Christian Democrat Yves Leterme, the actual winner of the federal elections of June 2007, was sworn in by the king. On 15 July 2008 Leterme announced the resignation of the cabinet to the king, as no progress in constitutional reforms had been made.[40] In December 2008 he once more offered his resignation to the king after a crisis surrounding the sale of Fortis to BNP Paribas.[41] At this juncture, his resignation was accepted and Christian Democratic and Flemish Herman Van Rompuy was sworn in as Prime Minister on 30 December 2008.[42]

After Herman Van Rompuy was designated the first permanent President of the European Council on 19 November 2009, he offered the resignation of his government to King Albert II on 25 November 2009. A few hours later, the new government under Prime Minister Yves Leterme was sworn in. On 22 April 2010, Leterme again offered the resignation of his cabinet to the king[43] after one of the coalition partners, the OpenVLD, withdrew from the government, and on 26 April 2010 King Albert officially accepted the resignation.[44] The Parliamentary elections in Belgium on 13 June 2010 saw the Flemish nationalist N-VA become the largest party in Flanders, and the Socialist Party PS the largest party in Wallonia.[45] Until December 2011, Belgium was governed by Leterme's caretaker government awaiting the end of the deadlocked negotiations for formation of a new government. By 30 March 2011 this set a new world record for the elapsed time without an official government, previously held by war-torn Iraq. Finally, in December 2011 the current government led by Walloon socialist Prime Ministre Elio Di Rupo was sworn in.

Communities and Regions

Main article: Communities, regions and language areas of Belgium

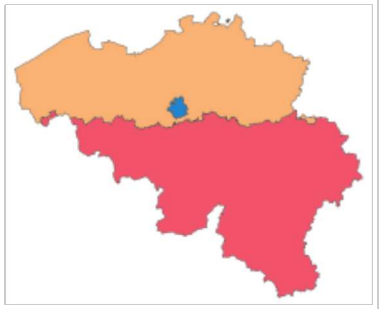
Following a usage which can be traced back to the Burgundian and Habsburgian courts,[46] in the 19th century it was necessary to speak French to belong to the governing upper class, and those who could only speak Dutch were effectively second-class citizens.[47] Late that century, and continuing into the 20th century, Flemish movements evolved to counter this situation.[48] While the Walloons and most Brusselers adopted French as their first language, the Flemings refused to do so and succeeded progressively in imposing Dutch as Flanders' official language.[48] Following World War II, Belgian politics became increasingly dominated by the autonomy of its two main language communities.[49] Intercommunal tensions rose and the constitution was amended to minimise the potential for conflict.[49]



Communities:
Flemish Community / Dutch language area
Flemish & French Community / bilingual language area
Wallonia-Brussels Federation / French language area
German-speaking Community / German language area

Based on the four language areas defined in 1962–63 (the Dutch, bilingual, French and German language areas), consecutive revisions of the country's constitution in 1970, 1980, 1988 and 1993 established a unique federal state with segregated political power into three levels:[50][51]

1. The federal government, based in Brussels.
2. The three language communities:
   - the Flemish Community (Dutch-speaking);
   - the Wallonia-Brussels Federation (French-speaking);
   - the German-speaking Community.
3. The three regions:
   - the Flemish Region, subdivided into five provinces;
   - the Walloon Region, subdivided into five provinces;
   - the Brussels-Capital Region.



Regions:
Flemish Region / Dutch language area
Brussels-Capital Region / bilingual language area

The constitutional language areas determine the official languages in their municipalities, as well as the geographical limits of the empowered institutions for specific matters.[52] Although this would allow for seven parliaments and governments, when the Communities and Regions were created in 1980, Flemish politicians decided to merge both.[53] Thus the Flemings just have one single institutional body of parliament and government is empowered for all except federal and specific municipal matters.[nb 2]

The overlapping boundaries of the Regions and Communities have created two notable peculiarities: the territory of the Brussels-Capital Region (which came into existence nearly a decade after the other regions) is included in both the Flemish and French Communities, and the territory of the German-speaking Community lies wholly within the Walloon Region. Conflicts about jurisdiction between the bodies are resolved by the Constitutional Court of Belgium. The

structure is intended as a compromise to allow different cultures to live together peacefully.[10]

Walloon Region / French and German language areas

The Federal State's authority includes justice, defence, federal police, social security, nuclear energy, monetary policy and public debt, and other aspects of public finances. State-owned companies include the Belgian Post Group and Belgian Railways. The Federal Government is responsible for the obligations of Belgium and its federalized institutions towards the European Union and NATO. It controls substantial parts of public health, home affairs and foreign affairs.[54] The budget—without the debt—controlled by the federal government amounts to about 50% of the national fiscal income. The federal government employs around 12% of the civil servants.[55]

Communities exercise their authority only within linguistically determined geographical boundaries, originally oriented towards the individuals of a Community's language: culture (including audiovisual media), education and the use of the relevant language. Extensions to personal matters less directly connected with language comprise health policy (curative and preventive medicine) and assistance to individuals (protection of youth, social welfare, aid to families, immigrant assistance services, and so on.).[56]

Regions have authority in fields that can be broadly associated with their territory. These include economy, employment, agriculture, water policy, housing, public works, energy, transport, the environment, town and country planning, nature conservation, credit and foreign trade. They supervise the provinces, municipalities and intercommunal utility companies.[57]

In several fields, the different levels each have their own say on specifics. With education, for instance, the autonomy of the Communities neither includes decisions about the compulsory aspect nor allows for setting minimum requirements for awarding qualifications, which remain federal matters.[54] Each level of government can be involved in scientific research and international relations associated with its powers. The treaty-making power of the Regions' and Communities' Governments is the broadest of all the Federating units of all the Federations all over the world.[58][59][60]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Belgium

Belgium shares borders with France (620 km), Germany (167 km), Luxembourg (148 km) and the Netherlands (450 km). Its total area, including surface water area, is 33,990 square kilometres; land area alone is 30,528 km^2. It lies between latitudes 49° and 53° N, and longitudes 2° and 7° E.[*citation needed*]



Polders along the Yser river

Belgium has three main geographical regions: the coastal plain in the north-west and the central plateau both belong to the Anglo-Belgian Basin; the Ardennes uplands in the south-east are part of the Hercynian orogenic belt. The Paris Basin reaches a small fourth area at Belgium's southernmost tip, Belgian Lorraine.[61]

The coastal plain consists mainly of sand dunes and polders. Further inland lies a smooth, slowly rising landscape irrigated by numerous waterways, with fertile valleys and the northeastern sandy plain of the Campine (*Kempen*). The thickly forested hills and plateaus of the Ardennes are more rugged and rocky with caves and small gorges. Extending westward into France, this area is eastwardly connected to the Eifel in Germany by the High Fens plateau, on which the Signal de Botrange forms the country's highest point at 694 metres (2,277 ft).[62][63]

The climate is maritime temperate with significant precipitation in all seasons (Köppen climate classification: *Cfb*), like most of northwest Europe.[64] The average temperature is lowest in January at 3 °C (37.4 °F) and highest in July at 18 °C (64.4 °F). The average precipitation per month varies between 54 millimetres (2.1 in) for February or April, to 78 mm (3.1 in) for July.[65] Averages for the years 2000 to 2006 show daily temperature minimums of 7 °C (44.6 °F) and maximums of 14 °C (57.2 °F) and monthly rainfall of 74 mm (2.9 in); these are about 1 °C and nearly 10 millimetres above last century's normal values, respectively.[3]

Phytogeographically, Belgium is shared between the Atlantic European and Central European provinces of the Circumboreal Region within the Boreal Kingdom.[66] According to the World Wide Fund for Nature, the territory of Belgium belongs to the ecoregion of Atlantic mixed forests.[67] Because of its high population density, its location in the centre of Western Europe and inadequate political effort, Belgium faces serious environmental problems. A 2003 report suggested Belgian natural waters (rivers and groundwater) to have the lowest water quality of the 122 countries studied.[68] In the 2006 pilot Environmental Performance Index, Belgium scored 75.9% for overall environmental performance and was ranked lowest of the EU member countries, though it was only 39th of 133 countries.[69]

Provinces of Belgium

The territory of Belgium is divided into three Regions, two of which, Flanders and Wallonia, are in turn subdivided into provinces; the third Region, Brussels, being neither a province nor a part of a province.

Region	Flag	Province	Province (Dutch name)	Province (French name)	Capital	Largest city	Area (km²)	Population	Density (per km²)
Flanders		Antwerp	**Antwerpen**	Anvers	Antwerp (Dutch: *Antwerpen*) (French: Anvers)	Antwerp (Dutch: *Antwerpen*) (French: Anvers)	2,860	1,682,683	587
Flanders		East Flanders	**Oost-Vlaanderen**	Flandre-Orientale	Ghent (Dutch: *Gent*) (French: *Gand*)	Ghent (Dutch: *Gent*) (French: *Gand*)	2,982	1,389,199	459
Flanders		Flemish Brabant	**Vlaams-Brabant**	Brabant flamand	Leuven (French: *Louvain*)	Leuven (French: *Louvain*)	2,106	1,037,786	493
Wallonia		Hainaut	Henegouwen	**Hainaut**	Mons (Dutch: *Bergen*)	Charleroi	3,800	1,294,844	341
Wallonia		Liège	Luik	**Liège**	Liège (Dutch: *Luik*) (German: *Lüttich*)	Liège (Dutch: *Luik*) (German: *Lüttich*)	3,844	1,047,414	272
Flanders		Limburg	**Limburg**	Limbourg	Hasselt	Hasselt	2,414	805,786	333
Wallonia		Luxembourg	Luxemburg	**Luxembourg**	Arlon (Dutch: *Aarlen*) (German: *Arel*)	Bastogne (Dutch: *Bastenaken*) (German: *Bastenach*)	4,443	261,178	59
Wallonia		Namur	Namen	**Namur**	Namur (Dutch: *Namen*)	Namur (Dutch: *Namen*)	3,664	461,983	126
Wallonia		Walloon Brabant	Waals Brabant	**Brabant wallon**	Wavre (Dutch: *Waver*)	Braine-l'Alleud (Dutch: *Eigenbrakel*)	1,093	370,460	339
Flanders		West Flanders	**West-Vlaanderen**	Flandre-Occidentale	Bruges (Dutch: *Brugge*) (French: *Bruges*)	Bruges (Dutch: *Brugge*) (French: *Bruges*)	3,151	1,130,040	362

Economy

Main article: Economy of Belgium

Belgium's strongly globalized economy[70] and its transportation infrastructure are integrated with the rest of Europe. Its location at the

heart of a highly industrialized region helped make it the world's 15th largest trading nation in 2007.[71][72] The economy is characterized by a highly productive work force, high GNP and high exports per capita.[73] Belgium's main imports are raw materials, machinery and equipment, chemicals, raw diamonds, pharmaceuticals, foodstuffs, transportation equipment, and oil products. Its main exports are machinery and equipment, chemicals, finished diamonds, metals and metal products, and foodstuffs.[74]

The Belgian economy is heavily service-oriented and shows a dual nature: a dynamic Flemish economy and a Walloon economy that lags behind.[10][75][nb 3] One of the founding members of the European Union, Belgium strongly supports an open economy and the extension of the powers of EU institutions to integrate member economies. Since 1922, through the Belgium-Luxembourg Economic Union, Belgium and Luxembourg have been a single trade market with customs and currency union.[76]



Steelmaking along the Meuse River at Ougrée, near Liège

Belgium was the first continental European country to undergo the Industrial Revolution, in the early 19th century.[77] Liège and Charleroi rapidly developed mining and steelmaking, which flourished until the mid-20th century in the Sambre–Meuse valley, the sillon industriel and made Belgium one of the top three most industrialized nations in the world from 1830 to 1910.[78][79] However, by the 1840s the textile industry of Flanders was in severe crisis, and the region experienced famine from 1846 to 1850.[80][81]

After World War II, Ghent and Antwerp experienced a rapid expansion of the chemical and petroleum industries. The 1973 and 1979 oil crises sent the economy into a recession; it was particularly prolonged in Wallonia, where the steel industry had become less competitive and experienced serious decline.[82] In the 1980s and 1990s, the economic centre of the country continued to shift northwards and is now concentrated in the populous Flemish Diamond area.[83]

By the end of the 1980s, Belgian macroeconomic policies had resulted in a cumulative government debt of about 120% of GDP. As of 2006, the budget was balanced and public debt was equal to 90.30% of GDP.[84] In 2005 and 2006, real GDP growth rates of 1.5% and 3.0%, respectively, were slightly above the average for the Euro area. Unemployment rates of 8.4% in 2005 and 8.2% in 2006 were close to the area average. By October 2010, this had grown to 8.5% compared to an average rate of 9.6% for the European Union as a whole (EU 27).[85][86] From 1832 until 2002, Belgium's currency was the Belgian franc. Belgium switched to the euro in 2002, with the first sets of euro coins being minted in 1999. The standard Belgian euro coins designated for circulation show the portrait of King Albert II.

Despite a 18% decrease observed from 1970 to 1999, Belgium still had in 1999 the highest rail network density within the European Union with 113.8 km/1 000 km^2. Due to the large population density in Belgium, this number corresponds to the quite low amount of 3.40% kilometers per capita in comparison to the mean EU value of 4.06%. On the other hand, the same period of time, 1970–1999, has seen a huge growth (+56%) of the motorway network. In 1999, the density of km motorways per 1000 km^2 and 1000 inhabitants amounted to 55.1 and 16.5 respectively and were significantly superior to the EU's means of 13.7 and 15.9.[87] Belgium however experiences one of the most congested traffic in Europe. In 2010, commuters to the cities of Brussels and Antwerp spent respectively 65 and 64 hours a year in traffic jams.[88] Like in most small european countries, more than 80% of the airways traffic is handled by a single airport, the Brussels Airport. The ports of Antwerp and Zeebrugge share more than 80% of Belgian maritime traffic, Antwerp being the second European harbour with a gross weight of goods handled of 115 988 000 t in 2000 after a growth of 10.9% over the preceeding five years.[87][89]

Military

Main article: Belgian Army

The Belgian Armed Forces have about 46,000 active troops. This number corresponded in 2009 to a yearly defence budget of $6 billion (11th in the EU) or 1.24% of GDP (19th in the EU).[90] They are organised into one unified structure which consists of four main components: Land Component, or the Army; Air Component, or the Air Force; Naval Component, or the Navy; Medical Component. The operational commands of the four components are subordinate to the Staff Department for Operations and Training of the Ministry of Defence, which is headed by the Assistant Chief of Staff Operations and Training, and to the Chief of Defence.[91]

The effects of World War II made collective security a priority for Belgian foreign policy. In March 1948 Belgium signed the Treaty of Brussels, and then joined NATO in 1948. However the integration of the armed forces into NATO did not begin until after the Korean War.[92]

Science and technology

Further information: Science and technology in Brussels, Science and technology in Flanders, and Science and technology in Wallonia



Gerardus Mercator

Contributions to the development of science and technology have appeared throughout the country's history. The 16th century Early Modern flourishing of Western Europe included cartographer Gerardus Mercator, anatomist Andreas Vesalius, herbalist Rembert Dodoens[93] and mathematician Simon Stevin among the most influential scientists.[94]

Chemist Ernest Solvay[95] and engineer Zenobe Gramme (École Industrielle de Liège)[96] gave their names to the Solvay process and the Gramme dynamo, respectively, in the 1860s. Bakelite was developed in 1907–1909 by Leo Baekeland. Ernest Solvay also acted as a major philantropist and gave its name to the Solvay Institute of Sociology, the Solvay Brussels School of Economics and Management and the International Solvay Institutes for Physics and Chemistry which are now part of the Université Libre de Bruxelles. In 1911, he started a series of conferences, the Solvay Conferences on Physics and Chemistry, which have had a deep impact on the evolution of quantum physics and chemistry.[97] A major contribution to fundamental science was also due to a Belgian, Georges Lemaître (Catholic University of Leuven), who is credited with proposing the Big Bang theory of the origin of the universe in 1927.[98]

Three Nobel Prizes in Physiology or Medicine were awarded to Belgians: Jules Bordet (Université Libre de Bruxelles) in 1919, Corneille Heymans (University of Ghent) in 1938 and Albert Claude (Université Libre de Bruxelles) together with Christian De Duve (Université Catholique de Louvain) in 1974. Ilya Prigogine (Université Libre de Bruxelles) was awarded the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1977.[99] Two Belgian mathematicians have been awarded the Fields Medal: Pierre Deligne in 1978 and Jean Bourgain in 1994.[100][101]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Belgium


Brussels, the capital city and largest metropolitan area of Belgium

In the beginning of 2007, nearly 92% of the population had Belgian citizenship, and other European Union member citizens account for around 6%. The prevalent foreign nationals were Italian (171,918), French (125,061), Dutch (116,970), Moroccan (80,579), Spanish (42,765), Turkish (39,419) and German (37,621).[102][103] Immigrants since 1945 and their descendents are estimated by 2008 to have formed 22% of the total population.[104] Of these 'New Belgians', 1,313,000 (56%) are of European ancestry and the 950,000 others originated from the rest of the world.[104]

Almost all of the Belgian population is urban—97% in 2004.[105] The population density of Belgium is 342 per square kilometre (886 per square mile). The most densely inhabited area is Flanders,[106] and in particular the Flemish Diamond, outlined by the Antwerp–Leuven–Brussels–Ghent agglomerations.[107] In 2007, there were 1.38 million foreign-born residents in Belgium, corresponding to 12.9% of the total population. Of these, 685 000 (6.4%) were born outside the EU and 695 000 (6.5%) were born in another EU Member State.[108]

The Ardennes have the lowest density. As of 2006, the Flemish Region had a population of about 6,078,600, with Antwerp (457,749), Ghent (230,951) and Bruges (117,251) its most populous cities; Wallonia had 3,413,978, with Charleroi (201,373), Liège (185,574) and Namur (107,178) its most populous. Brussels houses 1,018,804 in the Capital Region's 19 municipalities, two of which have over 100,000 residents.[109]

Languages

Main article: Languages of Belgium

Belgium has three official languages, which are in order of native speaker population in Belgium: Dutch, French and German. A number of non-official minority languages are spoken as well.[110] As no census exists, there are no official statistical data regarding

the distribution or usage of Belgium's three official languages or their dialects.[111] However, various criteria, including the language(s) of parents, of education, or the second-language status of foreign born, may provide suggested figures. An estimated 59% of the Belgian population speaks Dutch (often colloquially referred to as "Flemish"), and 40% of the population speaks French.[nb 4]



Bilingual signs in Brussels

Total Dutch speakers are 6.23 million, concentrated in the northern Flanders region, while French speakers comprise 3.32 million in Wallonia and an estimated 0.87 million or 85% of the officially bilingual Brussels-Capital Region.[nb 5][112] The German-speaking Community is made up of 73,000 people in the east of the Walloon Region; around 10,000 German and 60,000 Belgian nationals are speakers of German. Roughly 23,000 more German speakers live in municipalities near the official Community.[6][2]

Both Belgian Dutch and Belgian French have minor differences in vocabulary and semantic nuances from the varieties spoken respectively in the Netherlands and France. Many Flemish people still speak dialects of Dutch in their local environment. Walloon, once the main regional language of Wallonia, is now only understood and spoken occasionally, mostly by elderly people. Wallonia's dialects, along with those of Picard,[113] are not used in public life and have been replaced by French.

Education

Main article: Education in Belgium

Education is compulsory from six to 18 years of age for Belgians.[114] Among OECD countries in 2002, Belgium had the third-highest proportion of 18–21 year-olds enrolled in postsecondary education, at 42%.[115] Though an estimated 99% of the adult population is literate, concern is rising over functional illiteracy.[113][116] The Programme for International Student Assessment, coordinated by the OECD, currently ranks Belgium's education as the 19th best in the world, being significantly higher than the OECD average.[117] Education being organised separately by each, the Flemish Community scores noticeably above the French and German-speaking Communities.[118]

Mirroring the dual structure of the 19th-century Belgian political landscape, characterized by the Liberal and the Catholic parties, the educational system is segregated within a secular and a religious segment. The secular branch of schooling is controlled by the communities, the provinces, or the municipalities, while religious, mainly Catholic branch education, is organised by religious authorities, although subsidized and supervised by the communities.[119]

Religion

Main article: Religion in Belgium


Basilica of the Sacred Heart, Brussels

Since the country's independence, Roman Catholicism, counterbalanced by strong freethought movements, has had an important role in Belgium's politics.[120] However Belgium is largely a secular country as the *laicist* constitution provides for freedom of religion, and the government generally respects this right in practice. During the reigns of Albert I and Baudouin, the monarchy had a reputation of deeply rooted Catholicism.[121] Roman Catholicism has traditionally been Belgium's majority religion; being especially strong in Flanders. However, by 2009 Sunday church attendance was 5% for Belgium in total; 3% in Brussels,[122] and 5.4% in Flanders. Church attendance in 2009 in Belgium is roughly half of the Sunday church attendance in 1998 (11% for the total of Belgium in 1998).[123] Despite the 6% drop in Sunday church attendance in Belgium from 11% to 5% over this nine-year period, Catholicism nevertheless remains an important force in society.[121]

Symbolically and materially, the Roman Catholic Church remains in a favourable position.[121] Belgium has three officially recognized religions: Christianity (Catholic, Protestantism, Orthodoxy and Anglicanism), Islam and Judaism.[124] While other minority religions, such as Hinduism, do not yet have such status, Buddhism took the first steps toward legal recognition in 2007.[119][125][126] According to the *2001 Survey and Study of Religion*,[127] about 47% of the population identify themselves as belonging to the Catholic Church, while Islam is the second-largest religion at 3.5%. A 2006 inquiry in Flanders, considered to be a more religious region than Wallonia, showed that 55% considered themselves religious and that 36% believed that God created the world.[128]

A 2008 estimate found[129] that 6% of the Belgian population, about 628,751, is Muslim (98% Sunni), while a 2011 estimate claims 900,000 Muslims in the country.[130] Muslims constitute 25.5% of the population of Brussels, 4.0% of Wallonia and 3.9% of Flanders. The majority of Belgian Muslims live in the major cities, such as Antwerp, Brussels and Charleroi. The largest group of immigrants in Belgium are Moroccans, with 264,974 people. The Turks are the third-largest group, and the second-largest Muslim ethnic group, numbering 159,336.[131]

According to the Eurobarometer Poll in 2005, 43% of Belgian citizens responded that "they believe there is a God", whereas 29% answered that "they believe there is some sort of spirit or life force" and 27% that "they do not believe there is any sort of spirit, God, or life force".[132]

Health

Main article: Healthcare in Belgium

The Belgians are known to enjoy good health. Their life expectancy numbered 79.5 years in 2004. Since 1960, life expectancy has, in line with the European average, grown by two months per year. Death is in Belgium mainly due to heart and vascular disorders, neoplasms, disorders of the respiratory system and unnatural causes of death (accidents, suicide). Non-natural causes of death and cancer are the most common causes of death for females up to age 24 and males up to age 44.[133]

Healthcare in Belgium is financed through both social security contributions and taxation. Health insurance is compulsory. Health care is delivered by a mostly private system of independent medical practitioners and hospitals. Most of the time each provided service is directly paid by the patient and reimbursed later on by health insurance companies.[133] Belgian health care system is supervised and financed by the federal government, the three Communities and the three Regions, i.e. six distinct Ministries (the Flemish Community and Region have merged).[133]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Belgium

Despite its political and linguistic divisions, the region corresponding to today's Belgium has seen the flourishing of major artistic movements that have had tremendous influence on European art and culture. Nowadays, to a certain extent, cultural life is concentrated within each language Community, and a variety of barriers have made a shared cultural sphere less pronounced.[10][134][135] Since the 1970s, there are no bilingual universities in the country except the Royal Military Academy and the Antwerp Maritime Academy, no common media[136] and no single large cultural or scientific organisation in which both main communities are represented. The forces that once held the Belgians together—Roman Catholicism and economic and political opposition to the Dutch—are no longer strong.[137]

Fine arts

See also: List of Belgian painters, Architecture of Belgium, and Music of Belgium

Contributions to painting and architecture have been especially rich. The Mosan art, the Early Netherlandish,[138] the Flemish Renaissance and Baroque painting[139] and major examples of Romanesque, Gothic, Renaissance and Baroque architecture[140] are milestones in the history of art. While the 15th century's art in the Low Countries is dominated by the religious paintings of Jan van Eyck and Rogier van der Weyden, the 16th century is characterized by a broader panel of styles such as Peter Breughel's landscape paintings and Lambert Lombard's representation of the antique.[141] Though the Baroque style of Peter Paul Rubens and Anthony van Dyck flourished in the early 17th century in the Southern Netherlands,[142] it gradually declined thereafter.[143][144]



The Ghent Altarpiece: The Adoration of the Mystic Lamb (interior view), painted 1432 by van Eyck

During the 19th and 20th centuries many original romantic, expressionist and surrealist Belgian painters emerged, including James Ensor and other artists belonging to the Les XX group, Constant Permeke, Paul Delvaux and René Magritte. The avant-garde CoBrA movement appeared in the 1950s, while the sculptor Panamarenko remains a remarkable figure in contemporary art.[145][146] The multidisciplinary artist Jan Fabre and the painter Luc Tuymans are other internationally renowned figures on the contemporary art scene.

Belgian contributions to architecture also continued into the 19th and 20th centuries, including the work of Victor Horta and Henry van de Velde, who were major initiators of the Art Nouveau style.[147][148]


Interior of the Horta Museum, in Saint-Gilles, Brussels

The vocal music of the Franco-Flemish School developed in the southern part of the Low Countries and was an important contribution to Renaissance culture.[149] In the 19th and 20th centuries, there was an emergence of major violinists, such as Henri Vieuxtemps, Eugène Ysaÿe and Arthur Grumiaux, while Adolphe Sax invented the saxophone in 1846. The composer César Franck was born in Liège in 1822. Contemporary music in Belgium is also of repute. Jazz musician Toots Thielemans and singer Jacques Brel have achieved global fame. In rock/pop music, Telex, Front 242, K's Choice, Hooverphonic, Zap Mama, Soulwax and dEUS are well known. In the heavy metal scene, bands like Machiavel, Channel Zero and Enthroned have a worldwide fan-base.[150]

Belgium has produced several well-known authors, including the poet Emile Verhaeren and novelists Hendrik Conscience, Georges Simenon, Suzanne Lilar and Amélie Nothomb. The poet and playwright Maurice Maeterlinck won the Nobel Prize in literature in 1911. *The Adventures of Tintin* by Hergé is the best known of Franco-Belgian comics, but many other major authors, including Peyo (*The Smurfs*), André Franquin (*Gaston Lagaffe*), Edgar P. Jacobs and Willy Vandersteen brought the Belgian cartoon strip industry a worldwide fame.[151]

Belgian cinema has brought a number of mainly Flemish novels to life on-screen.[nb 6] Other Belgian directors include André Delvaux, Stijn Coninx, Luc and Jean-Pierre Dardenne; well-known actors include Jan Decleir and Marie Gillain; and successful films include *Man Bites Dog* and *The Alzheimer Affair*.[152] In the 1980s, Antwerp's Royal Academy of Fine Arts produced important fashion trendsetters, known as the Antwerp Six.[153]

Folklore

Further information: Folklore of the Low Countries


The Gilles of Binche, in costume, wearing wax masks

Folklore plays a major role in Belgium's cultural life: the country has a comparatively high number of processions, cavalcades, parades, 'ommegangs' and 'ducasses',[nb 7] 'kermesse' and other local festivals, nearly always with an originally religious or mythological background. The Carnival of Binche with its famous Gilles and the 'Processional Giants and Dragons' of Ath, Brussels, Dendermonde, Mechelen and Mons are recognised by UNESCO as Masterpieces of the Oral and Intangible Heritage of Humanity.[154]

Other examples are the Carnival of Aalst; the still very religious processions of the Holy Blood in Bruges, Virga Jesse Basilica in Hasselt and Basilica of Our Lady of Hanswijk in Mechelen; 15 August festival in Liège; and the Walloon festival in Namur. Originated in 1832 and revived in the 1960s, the Gentse Feesten have become a modern tradition. A major non-official holiday is the Saint Nicholas Day, a festivity for children and, in Liège, for students.[155]

Cuisine

Main article: Cuisine of Belgium

Many highly ranked Belgian restaurants can be found in the most influential restaurant guides, such as the Michelin Guide.[156] Belgium is famous for beer, chocolate, waffles and french fries. Contrary to their name, french fries also originated in Belgium. The national dishes are "steak and fries with salad", and "mussels with fries".[157][158][159]

Brands of Belgian chocolate and pralines, like Côte d'Or, Guylian, Neuhaus, Leonidas, Corné and Galler are famous, as well as independent producers such as Burie and Del Rey in Antwerp and Mary's in Brussels.[160] Belgium produces over 1100 varieties of beer.[161][162] The Trappist beer of the Abbey of Westvleteren has repeatedly been rated the world's best beer.[163][164][165] The biggest brewer in the world by volume is Anheuser-Busch InBev, based in Leuven.[166]

Sports

Main article: Sport in Belgium



Kim Clijsters was WTA Player of the Year in 2005 and 2010

Since the 1970s, sports clubs and federations are organised separately within each language community.[167] Association football is one of the most popular sports in both parts of Belgium, together with cycling, tennis, swimming and judo.[168] With five victories in the Tour de France and numerous other cycling records, Belgian Eddy Merckx is regarded as one of the greatest cyclists of all time.[169] His hour speed record (set in 1972) stood for 12 years. Jean-Marie Pfaff, a former Belgian goalkeeper, is considered one of the greatest in the history of football (soccer).[170] Belgium and The Netherlands previously hosted the UEFA European Football Championship in 2000. Belgium hosted the 1972 European Football Championships.



Brussels waffles, commonly known as Belgian waffles outside of Belgium

Kim Clijsters and Justine Henin both were Player of the Year in the Women's Tennis Association as they were ranked the number one female tennis player. The Spa-Francorchamps motor-racing circuit hosts the Formula One World Championship Belgian Grand Prix. The Belgian driver, Jacky Ickx, won eight Grands Prix and six 24 Hours of Le Mans and finished twice as runner-up in the Formula One World Championship. Belgium also has a strong reputation in motocross.[171] Sporting events annually held in Belgium include the Memorial Van Damme athletics competition, the Belgian Grand Prix Formula One, and a number of classic cycle races such as the Tour of Flanders and Liège–Bastogne–Liège. The 1920 Summer Olympics were held in Antwerp.

See also

- Outline of Belgium
- Index of Belgium-related articles
- Energy in Belgium
- Foreign relations of Belgium

Notes

1. ^ Belgium is also a member of, or affiliated to, many international organisations, including ACCT, AfDB, AsDB, Australia Group, Benelux, BIS, CCC, CE, CERN, EAPC, EBRD, EIB, EMU, ESA, EU, FAO, G-10, IAEA, IBRD, ICAO, ICC, ICRM, IDA, IDB, IEA, IFAD, IFC, IFRCS, IHO, ILO, IMF, IMO, IMSO, Intelsat, Interpol, IOC, IOM, ISO, ITU, MONUC (observers), NATO, NEA, NSG, OAS (observer), OECD, OPCW, OSCE, PCA, UN, UNCTAD, UNECE, UNESCO, UNHCR, UNIDO, UNMIK, UNMOGIP, UNRWA, UNTSO, UPU, WADB (non-regional), WEU, WHO, WIPO, WMO, WTrO, ZC.
2. ^ The Constitution set out seven institutions each of which can have a parliament, government and administration. In fact there are only six such bodies because the Flemish Region merged into the Flemish Community. This single Flemish body thus exercises powers about Community matters in the bilingual area of Brussels-Capital and in the Dutch language area, while about Regional matters only in the latter.
3. ^ The richest (per capita income) of Belgium's three regions is the Flemish Region, followed by the Walloon Region and lastly the Brussels-Capital Region. The ten municipalities with the highest reported income are: Laethem-Saint-Martin, Keerbergen, Lasne, Oud-Heverlee, Hove, De Pinte, Meise, Knokke-Heist, Bierbeek."Où habitent les Belges les plus riches?" (http://trends.rnews.be/fr/economie/actualite/politique-economique/ou-habitent-les-belges-les-plus-riches/article-1194966031033.htm) . *trends.be*. 2010. http://trends.rnews.be/fr/economie/actualite/politique-economique/ou-habitent-les-belges-les-plus-riches/article-1194966031033.htm. Retrieved 15 July 2011.
4. ^ Native speakers of Dutch living in Wallonia and of French in Flanders are relatively small minorities that furthermore largely balance one another, hence counting all inhabitants of each unilingual area to the area's language can cause only insignificant inaccuracies (99% can speak the language). Dutch: Flanders' 6.079 million inhabitants and about 15% of Brussels' 1.019 million are 6.23 million or 59.3% of the 10.511 million inhabitants of Belgium (2006); German: 70,400 in the German-speaking Community (which has language facilities for its less than 5% French-speakers) and an estimated 20,000–25,000 speakers of German in the Walloon Region outside the geographical boundaries of their official Community, or 0.9%; French: in the latter area as well as mainly in the rest of Wallonia (3.414 − 0.093 = 3.321 million) and 85% of the Brussels inhabitants (0.866 million) thus 4.187 million or 39.8%; together indeed 100%.
5. ^ Flemish Academic Eric Corijn (initiator of Charta 91 (http://www.charta91.be/)), at a colloquium regarding Brussels, on 2001-12-05, states that in Brussels there is 91% of the population speaking French at home, either alone or with another language, and there is about 20% speaking Dutch at home, either alone (9%) or with French (11%)—After ponderation, the repartition can be estimated at between 85 and 90% French-speaking, and the remaining are Dutch-speaking, corresponding to the estimations based on languages chosen in Brussels by citizens for their official documents (ID, driving licenses, weddings, birth, sex, and so on); all these statistics on language are also available at Belgian Department of Justice (for weddings, birth, sex), Department of Transport (for Driving licenses), Department of Interior (for IDs), because there are no means to know *precisely* the proportions since Belgium has abolished 'official' linguistic censuses, thus official documents on language choices can only be estimations. For a web source on this topic, see e.g. General online sources: Janssens, Rudi
6. ^ Notable Belgian films based on works by Flemish authors include: *De Witte* (author Ernest Claes) movie by Jan Vanderheyden and Edith

History of Belgium

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of Belgium**, from pre-history to the present day, is intertwined with the histories of its European neighbours, in particular those of the Netherlands and Luxembourg, but also Germany and France. For reasons of European politics, the name of the country is relatively new, originating in the 19th century, but the country's modern history can be traced further back under various other names such as the Austrian Netherlands, or Spanish Netherlands, covering approximately the same area. In the Middle Ages in contrast, the region of Belgium was divided differently, and connected to larger entities such as Lotharingia and the Burgundian Netherlands.

A feature of its history is the number of wars between other European powers which have included campaigns on Belgian territory, causing it to be nicknamed "The Cockpit of Europe". It is also remarkable as a European nation which contains, and is divided by, a language boundary between Latin-derived French, and Germanic Dutch and German.

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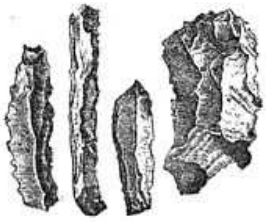
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Before independence

Prehistory

On Belgian territory Neanderthal fossils were discovered at Engis in 1829-30, La Naulette in 1866, Grotte de Spy in 1886, Grotte Scladina in 1993, and Veldwezelt-Hezerwater, some dating back to at least 100,000BP[1].



Flint knives discovered in Belgian caves

The earliest Neolithic farming technology of northern Europe, the so-called LBK culture, reached the east of Belgium at its furthest northwesterly stretch from its origins in southeast Europe. Its expansion stopped in the Hesbaye region of eastern Belgium around 5000 BCE. The Belgian LBK is notable for its use of defensive walls around villages, something which may or may not have been necessary because of the proximity of hunter gatherers.[2][3][4]

So-called Limburg pottery and La Hoguette pottery are styles which stretch into northwestern France and the Netherlands, but it has sometimes been argued that these technologies are the result of pottery technology spreading beyond the original LBK farming population of eastern Belgium and northeastern France, and being made by hunter gatherers.[5] A slightly later-starting Neolithic culture found in central Wallonia is the so-called "Groupe de Blicquy", which may represent an offshoot of the LBK settlers.One notable archaeological site in this region is the Neolithic flint mines of Spiennes. Farming in Belgium however failed to take permanent hold at first. The LBK and Blicquy cultures disappeared and there is a long gap before a new farming culture, the Michelsberg culture, appeared and became widespread. Hunter gatherers of the Swifterbant culture apparently remained in the sandy north of Belgium, but apparently became more and more influenced by farming and pottery technology.[3]

In the third and late fourth millennia BCE, the whole of Flanders shows relatively little evidence of human habitation. Although it is felt that there was a continuing human presence, the types of evidence available make judgement about the details very difficult.[6] The Seine-Oise-Marne culture spread into the Ardennes, and is associated with megalithic sites there (for example Wéris), but did not disperse over all of Belgium. To the north and east, in the Netherlands, a semi-sedentary culture group has been proposed to have existed, the so-called Vlaardingen-Wartburg-Stein complex, which possibly developed from the above mentioned Swifterbant and Michelsburg cultures.[7] The same pattern continues into the late Neolithic and early Bronze Age. In the last part of the Neolithic, evidence is found for the Corded Ware and Bell Beaker cultures in the south of the Netherlands, but these cultures also do not seem to have had a big impact in all of Belgium.

The population of Belgium started to increase permanently with the late Bronze age from around 1750 BC. Three possibly related European cultures arrived in sequence. First the Urnfield culture arrived (for example, tumuli are found at Ravels and Hamont-Achel in the Campine). Then, coming into the Iron Age, the Hallstatt culture, and the La Tène culture. All three of these are associated with Indo-European languages, with specifically Celtic languages being especially associated with La Tène material culture, and possibly Halstatt. This is because historical Greek and Roman records from areas where this culture settled show Celtic placenames and personal names. However it is possible in Belgium that especially in the northern areas the Hallstatt and La Tène cultures were brought by new elites, and that the main language of the population was not Celtic. From 500 BC Celtic tribes settled in the region and traded with the Mediterranean world. From c. 150 BC, the first coins came into use, under the influence of trade with the Mediterranean.

When Julius Caesar arrived in the area, as recorded in his *De Bello Gallico*, the inhabitants of Belgium and northwestern France were known as the Belgae (after whom modern Belgium is named), and they were considered to be the northern part of Gaul. The distinction between the Belgae to the North and the Gauls to the south of them, whom Caesar called Celts, is disputed. Caesar says that the Belgae were separated from the rest of Gaul by language, law and custom, but does not go into detail. It seems clear that Gaulish culture was very influential upon the Belgae. On the other hand, linguists have proposed that there is evidence that at least part of the Belgic population had previously spoken an Indo European language related to, but distinct from, Celtic and Germanic, and amongst the northern Belgae, Celtic may never have been the language of the majority. (See Belgian language and Nordwestblock.)[8]

Caesar reported that the northern Belgae, approximately in the area of modern Belgium, were less economically developed, and militarily dangerous people, similar to the people east of the Rhine river. He referred to both these groups as *Germani*. The area was still marked by dense forests, swamps and other types of wilderness. There is also less evidence of large settlements and trade. In fact, Caesar was informed that a large part of the Belgae had Germanic ancestry, and in particular the Belgae living in the area stretching from eastern Belgium to the Rhine were referred to by Caesar as the *Germani cisrhenani*. According to Tacitus, writing a generation later, these were in fact the original tribe to be

called *Germani*, and all other uses of the term extended from them.[9] Modern linguists use the word "germanic" to refer to people speaking Germanic languages and it is possible that all or part of the Belgae were Germanic in this sense. On the other hand it is not known for sure whether even the Belgian *Germani* spoke a Germanic language, and their tribal and personal names are clearly Celtic. This is in fact also true of the possibly related tribes across the Rhine from them at this time. Archaeologists have had difficulty finding evidence of the exact migrations from east of the Rhine which Caesar reports and more generally there has been skepticism about using him in this way due to the political motives of his commentaries. But there is a general impression that the Belgae were a relatively stable population going back to Urnfield times, but with a much more recently immigrated elite class who would have been of more interest to Caesar.[10]

Antiquity

Main article: Gallia Belgica

By 51BC, the Belgae were overrun by the armies of Julius Caesar, as described in his chronicle *De Bello Gallico*.



The Roman province Gallia Belgica in around 120 CE. (For a map in 58 BC, see Gallic Wars)

In this same work Julius Caesar referred to the Belgae as "the bravest of all the Gauls" (*"horum omnium fortissimi sunt belgae"*).

What is now Belgium flourished as a province of Rome. This province was much larger than the modern Belgium and included five cities: Nemetacum (Arras), Divodurum (Metz), Bagacum (Bavay), Atuatuca Tongrorum (Tongeren), Durocorturum (Reims). The northeastern corner of this province, including Tongeren and the area of the earlier *Germani*, was united with the militarized Rhine border to form a newer province known as Germania Inferior. Its cities included Ulpia Noviomagus (Nijmegen), Colonia Ulpia Trajana (Xanten) and the capital Colonia Agrippina (Cologne). These two provinces include all of modern Belgium and important parts of the Netherlands, France and Germany.[11]

Early Middle Ages

After the Roman Empire collapsed (5th century), Germanic tribes invaded the Roman province of "Gallia". One of these peoples, the Franks, eventually managed to install a new kingdom under the rule of the Merovingian Dynasty. Clovis I was the best-known king of this dynasty. He ruled from his base in northern France, but his empire included today's Belgium. He converted to Christianity. Christian scholars, mostly Irish monks, preached Christianity to the populace and started a wave of conversion (Saint Servatius, Saint Remacle, Saint Hadelin).

The Merovingians were short-lived and were succeeded by the Carolingian Dynasty. After Charles Martel countered the Moorish invasion from Spain (732 — Poitiers), the King Charlemagne (born close to Liège in Herstal or Jupille) brought a huge part of Europe under his rule and was crowned the "Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire" by the Pope Leo III (800 in Aachen).

The Vikings were defeated in 891 by Arnulf of Carinthia near Leuven. The Frankish lands were divided and reunified several times under the Merovingian and Carolingian dynasties, but eventually were firmly divided into France and the Holy Roman Empire. The parts of the County of Flanders stretching out west of the river Scheldt (Schelde in Dutch, Escaut in French) became part of France during the Middle Ages, but the remainders of the County of Flanders and the Low Countries were part of the Holy Roman Empire.

Through the early Middle Ages, the northern part of present-day Belgium (now commonly referred to as Flanders) had become an overwhelmingly Germanized and Germanic language-speaking area, whereas in the southern part people had continued to be Roman and spoke derivatives of Vulgar Latin.

As the Holy Roman Emperors lost effective control of their domains in the 11th and 12th centuries, the territory more or less corresponding to the present Belgium was divided into mostly independent feudal states:

- County of Flanders
- Marquisate of Namur
- Duchy of Brabant (see also Duke of Brabant)
- County of Hainaut
- Duchy of Limburg
- Luxembourg
- Bishopric of Liège

During the 11th and 12th centuries, the Rheno-Mosan or Mosan art movement flourished in the region moving its centre from Cologne and Trier to Liège, Maastricht and Aachen. Some masterpieces of this Romanesque art are the shrine of the Three Kings at Cologne Cathedral, the Baptismal font at St Bartholomew's Church, Liège by Renier de Huy, the Stavelot Triptych, the shrine of Saint Remacle in Stavelot, the shrine of Saint Servatius in Maastricht or, Notger's gospel in Liège.

13th-18th centuries

In this period, many cities, including Ypres, Bruges and Antwerp gained independence.[*citation needed*] The Hanseatic League stimulated trade in

the region, and the period saw the erection of many gothic cathedrals and city halls.[*citation needed*] With the decline of the Holy Roman emperors' power starting in the 13th century, the Low Countries were largely left to their own devices. The lack of imperial protection also meant that the French and English began vying for influence in the region. In 1214, King Philip II of France defeated the Count of Flanders in the Battle of Bouvines and forced his submission to the French crown. Through the remainder of the 13th century, French control over Flanders steadily increased until 1302 when an attempt at total annexation by Philip IV met a stunning defeat when Count Guy (who had the support of the guilds and craftsmen) rallied the townspeople and humiliated the French knights at the Battle of the Golden Spurs. Undaunted, Philip launched a new campaign that ended with the inconclusive Battle of Mons-en-Pévèle in 1304. The king imposed harsh peace terms on Flanders, which included ceding the important textile-making centers of Lille and Douai. Thereafter, Flanders remained a French tributary until the start of the Hundred Years War in 1337. In Brabant, skillful work by the duke of that territory and the Count of Hainaut-Holland foiled various French manipulations. Paris's influence in the Low Countries was counterbalanced by England, which maintained important ties to the coastal ports.

Flanders faced the difficult situation of being politically subservient to France, but also reliant on trade with England. Many craftsmen emigrated to England, which also came to dominate the wool-shipping business. Flemish cloth nonetheless remained a highly valued product, and it was highly dependent on English wool. Any interruption in the supply of that invariably resulted in riots and violence from the weavers' guilds. On the whole though, Flemish trade became a passive one. Flanders received imports from other areas of Europe, but itself purchased little abroad except wine from Spain and France. Bruges became a great commercial center after the Hanseatic League set up business there and the Italian banking houses followed suit.

A few towns in the Low Countries dated back to Roman times, but most had been founded from the 9th century onward. The oldest were in the Scheldt and Meuse areas, with many towns in what's now the Netherlands being much younger and only dating from the 13th century. From early on, the Low Countries began to develop as a commercial and manufacturing center. Merchants became the dominant class in the towns, with the nobility largely limited to countryside estates.

By 1433 most of the Belgian and Luxembourgian territory along with much of the rest of the Low Countries became part of Burgundy under Philip the Good. When Mary of Burgundy, granddaughter of Philip the Good married Maximilian I, the Low Countries became Habsburg territory. Their son, Philip I of Castile (Philip the Handsome) was the father of the later Charles V. The Holy Roman Empire was unified with Spain under the Habsburg Dynasty after Charles V inherited several domains.

Especially during the Burgundy period (the 15th and 16th centuries), Ypres, Ghent, Bruges, Brussels, and Antwerp took turns at being major European centers for commerce, industry (especially textiles) and art. The Flemish Primitives were a group of painters active primarily in the Southern Netherlands in the 15th and early 16th centuries (for example, Van Eyck and van der Weyden). Flemish tapestries and, in the 16th and 17th centuries, Brussels tapestry hung on the walls of castles throughout Europe. See also:

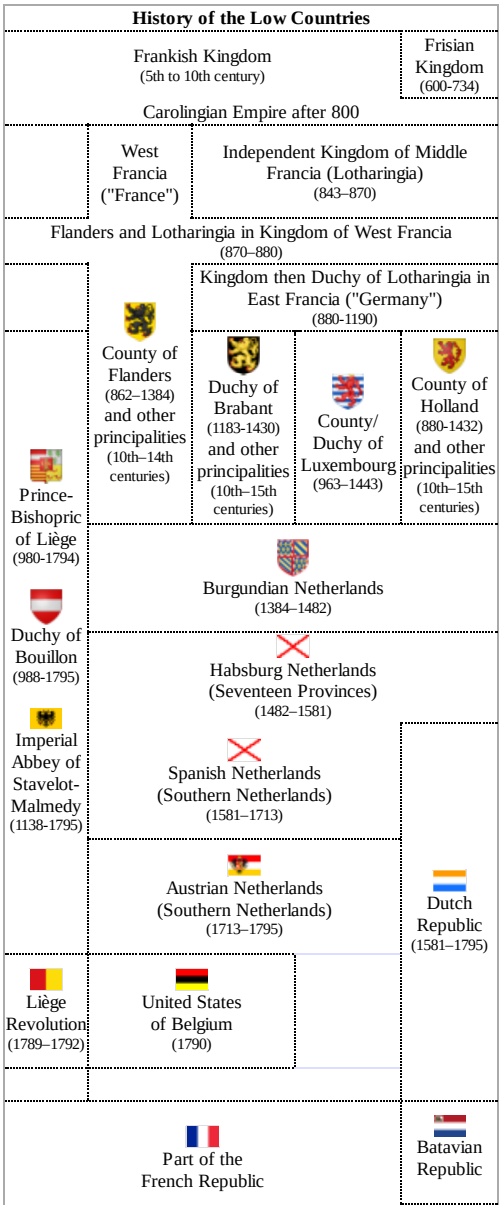
- Early Renaissance painting
- Charles the Good
- Charles the Bold



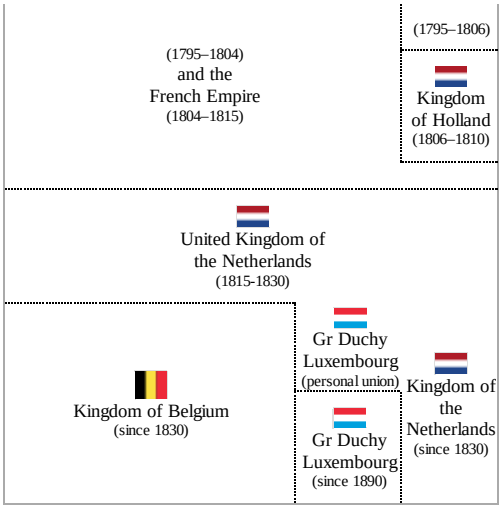
The Seventeen Provinces, and the Bishopric of Liège in Green

The Pragmatic Sanction of 1549, issued by Charles V, established the Seventeen Provinces (or Spanish Netherlands in its broad sense) as an entity separate from the Empire and from France. This comprised all of the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg except for the lands of the Bishopric of Liège.

After the Burgundian regime in the Low Countries (1363–1477), the Southern Netherlands (whose area roughly encompassed that of present-day Belgium and Luxembourg) as well as the northern provinces (whose area roughly corresponded to that of the present-day Kingdom of the Netherlands) had dynastic links with the Austrian Habsburgs and then with Spain and the Austrian Habsburgs together. Later, as a consequence of revolt in 1567, the southern provinces became subject to Spain (1579), then to the Austrian Habsburgs (1713), to France (1795), and finally in 1815



to the Kingdom of the Netherlands. While Luxembourg remained linked to the Netherlands until 1867, Belgium's union with the Netherlands ended with the 1830 revolution. Belgian nationality is generally considered to date from this event.



The Burgundian period, from Philip II (the Bold) to Charles the Bold, was one of political prestige and economic and artistic splendour. The "Great Dukes of the West," as the Burgundian princes were called, were effectively considered national sovereigns, their domains extending from the Zuiderzee to the Somme. The urban and other textile industries, which had developed in the Belgian territories since the 12th century, became under the Burgundians the economic mainstay of northwestern Europe.

The death of Charles the Bold (1477) and the marriage of his daughter Mary to the archduke Maximilian of Austria proved fatal to the independence of the Low Countries by bringing them increasingly under the sway of the Habsburg dynasty. Mary and Maximilian's grandson Charles became king of Spain as Charles I in 1516 and Holy Roman emperor as Charles V in 1519. In Brussels on Oct. 25, 1555, Charles V abdicated the Netherlands to his son, who in January 1556 assumed the throne of Spain as Philip II.

However, the northern region now known as the Netherlands became increasingly Protestant (*i.e.* Calvinistic), while the south remained primarily Catholic. The schism resulted in the Union of Atrecht and the Union of Utrecht. When Philip II, son of Charles, ascended the Spanish throne he tried to abolish all Protestantism. Portions of the Netherlands revolted, beginning the Eighty Years' War between the Netherlands and Spain. For the conquered Southern Netherlands the war ended in 1585 with the Fall of Antwerp. This can be seen as the start of Belgium as one region. That same year, the northern Low Countries (i.e. the Netherlands proper) seized independence in the Act of Abjuration (*Plakkaat van Verlatinghe*) and started the United Provinces and the Dutch Golden Age. For them, the war lasted until 1648 (the Peace of Westphalia), when Spain recognized the independence of the Netherlands, but held onto the loyal and Catholic region of modern-day Belgium which was all that remained of the Spanish Netherlands. See also:

- Battles of the Eighty Years' War
- Infanta Isabella Clara Eugenia of Spain

While the United Provinces gained independence, the Southern Netherlands remained under the rule of Spain (1556–1713).


Rubens' Adoration of the Magii

Until 1581 the history of Belgium (except the Bishopric of Liège), the grand duchy of Luxembourg and the country the Netherlands is the same: they formed the country/region of the Netherlands or the Low Countries. In Dutch, a distinction still exists between on the one hand 'de Nederlanden' (plural, the Low Countries) and 'Nederland' (singular, the present-day state of the Netherlands) that is a consequence of this separation in the 17th century. Before 1581, the Netherlands refers to the Lowlands (De Nederlanden).

During the 17th century, Antwerp was still a major European center for commerce, industry and art. The Brueghels, Peter Paul Rubens and Van Dyck's baroque paintings were created during this period. See also:

- Gerardus Mercator
- Jodocus Hondius
- War of Devolution, Franco-Dutch War, War of the Reunions, Nine Years War, War of the Spanish Succession

The Belgian and Luxemburgian territories (except the Bishopric of Liège) were transferred to the Austrian Habsburgs (1713–1794) after the War of the Spanish Succession when the French Bourbon Dynasty inherited Spain at the price of abandoning many Spanish possessions. They were thus called the Austrian Netherlands from 1713 to 1794. See also:

- War of the Austrian Succession
- Barrier Treaty which excluded the Flemings to use the Scheldt
- Ostend Company
- Battle of Turnhout (1789)
- United States of Belgium of 1790

[12]

French period

With the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, the Austrian Netherlands declared their independence, but were reoccupied by the Austrians within a year.

Following the Campaigns of 1794 of the French Revolutionary Wars, the Southern Netherlands were invaded and annexed by the First French Republic in 1795, ending Habsburg rule. They were divided into nine united *départements* and became an integral part of France. The Bishopric of Liège was dissolved. Its territory was divided over the *départements* Meuse-Inférieure and Ourte. Austria confirmed the loss of the Austrian

Netherlands by the Treaty of Campo Formio, in 1797.

Until the establishment of the Consulate in 1799, Catholics were heavily repressed by the French. The University of Leuven (Louvain) was closed in 1797, priests were considered criminal, and churches were plundered. During this early period of the French rule, the Belgian economy was completely paralyzed: it was forbidden to export from the port of Antwerp, heavy taxes had to be paid in gold and silver coin, while goods bought by the French were paid for with worthless assignats. During this period of systematic exploitation, about 800,000 Belgians fled the Southern Netherlands.[13] The French occupation in Belgium led to further suppression of the Dutch language across the country, including its abolition as an administrative language.[14][15] With the motto "one nation, one language", French became the only accepted language in public life, as well as in economic, political, and social affairs.[16] The measures of the successive French governments and in particular the 1798 massive conscription into the French army were particularly unpopular within the Flemish segment of the population and caused the Peasants' War.[17] The Peasants' War is often seen as the starting point of the modern Flemish movement.[18]

In 1814, Napoleon Bonaparte was forced to abdicate by the Allies and was exiled; French control of Belgium ended. However, Napoleon managed to escape from Elba and quickly returned to power during the Hundred Days in 1815. Napoleon knew that his only chance of remaining in power was to attack the existing Allied forces in Belgium before they were reinforced. He crossed the Belgian frontier with two armies and attacked the Prussians under the command of General Gebhard Leberecht von Blücher at the Battle of Ligny on June 16, 1815. Meanwhile, Ney engaged the forces of the Duke of Wellington and the Prince of Orange in the Battle of Quatre Bras on the same day.

In 1815, Napoleon's last campaign was fought out in Belgium. He attacked the Prussian and British armies then deployed in Belgium. Napoleon was finally defeated by the Duke of Wellington and Gebhard Leberecht von Blücher at Waterloo in present-day Belgium on 18 June 1815. Napoleon's strategy failed and his army was driven from the field in confusion, by a combined Allied general advance. The next morning the Battle of Wavre ended in a hollow French victory. Napoleon was forced to surrender and was exiled permanently.



The Butte du Lion overlooking the battlefield of Waterloo

King William I of the Netherlands had the Butte du Lion erected on the battlefield of Waterloo to commemorate the location where his son, William II of the Netherlands (the Prince of Orange), was knocked from his horse by a musket ball to the shoulder and as a tribute to his courage. It was completed in 1826. The younger William had fought as commander of combined Dutch and Belgian forces at the Battle of Quatre Bras and the Battle of Waterloo.

United Kingdom of the Netherlands

Main article: United Kingdom of the Netherlands

After Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo in 1815, the major victorious powers (Britain, Austria, Prussia, Russia) agreed at Congress of Vienna on reuniting the former Austrian Netherlands and the former Dutch Republic, creating the United Kingdom of the Netherlands, which was to serve as a buffer state against any future French invasions. This was under the rule of a Protestant king, namely William I of Orange. Most of the small and ecclesiastical states in the Holy Roman Empire were given to larger states at this time, and this included the Prince-Bishopric of Liège which became now formally part of the United Kingdom of the Netherlands.

Independence

Main article: Belgian Revolution

In August 1830, stirred by a performance of Auber's *La Muette de Portici* at the Brussels opera house *La Monnaie* (Dutch: *De Munt*), the Belgian Revolution broke out, and the country wrested its independence from the Dutch, aided by French intellectuals and French armed forces. The real political forces behind this were the Catholic clergy, which was against the Protestant Dutch king, William I, and the equally strong liberals, who opposed the royal authoritarianism, and the fact that the Belgians were not represented proportionally in the national assemblies. At first, the Revolution was merely a call for greater autonomy, but due to the clumsy responses of the Dutch king to the problem, and his unwillingness to meet the demands of the revolutionaries, the Revolution quickly escalated into a fight for full independence.



Episode of the Belgian Revolution of 1830, Egide Charles Gustave Wappers (1834), in the Musée d'Art Ancien, Brussels

The major European powers of the time, (Britain, Russia, Prussia, Austria) were fearful of Belgium either becoming a republic or being annexed to France, and so found a monarch invited in from the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha in Germany by the British. On July 21, 1831, the first king of the Belgians, Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was inaugurated. This day is still the Belgian national holiday. Even though the Belgian Revolution violated the accords made in 1815, the Belgians received the sympathy of the liberal governments of both Great Britain and France. France itself had undergone a liberal revolution that year. The other major powers of Europe – Austria and Prussia – took a much dimmer view of Belgian independence but they were disinclined to take any action, being preoccupied with the November Uprising in Poland.

The Netherlands still fought on for eight years, but in 1839, the Treaty of London (1839) was signed between the two countries. Belgium thereafter became a sovereign, independent state with a liberal constitution (constitutional monarchy). The constitution did however, limit voting rights to the haute-bourgeoisie and the clergy, if they were fully French speaking, in a country where French was not the majority language; all together less than 1% of the adult population.

By the treaty of 1839, Luxembourg did not fully join Belgium, and remained a possession of the Netherlands until different inheritance laws caused it to separate as an independent Grand Duchy. Belgium also lost Eastern Limburg, Zeeuws Vlaanderen and French Flanders (Dutch: *Frans Vlaanderen*) and Eupen, four territories which it had all claimed on historical grounds. The Netherlands retained the former two while French Flanders, which had been annexed at the time of Louis XIV remained in French possession, and Eupen remained within the German Confederation, although it would pass to Belgium after World War I as compensation for the war.

The Belgian Revolution had many causes:

- At the political level:
  - The Belgians felt significantly under-represented in the Netherlands' elected Lower Assembly.
  - The low popularity of Prince William, the later King William II, who was the representative of King William I in Brussels.
  - The treatment of the French-speaking Catholic Walloons in the Dutch dominated United Kingdom of the Netherlands.
- At the religious level:
  - The difference of religion between the Catholic Belgians and their Protestant Dutch king.
- At the economic level:
  - The Belgians had little influence over the traditional economy of trade centered in Amsterdam.
  - The Dutch were for free trade, while industries in Belgium called for the protection of tariffs.
  - Low-taxed imports from the Baltic depressed agriculture in Belgian grain-growing regions.
- At the international level:
  - French July Monarchy's support.
  - The passive agreement of the British.

From independence to World War I

Economy

The textile industry, based on cotton and flax, employed about half of the industrial workforce. Ghent was the premier industrial city in Belgium until the 1880s, when the center of growth moved to Liege, with its steel industry. [19]

Coal

By 1830 when iron and later steel became important the Belgium coal industry had long been established, and used steam-engines for pumping. The Belgian coalfield lay near the navigable River Meuse, so coal was shipped downstream to the ports and cities of the Rhine-Meuse delta. The opening of the Saint-Quentin canal allowed coal to go by barge to Paris. The Belgian coalfield outcrops over most of its area, and the highly folded nature of the seams meant that surface occurrences of the coal were very abundant. Deep mines were not required at first so there were a large number of small operations. There was a complex legal system for concessions, often multiple layers had different owners. Entrepreneurs started going deeper and deeper (thanks to the good pumping system). In 1790, the maximum depth of mines was 220 meters. By 1856, the average depth in the area west of Mons was 361, and in 1866, 437 meters and some pits had reached down 700 and 900 meters; one was 1,065 meters deep, probably the deepest coal mine in Europe at this time. Gas explosions were a serious problem, and Belgium had high fatality rates. By the late 19th century the seams were becoming exhausted and the steel industry was importing some coal from the Ruhr.[20]

Railways

Main article: Rail transport in Belgium

The small nation provided an ideal model for showing the value of the railways for speeding the Industrial Revolution. After 1830, the new nation decided to stimulate industry. It funded a simple cross-shaped system that connected the major cities, ports and mining areas, and linked to neighboring countries. Belgium thus became the railway center of the region. The system was very soundly built along British lines, so that profits and wages were low but the infrastructure necessary for rapid industrial growth was put in place. Léopold I went on to build the first railway in continental Europe in 1835, between Brussels and Mechelen. The first trains were drawn by Stephenson engines imported from Great Britain.[21]

Language battles

Friction between French-speaking (Walloons) and Dutch (Flemish) speaking Flemings has always been the central political issue of the Kingdom of Belgium. French became the official language of government after the separation from the Netherlands in 1830. Belgian cultural life was dominated by the French influence[22], reinforced by economic domination of the industrial south. In response came a new spirit of nationalism among the Flemings, who agitated for the equality of their language with French. This goal was finally achieved by a series of laws

in the 1920s and 1930s that made Flemish the language of government, education, and the courts in the northern provinces of East Flanders and West Flanders, Antwerp, Limburg, and eastern Brabant. Brussels became a bilingual national capital.[*citation needed*]

High culture

Cultural life in Belgium had long stagnated but a revival among Walloons began with the new French language literary and artistic review *La Jeune Belgique* (1881–97). World class writers in French include the great romantic and symbolist poet Maurice Maeterlinck (1862–1949, Nobel Prize 1911), dramatists Michel de Ghelderode (1898–1962) and Henri Michaux (1899–1984), and the poet and playwright Émile Verhaeren (1855–1916), one of the founders of symbolism. Inspector Maigret, the creation of Georges Simenon (1903–89), won a wide following in translation. James Ensor (1860–1949) was an influential Expressionist painter and printmaker. Félicien Rops (1833–98) won acclaim as a graphic artist, as did surrealist painters Paul Delvaux (1897–1994) and René Magritte (1898–1967). Few other Flemish artists achieved comparable international renown, and there was a tendency for Walloon artists to move to France.

Laicity and Catholicism

In the 19th century, poor politics were a bipartisan system very deeply influenced by the conflict between the Catholic parties and the secular ones.

See also

- Liberalism in Belgium
- Université Libre de Bruxelles
- Catholic University of Leuven
- John Cockerill
- Cockerill-Sambre
- Val Saint Lambert
- Ernest Solvay
- Fabrique Nationale de Herstal
- Rail transport in Belgium
- Industrial revolution

Rise of the Socialist Party and the trade unions

Main article: Belgian general strikes

The Congolese colony

Main articles: Congo Free State and Belgian Congo



Statue of Leopold II of Belgium in Ostend

At the Berlin Conference of 1884–1885 the Congo was attributed solely to Leopold II of Belgium, who named the territory the Congo Free State. King Leopold had been the principal shareholder in the Belgian trading company which established trading stations on the lower Congo between 1879 and 1884.[23] Power was finally transferred to Belgium in 1908 under considerable international pressure following numerous reports of gross misconduct and abuse to native labourers.

The integration of traditional economies in the Congo within the framework of the modern, capitalist economy was brilliantly executed; for example, several railroads were built through dense regions of jungle. Leopold's fortune was greatly increased through the proceeds of Congolese rubber, which had never previously been mass-produced in such surplus quantities.

Many atrocities were committed in the colony, especially while it remained in Leopold II's personal possession. The behaviour of the Belgian colonists in Congo is still a conflict-laden topic in present-day Belgium.

European exploration and administration of the Congo took place from the 1870s until the 1920s. First by Stanley who undertook his explorations mainly under the sponsorship of Leopold II, who desired what was to become the Congo as a colony. In a succession of negotiations Leopold, professing humanitarian objectives in his capacity as chairperson of the Association International Africaine, played one European rival against the other. The Congo territory was acquired formally by Leopold at the Conference of Berlin in 1885. He made the land his private, personal property and named it the Congo Free State. Congolese territory was more than 80 times as large as Belgium's.

Leopold's regime began undertaking various development projects, such as a railway that ran from the coast to Leopoldville (now Kinshasa) which took years to complete. Nearly all of these projects were aimed at increasing the capital Leopold and his associates could extract from the colony, leading to some atrocious exploitation of Africans. In the Free State, the local population was brutalized in exchange for rubber, a growing market with the development of rubber tires. The selling of the rubber made a fortune for Leopold, who built several buildings in Brussels and Ostend to honour himself and his country.

During the period between 1885 and 1908, between five and fifteen (the commonly accepted figure is about ten) million Congolese died because of exploitation and diseases. To enforce the rubber quotas, the Force Publique (FP) was called in. The FP was an army, but its aim was not to defend the country, but to terrorize the local population. The Force Publique made the practice of cutting off the limbs of the natives as a means of enforcing rubber quotas a matter of policy; this practice was disturbingly widespread. However, there were international protests particularly in Britain and the United States in 1903-04 spearheaded mainly by Edmund Dene Morel and British diplomat/Irish patriot Roger Casement, whose 1904 report on the Congo condemned the practice, as well as famous writers such as Mark Twain (who wrote King Leopold's Soliloquy) and Sir Arthur Conan Doyle. Joseph Conrad's novella *Heart of Darkness* also takes place in Congo Free State. In 1908, the Belgian parliament bowed to international pressure in order to save their last bit of prestige in Europe, forcibly adopting the Free State as a Belgian colony from the king. From then on, it became the Belgian Congo.

However political rights were not granted to the Africans until 1956 when a small group received the franchise and the economy remained relatively undeveloped despite the mineral wealth of Katanga. For 18 months from January 1, 1959 there was political uncertainty and African national feeling became more apparent with the effect that the Belgian government resolved on independence for the colony in June 1960. However the politicians relied largely on tribal rather than national support and there were constitutional disputes.[23]

Historicism and Art Nouveau


The Cinquantenaire Arch in winter

At the end of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century, the historicism style dominates the urban Belgian landscape (e.g. Justice Palace of Brussels, 50th-Anniversary Park in Brussels). Nevertheless, Brussels became one of the major European cities for the development of the Art Nouveau style (e.g. Victor Horta, Henry van de Velde).

From WWI to WWII

World War I


A Belgian machine gunner on the front lines in 1918, firing a Chauchat gun.

When World War I began, Germany invaded neutral Belgium and Luxembourg as part of the Schlieffen Plan, trying to take Paris quickly and catch the French off guard by invading through neutral countries. It was this action that technically caused the British to enter the war, as they were still bound by the 1839 agreement to protect Belgium in the event of a war. To this day, the Belgians are remembered for their stubborn resistance during the early days of the war, with the army - around a tenth the size of the Germany Army - holding up the German offensive for nearly a month, giving the French and British forces time to prepare for the Marne counteroffensive later in the year the German invaders treated any resistance--such as sabotaging rail lines--as illegal and immoral, and shot the offenders and burned buildings in retaliation. The German army executed over 6,500 French and Belgian civilians between August and November 1914, usually in near-random large-scale shootings of civilians ordered by junior German officers.[24]

The Germans were stopped by the Allies at the front-line along the Yser, the Battle of the Yser. King Albert I stayed in Belgium with his troops to lead the army while the government withdrew to Le Havre, France. The Germans governed the occupied areas of Belgium through a General Governorate of Belgium, while a small area of the country remained unoccupied by the Germans.

Flanders saw some of the greatest losses of life of the First World War including the first and second battles of Ypres. Due to the hundreds of thousands of casualties, the poppies that sprang up from the battlefield and that were immortalized in the poem In Flanders Fields, have become an emblem of human life lost in war. It is perfectly normal for poppies to invade disturbed arable ground. The suffering of Flanders is still remembered by Flemish organizations during the yearly Yser pilgrimage and Wake of the Yser (the latter associated with Right wing extremists) in Diksmuide at the monument of The Yser tower.

Flemish feeling of identity and consciousness grew through the events and experiences of war. The German occupying authorities had taken several Flemish-friendly measures (see *Flamenpolitik*).

See also

- Rape of Belgium

Between the wars

After four years of occupation, Belgium emerged ruined at the end of World War I. The king returned from Yser, the sliver of territory he controlled throughout the war, leading the victorious army and acclaimed by the population. In contrast, the government and the exiles came back discreetly, and the absence of the dead was felt strongly. Many saw themselves as victims of the occupation and sought revenge. Waves of popular violence accompanied liberation in November and December 1918 and the government responded through the judiciary punishment of

collaboration with the enemy conducted between 1919 and 1921, mainly by military and civil tribunals. Shop windows were broken and houses sacked, men were harassed, and women's heads were shaved. Manufacturers who had closed their businesses sought the severe repression of those who had pursued their activities. Journalists who had boycotted and stopped writing called for harsh treatment of the newspapers that submitted to German censorship. Many people stigmatized profiteers and demanded justice. Thus in 1918, Belgium was already confronted with the problems associated with occupation that most European countries only discovered at the end of World War II.[25]

In 1919 under the Treaty of Versailles the area of Eupen-Malmedy, along with Prussian Moresnet, was transferred from Germany to Belgium. Neutral Moresnet was transferred to Belgium as well. An opportunity was given to the population to "protest" against the transfer by signing a register, which gathered few signatures. The Vennbahn railway was also transferred to Belgium. Two former German colonies, Rwanda and Burundi, were mandated to Belgium by the League of Nations.

The first postwar Olympic Games were held in Antwerp in 1920.

After a period of alliance with France, Belgium tried to return to neutrality in the 1930s but by September 1939 war broke out in Europe and Germany invaded the Low Countries within the year.

Development of fine arts

Flemish expressionism
: The expressionism painting movement found a distinctive form in Flanders (James Ensor, Constant Permeke, Léon Spilliaert).

Belgian surrealism
: The surrealism movement has major representatives in Belgium: Paul Delvaux, René Magritte.

The Franco-Belgian comics
: The Comic strip *The Adventures of Tintin*, one of the most popular 20th century European comics, was created in 1929 by Hergé. Major Belgian representatives of this popular art movement are Edgar P. Jacobs, Jijé, Willy Vandersteen and André Franquin. **See also:** Franco-Belgian comics magazines, Franco-Belgian publishing houses.

World War II

Period of the Phony War

As the German army invaded Poland on September 1, 1939, the Belgian government announced its neutrality on September 3. On November 7, the King of Belgium made a joint public appeal with the Queen of the Netherlands, calling on all belligerents to accept mediation to terminate the war.[26]

German invasion

Invasion of Belgium by Nazi Germany (see Battle of Belgium) started on May 10, 1940 under the operational plan *Fall Gelb* and formed part of the greater Battle of France together with invasions of the Netherlands and Luxembourg. The Belgians put up a short-lived resistance and it took 18 days only before the country was subdued. Diplomatic considerations had led them to make very limited preparations for invasion and the attack was immediately successful. On 17 May 1940 the capital city Brussels fell to the Germans. The Belgian king surrendered on May 28, contrary to the advice of the Belgian government, having decided the Allied cause was lost.[27] The King remained in Belgium during the war as a German prisoner while the government went into exile and continued military action in the Allied cause.[28]

Allied liberation

Belgium was liberated late in 1944 by Allied forces, including British, Canadian, and American armies, including a small Belgian national contingent. On 3 September 1944 the Welsh Guards liberated the Belgian capital city Brussels. The Second British Army seized Antwerp on 4 of September 1944, and the First Canadian Army began conducting combat operations around the port that same month. Antwerp became a highly prized and heavily fought-over objective due to its largely intact deep-water port facilities and that French ports remained in German hands or unusable until late in 1944. The Battle of the Scheldt in October 1944 was fought primarily on Dutch soil, but with the objective of opening the waterway to Antwerp. The port city was also the main objective of German armies in December; the inability of the Allies to end the war in 1944 meant that Allied troops had to winter in Belgium, during which time the Ardennes Offensive was launched by the Germans, resulting in heavy fighting on Belgian soil that lasted into 1945.

During the war, the largest known reserves of uranium were in the Katanga (a province of the Belgian Congo). The Belgian company Union Minière du Haut Katanga provided the United States with much of the uranium required by the Manhattan Project and the early cold war (see: history of nuclear weapons).

See also

- Battle of Belgium
- Fort Eben-Emael
- Belgian Resistance
- Free Belgian Forces
- Rexism
- 27th SS Volunteer Division Langemarck
- 28th SS Volunteer Grenadier Division Wallonien
- Algemeene-SS Vlaanderen
- DeVlag
- VNV
- Battle of the Scheldt
- Battle of the Bulge
- Malmedy massacre
- Belgian armoured fighting vehicles of World War II

After WWII

The royal question

Main articles: Leopold III of Belgium and General strike against Leopold III of Belgium

A dispute over King Leopold III's conduct during World War II caused civil uprisings, and eventually led to his abdication in 1951 following a state wide referendum. The dispute was caused by several facts:

- King Leopold did not want to leave the country at the time of the German invasion to maintain the independence and monarchy of Belgium.
- His contact with the Germans and his meeting with Hitler in Berchtesgaden (19 November 1940).
- His second marriage with Lilian Baels during the World War II

In Flanders they voted in favour of his return (Yes), in Wallonia against (No) (especially the provinces of Liège, Hainaut and the present-day Walloon Brabant; Namur and Luxembourg being split about 60 (Yes)/40 (No)), 58% of No in Wallonia, 70% of Yes in Flanders, 51% of No in Brussels. Although he narrowly won the referendum, the militant socialist movement in Liège, Hainaut and other urban centres incited major protests and strikes. On the other hand, during discussions inside the Liberal Party Jean Rey stated on 13 March 1950: if the Catholics considered important the majority in favour of Leopold III (57,68% in Belgium as a whole), the Walloons may also considered important their own opinion (i.e. In Wallonia only) against Leopold which had the same percentage. [29]

Because of the probability of the escalation of the conflict, Léopold III abdicated on July 16, 1951 in favour of his 20-year-old son Baudouin.

During Leopold's exile in Switzerland (1945–1950), Prince Charles of Belgium acted as the regent.

See also

- Prince Charles of Belgium
- Baudouin I of Belgium

Post-war economic growth

During the period 1945–1975, Keynesian economic theory guided politicians throughout Western Europe and this was particularly influential in Belgium. After the war, the government cancelled Belgium's debts. It was during this period that the well-known Belgian highways were built. At night, their streetlights make them easily seen from space.[*citation needed*] In addition, both the economy the average standard of living rose significantly. As noted by Robert Gildea,

"Social and economic policy was designed to restore liberal capitalism tempered by social reform, as prepared for during the war. Trade unions were also involved in a price and wage policy to cut inflation and this, together with the Allied use of Antwerp as the main entry point for war supplies, produced the so-called Belgian miracle of high economic growth combined with high wages."[30]

In this sphere of economics, World War II marks a turning point. Because Flanders had been widely devastated during the war and had been largely agricultural since the Belgian uprising, it benefited most from the Marshall Plan. Its standing as an economically backward agricultural region meant that it obtained support from Belgium's membership of the European Union and its predecessors. At the same time, Wallonia experienced a slow relative decline as the products of its mines came to be less in demand. The economic balance between the two parts of the country has remained less in favour of Wallonia than it was before 1939.

European and international integration

- Belgium has been one of the foremost advocates of collective security within the framework of the Atlantic partnership (NATO). Belgium has been a member of the NATO since April 4, 1949
- Belgium is part of the Benelux since 1944.
- Belgium is one of the founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community in July, 1952 and of the European Economic Community founded on March 25, 1957 by the signing of the Treaty of Rome.
- Belgium, as part of the UN, had an infantry batallion serving in the Korean War known as Belgian United Nations Command between 1950 and 1955.

See also

- Paul-Henri Spaak

The second school war (1950–1959)

After the elections of 1950, a Christian-democrat government led Belgium. The minister of education Pierre Harmel decided to increase the subsidies for the free secondary education and approved a number of laws on free education and subsidization for education.

After the elections of 1954: A socialistic and liberal government with a new minister of education Leo Collard . Leo Collard founded a large number of National School buildings and teachers had to possess a diploma so many priests without diploma were no longer eligible.

After the elections of 1958: the School Pact(1958) made by Gaston Eyskens ended the school war and led to peace between liberals and Catholics.

The Congo crisis (1960–1965)

Main article: Congo Crisis

The Congo became independent in 1960. In this crisis, Belgium played an ambiguous role which led to the murder of Patrice Lumumba and to the establishment of Zaire.

The General strike of 1960-1961

In December 1960, a strike gripped the country, but it succeeded only in Wallonia. The movement became the 1960-1961 Winter General Strike a renardist strike. Renée C.Fox explained the affair in a few words:

> At the beginning of the 1960s (...), a major reversal in the relationship between Flanders and Wallony was taking place. Flanders had entered a vigorous, post–World War II period of industialization, and a significant percentage of the foreign capital (particularly from the United States), coming into Belgium to support new industries was being invested in Flanders. In contrast, Wallony's coal mines and time-worn steel plants and factories were in crisis. The region had lost thousands of jobs and much investment capital. A new Dutch-speaking, upwardly mobile "populist bourgeoisie" was not only becoming visible and vocal in Flemish movements but also in both the local and national policy [The strike of December 1960 against the austerity law of Gaston Eyskens] was replaced by a collective expression of the frustrations, anxieties, and grievances that Wallony was experiencing in response to its altered situation, and by the demands of the newly formed Mouvement populaire wallon for (...) regional autonomy for Wallony....[31]

The tragedy of Zwartberg

On Monday, January 31, 1966, a group of about 500 angry coal miners from the mine of Zwartberg headed towards the mine of Waterschei to convince their colleagues to join the strike in protest of the announced closure of Zwartberg. At the entrance of the Waterschei mine, a small group of gendarmes awaited them, who were cornered by the protesters. When a lorry carrying a load of mining wood passed by, the miners forced the driver to drop his load. When the miners threw wood and other objects at the gendarmes, the officer in charge ordered his men to fire into the air during a first charge. When the miners threatened the gendarmes again, the gendarmes fired at the protesters, mortally wounding Jan Latos and injuring his colleague Theo Van Hecke. Later that day, Valère Sclep died after being hit on the head by a tear gas grenade.

The news of the tragedy travelled around the world and the government decided to withdraw the gendarmes and leave the maintenance of public order to Para-Commandos. The riots continued until the unions and the management reached an agreement on February 3 of the same year.

The linguistic "wars"

Main article: Flemish movement

This Flemish resurgence has been accompanied by a corresponding shift of political power to the Flemish, who always constituted the majority of the population (around 60%). Only in 1967 was an official Dutch version of the Constitution accepted.[32]

The linguistic wars attained their climax around 1968 with the splitting of the Catholic University of Leuven into the Katholieke Universiteit Leuven and the Université Catholique de Louvain. The government of Prime Minister Paul Vanden Boeynants fell over the issue in 1968.

The rise of the federal state

Main article: State reform in Belgium

The successive linguistic wars have made the successive Belgian governments very unstable. The three major parties (Liberal -right wing-, Catholic -center- and, Socialist -left wing-) all split in two according to their French- or Dutch-speaking electorate. A language border was determined by the first Gilson Act of November 8, 1962. The boundaries of certain provinces, arrondissements and municipalities were modified (among others, Mouscron became a part of Hainaut and Voeren became a part of Limburg) and facilities for linguistic minorities were introduced in 25 municipalities. On August 2, 1963, the second Gilson Act entered into force, fixing the division of Belgium into four language areas: a Dutch, a French and a German language area, and Brussels as a bilingual area with both French and Dutch as its official languages.

In 1970, there was a first state reform,[33] which resulted in the establishment of three cultural communities: the Dutch Cultural Community, the French Cultural Community and the German Cultural Community. This reform was a response to the Flemish demand for cultural autonomy. The constitutional revision of 1970 also laid the foundations for the establishment of three Regions, which was a response to the demand of the Walloons and the French-speaking inhabitants of Brussels for economic autonomy. On February 18, 1970, Prime Minister Gaston Eyskens announces the end of "La Belgique de papa".

The second state reform took place in 1980, when the cultural communities became Communities. The Communities assumed the competencies of the cultural communities with regard to cultural matters, and became responsible for the 'matters relating to the person', such as health and youth policy. From then on, these three Communities were known as the Flemish Community, the French Community and the German-speaking Community. Two Regions were established as well in 1980: the Flemish Region and the Walloon Region. However, in Flanders it was decided in 1980 to immediately merge the institutions of the Community and the Region. Although the creation of a Brussels Region was provided for in 1970, the Brussels-Capital Region was not established until the third state reform.

During the third state reform in 1988 and 1989,[34] under Prime Minister Wilfried Martens, the Brussels-Capital Region was established with its own regional institutions, as well as Dutch and French institutions for community matters. The Brussels-Capital Region remained limited to 19 municipalities. Other changes included that the competencies of the Communities and Regions were expanded. One notable responsibility that was transferred to the Communities during the third state reform was education.

The fourth state reform, which took place in 1993 under Prime Minister Jean-Luc Dehaene, consolidated the previous state reforms and turned Belgium into a fully-fledged federal state. The first article of the Belgian Constitution was amended to read as follows, “Belgium is a Federal State which consists of Communities and Regions”. During the fourth state reform, the responsibilities of the Communities and the Regions were expanded again, their resources were increased and they were given more fiscal responsibilities. Other major changes included the direct election of the parliaments of the Communities and the Regions, the splitting up of the Province of Brabant into Flemish Brabant and Walloon Brabant, and the reformation of the Federal Parliament's bicameral system and the relations between the Federal Parliament and the Federal Government.[35] The first direct elections for the parliaments of the Communities and the Regions took place on May 21, 1995.

However, the fourth state reform was not the end of the process of federalization. In 2001, a fifth state reform took place,[36] under Prime Minister Guy Verhofstadt, with the Lambermont and the Lombard Accords. During the fifth state reform, more powers were transferred to the Communities and the Regions, with regard to agriculture, fisheries, foreign trade, development cooperation, auditing of electoral expenses and the supplementary financing of the political parties. The Regions became responsible for twelve regional taxes, and local and provincial government became a matter for the Regions. The first municipal and provincial elections under the supervision of the Regions were the 2006 municipal elections. The functioning of the Brussels institutions was also amended during the fifth state reform, which resulted among other things in a guaranteed representation of the Flemish inhabitants of Brussels in the Parliament of the Brussels-Capital Region.

The fifth state reform is the last state reform to date. However, several Flemish political parties want a sixth state reform following the 2007 general election, while the vast majority of Walloon politicians oppose this. Major issues that a sixth state reform would have to deal with include, among others, Brussels-Halle-Vilvoorde. After the 2007 elections nine months of extremely troublesome negotiations between Flemish and Walloon parties followed, resulting in the formation of the first Leterme cabinet on March 20, 2008. Decisions on further state reforms were delayed and remained a matter of considerable debate.

See also

- Politics of Belgium
- Politics of Flanders
- Politics of Wallonia
- List of governments in Belgium
- Flemish Community Commission

- French Community Commission
- History of Wallonia

The fall of the Belgian economic miracle

Belgium created huge debts during times when rates were low and generated new debts to service the initial debt. Its debts amounted to about 130% of the GDP in 1992 and were reduced to about 99% in 2001 when Belgium entered the Eurozone. This drastic economic policy resulted in deep budget spending cuts, such as significant cuts to scientific research.

See also

- Jean-Luc Dehaene
- Philippe Maystadt

The Marc Dutroux Scandal

Main article: Marc Dutroux

In 1996, Belgium's political and criminal justice systems were shaken when Marc Dutroux was arrested and charged with several counts of murder and kidnapping. Many felt that local law enforcement had not acted competently enough to observe and eventually arrest Dutroux and his accomplices before they kidnapped at least six girls (Julie LeJeune & Melissa Russo, An Marchal & Eefje Lambrecks, Sabine Dardenne & Laetitia Delhez) of which they murdered four (Sabine & Laetitia being rescued just in time) and most probably some gang members. Dutroux went on trial in March 2004 and got a life sentence in prison.

Subsequent parliamentary inquiries indeed proved that the three main police forces were horribly incompetent, bureaucratic, with considerable degree of infighting. On top of that, the judicial system appeared to suffer from similar problems: bureaucracy, very poor communication with, and support for, the victims, slow procedures and many loopholes for criminals.

Following the scandal, on October 26, 1996, about 300,000 Belgians marched in Brussels to protest at the failures of the police force and judicial system in this affair. It was one of the largest demonstrations in Belgium's history and was called the "White March" (French: "*Marche Blanche*", Dutch: "*Witte Mars*").

The rise of the Green parties

The three-party (i.e. six plus some purely Flemish and Walloon parties) political systems got disturbed by the Green parties (the Dutch-speaking Agalev, now Groen!, and the French-speaking Ecolo) in the 1980s which took a lot of influence after the Marc Dutroux Scandal and the "dioxin affair", a food scandal (chickens containing dioxin levels far above the maximum allowed) which would not have had any major repercussions, had it not erupted just days before the elections.

See also

- Political parties in Belgium

1999–present

In the 1999 Belgian general election, the government parties suffered an historical defeat due to the so-called "dioxin affair" and Jean-Luc Dehaene's reign of eight years ended. Guy Verhofstadt formed a government of Liberals, Socialists and Greens. For the first time in since 1958, Belgium had a government that did not include the Christian People's Party (*Christelijke Volkspartij*).

During the Kosovo crisis of 1999, 600 Belgian paratroopers participated in Operation Allied Harbour, a NATO operation to protect and provide assistance to the huge number of ethnic Albanian refugees in Albania and Macedonia. That same year, 1100 Belgian soldiers left for Kosovo to participate in the Kosovo Force (KFOR), a NATO-led peacekeeping force for Kosovo. In December 1999, the Belgian Federal Government announced that it would again pursue an active foreign policy, particularly in Central Africa where among others Belgium's former colony, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, is situated. As soon as there would be peace in the region, Belgium would support the reconstruction.

In July 1999, Belgium's nuclear phase-out legislation was decided by the Flemish Liberals and Democrats-led Government including the Belgian Green party, Groen!. The phase-out law calls for each of Belgium's seven reactors to close after 40 years of operation with no new reactors built subsequently. When the law was being passed, it was speculated it would be overturned again as soon as an administration without the Greens was in power.[37] After a new government was elected in 2003 without the Greens, there is still no indication the current Government will revoke the phase-out law[38] after the incident at Tihange on November 22, 2002 turned public opinion against nuclear power.[39] Christian-Democratic and Flemish in 2006 proposed reconsidering the planned phase-out and stated that it intends to bring the nuclear phase-out up again during the negotiations for forming the next government following next year's election.[40] On December 2, 2006, the Humanist Democratic Centre proposed adopting a new timetable for the phase-out.[41]

On January 1, 1999, the euro was introduced and the Belgian franc ceased to exist independently, when it became fixed at one EUR=40.3399 BEF. New notes and coins were introduced on January 1, 2002. Old coins and notes lost their legal tender status on February 28, 2002.

Belgium pursued a policy of strong anti-Iraq-war diplomacy during the Iraq crisis of 2003, and formally and officially opposed the Iraq War. The stance of Prime Minister Guy Verhofstadt was that Saddam Hussein had to leave and Iraq had to disarm, but that a solution had to be found by diplomatic means, and that military action could only be considered if that failed and only after approval by the United Nations.[42]

On January 30, 2003, Belgium became the second country in the world to legally recognize same-sex marriage. However, this law did not permit adoption by same-sex partners; and as birth within a same-sex marriage did not imply affiliation, the same-sex spouse of the biological parent had no way to become the legal parent. On December 1, 2005, a controversial proposal of the Different Socialist Party (SP.A) to permit adoption was approved by the Belgian Chamber of Representatives, thereby enabling legal co-parenting by same-sex couples.

In the 2011, the Belgian Air Force deployed six F-16 fighter jets in support of the NATO intervention in Libya in accordance with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1973.

See also

- History of Europe
- History of European Union
- History of Flanders
- History of France
- History of Germany
- History of Luxembourg
- History of Netherlands
- History of Wallonia
- List of Belgian monarchs
- List of Neanderthal sites
- List of Prime Ministers of Belgium
- Politics of Belgium

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Monarchy of Belgium

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Monarchy in Belgium is constitutional and popular in nature. The hereditary monarch, at present Albert II, is the head of state and is officially called **King of the Belgians** (Dutch: *Koning der Belgen*, French: *Roi des Belges*, German: *König der Belgier*).

King of the Belgians

MONARCHY
FEDERAL



Coat of Arms of Belgium



Incumbent:
Albert II

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Prince Philippe, Duke of Brabant
First monarch:	Leopold I of Belgium
Formation:	21 July 1831

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Origins

When Belgium became independent in 1830 the National Congress chose a constitutional monarchy as the form of government. The Congress voted on the question on 22 November 1830, supporting monarchy by 174 votes to 13. In February 1831, the Congress nominated Louis, Duke of Nemours, the son of the French king Louis-Philippe, but international considerations deterred Louis-Philippe from accepting the honour for his son.

Following this refusal, the National Congress appointed Erasme-Louis, Baron Surlet de Chokier to be the Regent of Belgium on 25 February 1831, thus becoming the first head of state of independent Belgium. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha was designated as King of the Belgians by the National Congress [1] and swore allegiance to the Belgian constitution in front of Sint Jacobs Church at Coudenberg Palace in Brussels on 21 July. This day has since become a national holiday for Belgium and its citizens.

A hereditary and constitutional system

As a hereditary constitutional monarchy system, the role and operation of Belgium's monarchy is governed by the Constitution. The royal office of King is designated solely for a descendent of the first King of the Belgians, Leopold I.

Since he is bound by the Constitution [2](above all other ideological and religious considerations, political opinions and debates and economic interests) the King acts as an arbiter and guardian of Belgium's unity and independence. Belgium's monarchs are inaugurated without the blessing of the Catholic Church in a purely civil swearing-in ceremony. These words

(*above all other ideological and religious considerations, political opinions and debates and economic interests*) are not written in the Belgian constitution: nevertheless, they conform with the spirit of this Constitution. There have been occurrences, however, of Belgian monarchs not always respecting this spirit.

A constitutional monarchy from the beginning

The Kingdom of Belgium was never an absolute monarchy. Nevertheless, in 1961, the historian Ramon Arango, wrote that the Belgian monarchy is not *truly constitutional*.[3]

Leopold I, Leopold II, Albert I

Leopold I of Belgium was head of Foreign Affairs *as an ancien régime monarch*, the foreign ministers having the authority to do so only as ministers of the king.[4] Leopold I quickly became one of the most important shareholders of the Société Générale de Belgique [5] In many circumstances Leopold's son, Leopold II of Belgium, publicly expressed opinion against that of the Government (on 15 August 1887, against Prime Minister Auguste Marie François Beernaert), or some MP's (again against Beernaert in 1905).[6] For Yvon Gouet this behavior was not in compliance with the parliamentary system.[7] Also, at the start of World War I, Albert I of Belgium stated he was in command of the Belgian army contrary to his Prime Minister Charles de Broqueville and, according to Raymond Fusilier, also against the Belgian Constitution [8] Luc Schepens wrote similar opinions:*"The two main casualties of World War I are the Constitution and the parliamentary regime. The king had a role out of proportion with the spirit of the Constitution"*.[9] For instance, on 17 May 1926, in a public letter, Albert stated he had faith in the Henri Jaspar government, before the Parliament passed a vote of confidence in this government.[10]

Leopold III, Baudouin I

Louis Wodon (the chef de cabinet of Leopold III from 1934 to 1940), thought the King's oath to the Constitution implied a royal position *over and above the Constitution*. He compared the King to a father, the head of a family [11] According to Arango, Leopold III of Belgium shared these views about the Belgian monarchy. In 1991, towards the end of the reign of Baudouin I, Senator Yves de Wasseige, a former member of the Belgian Constitutional Court, cited four points of democracy which the Belgian Constitution lacks: 1. the King chooses the ministers, 2. the King is able to influence the ministers when he speaks with them about bills, projects and nominations, 3. the King promulgates bills, and, 4. the King must agree to any change of the Constitution[12]

Constitutional, political and historical consequences

The Belgian monarchy was immediately a constitutional monarchy, patterned after that of the United Kingdom.[13][14] *"It should be observed that all monarchies have suffered periods of change as a result of which the power of the sovereign was reduced, but for the most part those periods occurred before the development of the system of constitutionnal monarchy and were steps leading to its establishment."*.[15] The characteristic evidence of this is in Great Britain where there was an evolution from the time when kings ruled through the agency of ministers to that time when ministers began to govern through the instrumentality of the Crown.

Unlike the British constitutional system, in Belgium *the monarchy underwent a belated evolution* which came *after* [16] *the establishment of the constitutional monarchical system* [17] because, in 1830-1831, an independent state, parliamentary system and monarchy were established simultaneously. Hans Daalder, Professor of political science at the Rijksuniversiteit Leiden wrote: *"Did such simultaneous developments not result in a possible failure to lay down the limits of the royal prerogatives with some precision - which implied that the view of the King as the Keeper of the Nation, with rights and duties of its own, retained legitimacy?"* [18]

For Raymond Fusilier, the Belgian monarchy had to be placed - at least in the beginning - between the regimes where the king rules and the regime when the king does not rule but only reigns. The Belgian monarchy is closer to the principle *the King does not rule* [19] But the Belgian kings were not only *at the head of the dignified part of the Constitution*.[20] The Belgian monarchy is not merely symbolic, because it rules as far as the King agrees with his ministers.[21] For Francis

Delpérée, to reign does not only mean to preside over ceremonies but also to take a part in the running of the State.[22] The Belgian historian Jean Stengers wrote that some foreigners believe the monarchy is indispensable to national unity. The King is but a piece over the political scene (in French literally translated: *on the chessboard*), but a piece which matters.[23]

The monarch is the result not the cause of homogeneity and consensus

Author Ramon Arango thought that the Belgian monarchy is not *truly constitutional* or is perhaps a constitutional monarchy but *whose sovereign is granted power disproportionate to that of a constitutional monarch in order that he accomplish an authoritative function, the maintenance of national unity* [24] mainly above the provincial conflicts of Wallonia and Flanders but also above other conflicts. Arango concluded by saying about the General strike against Leopold III of Belgium: *Why had the major antagonists reached such an impasse by midsummer of 1950? A modern constitutional monarch is the embodiment of historical unity and national self-identification, but he functions successfully in this capacity only if there already exists a tradition common to each of his subjects and if the people, of which he is the reflection, are whole and able to be mirrored in a single, undistorted image. The monarch, in other words, is the result, not the cause of homogeneity and consensus. The question of consensus is at the center of the royal question. For the average Belgian, the affair focused all the other issues over which there was a lack of harmony in Belgian society – the ethnic, linguistic, religious, and economic problems...* [25]

Arango is of the opinion that the inhabitants of Belgium do not share a common tradition but that throughout the centuries the Flemish and Walloons maintained separate identities. He wrote that, at the time of the Belgian revolution of 1830, they were still separate, living in separate territories from the beginning, "and even to the present".[26]

List of Kings of the Belgians



Royal Standard of King Albert II

Main article: List of Belgian monarchs

To date all have belonged to the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha

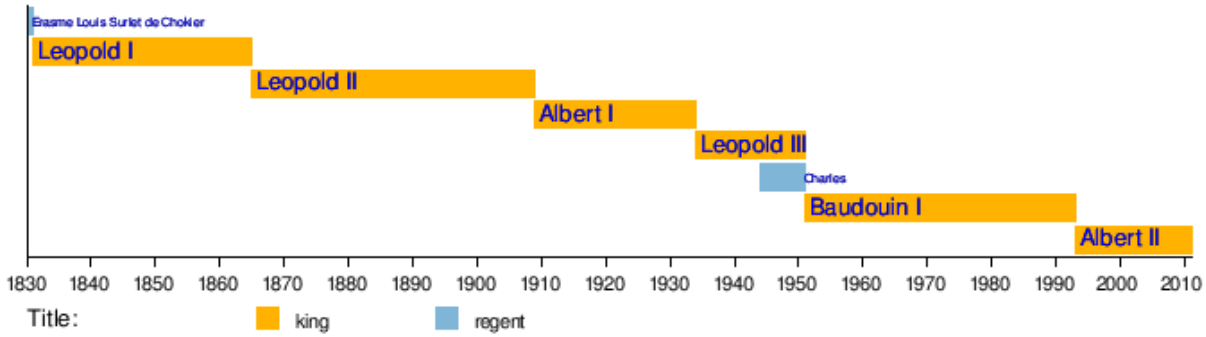
Title

The proper title of the Belgian monarch is **King of the Belgians** rather than "King of Belgium". The title "King of the Belgians" indicates a popular monarchy linked to the people of Belgium (i.e., a living and hereditary Head of State; yet ratified by popular will), whereas the former would indicate standard constitutional or absolute monarchy linked to territory or state. For example, in 1830, King Louis Philippe was proclaimed "King of the French" rather than "King of France". The Greek monarch was titled "King of the Hellenes", indicating a personal link with the people, not just the state. Moreover, the Latin translation of "King of Belgium" would have been *Rex Belgii*, which from 1815 was the name for the *King of the Netherlands*. Therefore, the Belgian separatists chose **Rex Belgarum**.

Belgium is the only current European monarchy that does not apply the tradition of the new monarch automatically ascending the throne upon the death or abdication of the former monarch. According to the Belgian constitution, the monarch accedes to the throne only upon taking a constitutional oath. The present king did not become monarch on 31 July 1993 (the day his brother died) but on 9 August 1993 when he took the constitutional oath.[*citation needed*] In all other European monarchies, the monarch assumes the title the moment the predecessor dies or abdicates. The Belgian constitutional oath is as follows: *"I swear to observe the Constitution and the laws of the Belgian people, to maintain the national independence and the integrity of the territory."*, which is taken in the three official languages: French, Dutch and German.

Members of the Belgian Royal Family are often known by two names: a Dutch and a French one. For example, the current heir-apparent is called 'Philippe' in French and 'Filip' in Dutch; the fifth King of the Belgians was 'Baudouin' in French and 'Boudewijn' in Dutch.

In the other official language of German monarchs are usually referred to by their French names. The same is true for English (with the exception of Leopold, where the accent is removed for the purpose of simplicity).



Constitutional role


Busts of the previous Kings of the Belgians

The Belgian monarchy symbolises and maintains a feeling of national unity by representing the country in public functions and international meetings.

In addition, the monarch has a number of responsibilities in the process of the formation of the Government. The procedure usually begins with the nomination of the "Informateur" by the monarch. After the general election the Informateur officially informs the monarch of the main political formations which may be available for governance. After this phase, the monarch can appoint another "informateur" or appoint a "Formateur", who will have the charge of forming a new government, of which he/she generally becomes the Prime Minister.

The Constitution of Belgium entrusts the monarch with federal executive powers: the appointment and dismissal of ministers, the implementation of the laws passed by the Federal Parliament, the submission of bills to the Federal Parliament and the management of international relations. The monarch sanctions and promulgates all laws passed by Parliament. In accordance with Article 106 of the Belgian Constitution, the monarch cannot act without the countersignature of the responsible minister, who in doing so assumes political responsibility. This means that federal executive power is exercised in practice by the Federal Government, which is accountable to the Chamber of Representatives in accordance with Article 101 of the Constitution.

The monarch receives the prime minister at the Palace of Brussels at least once a week, and also regularly calls other members of the government to the palace in order to discuss political matters. During these meetings, the monarch has the right to be informed of proposed governmental policies, the right to advise, and the right to warn on any matter as the monarch sees fit. The monarch also holds meetings with the leaders of all the major political parties and regular members of parliament. All of these meetings are organised by the monarch's personal political cabinet which is part of the Royal Household.

The monarch is the Commander-in-Chief of the Belgian Armed Forces and makes appointments to the higher positions. The names of the nominees are sent to the monarch by the Ministry of Defence. The monarch's military duties are carried out with the help of the Military Household which is headed by a General office. Belgians may write to the monarch when they meet difficulties with administrative powers.

The monarch is also one of the three components of the federal legislative power, in accordance with the Belgian Constitution, together with the two chambers of the Federal Parliament: the Chamber of Representatives and the Senate. All laws passed by the Federal Parliament must be signed and promulgated by the monarch.

Inviolability

Article 88 of the Belgian Constitution provides that "the King's person is inviolable, his ministers are responsible". This means that the King cannot be prosecuted, arrested or convicted of crimes, cannot be summoned to appear before a civil court and



Basilica of the Sacred Heart, Brussels is the National Basilica of Belgium.

is not accountable to the Federal Parliament. This inviolability was deemed incompatible with Article 27 of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court which states that official capacity shall not exempt a person from criminal responsibility under the statute.[27]

Royal Household

The King's Household (Dutch: *Het Huis van de Koning*, French: *La Maison du Roi*, German: *Das Haus des Königs*) was reorganised in 2006, and consists of seven autonomous departments and the Court's Steering Committee. Each Head of Department is responsible for his department and is accountable to the King.

The following departments currently make up the King's Household:

- the Department for Economic, Social and Cultural Affairs
- the King's Cabinet
- the King's Military Household
- the King's Civil List
- the Department for Foreign Relations
- the Department of the Protocol of the Court
- the Department of Petitions

The King's Chief of Cabinet is responsible for dealing with political and administrative matters and for maintaining the relations with the government, trade unions and industrial circles. In relation to the King, the Chief assists in keeping track of current events; informs regarding all aspects of Belgian life; proposes and prepares audiences; assists in preparing speeches and informs the King about developments in international affairs. The Chief of Cabinet is assisted by the Deputy and Legal Adviser, the Press Adviser and the Archivist. The incumbent Chief of Cabinet is Jacques van Ypersele de Strihou, who is reportedly sometimes referred to as viceroy, Richelieu or Rasputin.[28]

The Head of the King's Military Household assists the King in fulfilling his duties in the field of defence. He informs the King about all matters of security, defence policy, the views of Belgium's main partner countries and all aspects of the Belgian Armed Forces. He organises the King's contacts with the Armed Forces, advises in the fields of scientific research and police and coordinates matters with patriotic associations and former service personnel. The Military Household is also responsible for managing the Palace's computer system. The Head of the Military Household is a General Officer, currently General Jef Van den put and assisted by an adviser, currently Lieutenant-Colonel Aviator Serge Vassart. The King's Aides-de-Camp and the King's Equerries are also attached to the Military Household.

The King's Aides-de-Camp are senior officers chosen by the monarch and charged with carrying out certain tasks on his behalf, such as representing him at events. The King's Equerries are young officers who take turns prepareing the King's activities, informing him about all the aspects that may be important to him and providing any other useful services such as announcing visitors. The Equerry accompanies the King on his trips except for those of a strictly private nature.

The Intendant of the King's Civil List is responsible for managing the material, financial and human resources of the King's Household. He is assisted by the Commandant of the Royal Palaces, the Treasurer of the King's Civil List and the Civil List Adviser. The Intendant of the Civil List also advises the King in the field of energy, sciences and culture and administers the King's hunting rights. The Commandant of the Royal Palaces is mainly in charge, in close cooperation with the Chief of Protocol, of the logistic support of activities and the maintenance and cleaning of the Palaces, Castles and Residences. He is also Director of the Royal Hunts.

The Chief of Protocol is charged with organising the public engagements of the King and the Queen, such as audiences, receptions and official banquets at the Palace, as well as formal activities outside of the Palace. He is assisted by the Queen's Secretary, who is mainly responsible for proposing and preparing the Queen's audiences and visits.

The Head of the Department for Economic, Social and Cultural Affairs advises the King in the economic, social and cultural fields. He is also responsible for providing coordination between the various Households and Services and for organising and minuting the meetings of the Steering Committee. The Head of the Department for Foreign Relations informs the King of

developments in international policy, assists the King from a diplomatic viewpoint on royal visits abroad and prepares the King's audiences in the international field. He is also responsible for maintaining contacts with foreign diplomatic missions. The Head of the Department of Petitions is charged with processing petitions and requests for social aid addressed the King, the Queen or other members of the Royal Family. He is also responsible for the analysis and coordination of royal favours and activities relating to jubilees, and advises the King in the fields for which he is responsible.

For the personal protection of the King and the Royal Family, as well as for the surveillance of the royal estates, the Belgian Federal Police at all times provides a Security Detail to the Royal Palace, commanded by a Chief Police Commissioner.

There are currently two other Households at the Belgian Court: the Household of Her Majesty Queen Fabiola and the Household of Their Royal Highnesses the Duke and Duchess of Brabant. The other members of the Royal Family have a Service at their disposal.

Members of the Belgian Royal Family

Members of the Royal Family hold the title Prince (Princess) of Belgium with the style of Royal Highness. Prior to World War I they used the additional titles Prince (Princess) of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha and Duke (Duchess) of Saxony as members of the House of Wettin. The children and husband of Princess Astrid would not be entitled to these titles as they belong to a different agnatic line, the House of Habsburg-Lorraine-Este.

- Prince Philippe, Duke of Brabant (born 15 April 1960). He married, on 4 December 1999, Jonkvrouwe Mathilde d'Udekem d'Acoz, who was created HRH Princess Mathilde of Belgium a day before their marriage. She is a daughter of the late Count Patrick d'Udekem d'Acoz and his wife, Countess Anna Maria Komorowska. They have four children:
  - Princess Elisabeth of Belgium, who will inherit the throne after her father, due to a 1991 act of succession which created full cognatic primogeniture, altering the order of succession from eldest son to eldest child.
  - Prince Gabriel of Belgium
  - Prince Emmanuel of Belgium
  - Princess Eléonore of Belgium.
- Princess Astrid of Belgium (born 5 June 1962). She is the wife of His Imperial and Royal Highness Archduke Lorenz of Austria-Este, Archduke of Austria, Duke of Modena, Prince Royal of Hungary and Bohemia, whom she married on 22 September 1984 and who was created a Prince of Belgium in 1995. Princess Astrid, with her own descendants, is before her brother Laurent in the order of succession to the Belgian throne, due to the 1991 act of succession mentioned above. They have five children:
  - Prince Amedeo of Belgium, Archduke of Austria-Este
  - Princess Maria Laura of Belgium, Archduchess of Austria-Este
  - Prince Joachim of Belgium, Archduke of Austria-Este
  - Princess Luisa Maria of Belgium, Archduchess of Austria-Este
  - Princess Laetitia Maria of Belgium, Archduchess of Austria-Este
- Prince Laurent of Belgium (born 19 October 1963). He married Claire Coombs, an Anglo-Belgian former land surveyor, on 12 April 2003. She was created HRH Princess Claire of Belgium 11 days before their marriage. They have one daughter and two sons:
  - Princess Louise of Belgium
  - Prince Nicolas of Belgium
  - Prince Aymeric of Belgium

Belgian Royal Family



HM The King
HM The Queen

- HRH The Duke of Brabant
  HRH The Duchess of Brabant
  - HRH Princess Elisabeth
  - HRH Prince Gabriel
  - HRH Prince Emmanuel
  - HRH Princess Eléonore
- HI&RH The Archduchess of Austria-Este
  HI&RH The Archduke of Austria-Este
  - HI&RH Prince Amedeo
  - HI&RH Princess Maria Laura
  - HI&RH Prince Joachim
  - HI&RH Princess Luisa Maria
  - HI&RH Princess Laetitia Maria
- HRH Prince Laurent
  HRH Princess Claire
  - HRH Princess Louise
  - HRH Prince Nicolas
  - HRH Prince Aymeric

HM Queen Fabiola

Extended royal family

HRH Princess Léa
HRH Princess Marie-Christine
HRH Princess Marie-Esméralda

Queens consort

- Queen Louise — Louise d'Orléans (second wife of King Leopold I, whose first wife Princess Charlotte of Wales had died before he came to the throne. Subsequently, Leopold's only daughter, Carlota of Mexico, was named after her.)
- Queen Marie Henriette — Marie Henriette of Austria (wife of King Leopold II)
- Queen Elisabeth — Elisabeth of Bavaria) (wife of Albert I)
- Queen Astrid — Astrid of Sweden (wife of King Leopold III)
- Princess Lilian — Mary Lilian Baels (as Princess de Réthy second wife of King Leopold III)
- Queen Fabiola — Fabiola de Mora y Aragón (wife of King Baudouin)
- Queen Paola — Paola Ruffo di Calabria (wife of King Albert II)

See also

- List of Belgian monarchs
- Line of succession to the Belgian throne
- Crown Council of Belgium

References

1. ^ http://www.monarchie.be/history
2. ^ http://www.dekamer.be/kvvcr/pdf_sections/publications/constitution/grondwetEN.pdf
3. ^ Ramon Arango, *Leopold III and the Belgian Royal Question*, The John Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1961, p.9.
4. ^ French : *dirigeant personnellement les Affaires étrangères, comme un souverain d'Ancien Régime, en discutant toutes les questions importantes avec ses ministres, ceux-ci n'ayant d'autorité que pour autant qu'ils étaient ministres du roi...* Frans Van Kalken, in *La Belgique contemporaine*, Paris, Armand Colin, 1950, p. 43.
5. ^ Pierre Lebrun P.Lebrun, *Essai sur la révolution industrielle en Belgique*, 1770-1847, Palais des Académies, Bruxelles, 2e édition, 1981.
6. ^ Raymond Fusilier, *Les monarchies parlementaires en Europe* Editions ouvrières, Paris, 1960, p. 399.
7. ^ Yvon Gouet, *De l'unité du cabinet parlementaire*, Dalloz, 1930, p. 232, quoted by Raymond Fusilier, p. 400.
8. ^ Raymond Fusilier, *Les monarchies parlementaires en Europe*, p. 424.
9. ^ French *Les deux grandes victimes de la guerre 14-18 en Belgique semblent être la Constitution et la démocratie parlementaire. Et cela n'alla pas sans conséquences. Pendant la suite du règne d'Albert Ier, et également sous celui de Léopold III, le roi a exercé au sein du pouvoir exécutif un rôle hors de proportion avec ce qui avait été de coutume avant la Première Guerre mondiale (...) Ce n'est qu'après que cette situation s'est normalisée.* in *Albert I et le Gouvernement Broquville*, Duculot, Gembloux, 1988, p. 230. ISBN 2-8011-0464-7
10. ^ The king wrote : *Pour vaincre les périls actuels, il faut faire trêve à tous dissentiments* in Emmanuel Gérard, *La démocratie rêvée, bridée et bafouée*, 1918-1939, Editions Complexe, p. 109. ISBN 2-8048-0083-0
11. ^ *Regarding the moral mission of the king it is permissible to point to a certain analogy between his role and that of a father, or more generally, of parents in a family. The family is, of course, a legal institution as is the state. But what would a family be where everything was limited among those who compose it to simply legal relationships? In a family when one considers only legal relationships one comes very close to a breakdown in the moral ties founded on reciprocal affection without which a family would be like any other fragile association* quoted by Arango, *Leopold III and the Belgian Royal Question*, p. 31.
12. ^ Yves de Wasseige, *Le roi, la loi la liberté: inconciliables en démocratie?* in *Les faces cachées de la monarchie belge*, TOUDI (n° 5/Contradictions (n° 65/66), 1991, ISBN 2-87090-010-4
13. ^ Ramon Arango, *Leopold III and the Belgian Royal Question*, p.9.
14. ^ Raymond Fusilier in *Les monarchies parlementaires en Europe*, Editions ouvrières, Paris, 1960, p. 350, wrote the Belgian regime of 1830 was also inspired by the French Constitution of the Kingdom of France (1791-1792), the United States Declaration of Independence of 1776 and the old political traditions of both Walloon and Flemish provinces.
15. ^ Ramon Arango, p. 9.
16. ^ Underlined by Arango.
17. ^ R.Arango, p. 12.
18. ^ Hans Daalder, *The monarchy in a parliamentary system*, in *Res Publica*, Tijdschrift voor Politologie, Revue de Science Politique, Belgian Journal of Political Science, nummer 1, 1991, pp. 70-81, p. 74.
19. '^ ***Raymond Fusilier,*** *Les monarchies parlementaires - étude sur les systèmes de gouvernement en Suède, Norvège, Luxembourg, Belgique, Pays-bas, Danemark*, Editions ouvrières, Paris, 1960, pp. 419-420.
20. ^ Bagehot, *The English Constitution* (http://www.gutenberg.org/files/4351/4351-h/4351-h.htm)
21. ^ R.Fusilier, pp. 419-420. French *Elle n'est pas purement symbolique, car elle participe à la direction des affaires de l'Etat dans la mesure où sa volonté coïncide avec la volonté des ministres, lesquels seuls assument la responsabilité de la politique du*

Albert II of Belgium

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Albert II (born 6 June 1934) is the King of the Belgians, a constitutional monarch. He is a member of the royal house "of Belgium"; formerly this house was named Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He is the uncle of the current reigning Grand Duke of Luxembourg, Henri.

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Albert II



King of the Belgians

Reign	9 August 1993 – present
Predecessor	Baudouin
Heir apparent	Philippe, Duke of Brabant
Prime Ministers	*See list*
Spouse	Princess Paola Ruffo di Calabria (1959–present)
Issue	***Detail***
	Prince Philippe, Duke of Brabant
	Princess Astrid, Archduchess of Austria-Este
	Prince Laurent
House	House of Belgium (Saxe-Coburg-Gotha)
Father	Leopold III of Belgium
Mother	Astrid of Sweden
Born	6 June 1934 Stuyvenberg Castle, Belgium
Signature	
Religion	Roman Catholicism

Full name

Albert's full name is *Albert Félix Humbert Théodore Christian Eugène Marie* in French (pronounced: [albɛʁ feliks œbɛʁ teodɔʁ kʁistjɑ̃ øʒɛn maʁi]), *Albert Felix Humbert Theodoor Christiaan Eugène Marie* in Dutch (pronounced ['ʔɑlbərt 'felɪks 'ɦʏmbərt te'jodoːr 'krɪstiːjaːn ʔøː'ʒɛːn mą'riː]), and *Albert Felix Humbert Theodor Christian Eugen Maria* in German (pronounced ['ʔalbɛʁt 'feːlɪks 'hʊmbɛʁt 'teːodoːɐ̯ 'kʁɪsʦ̍ian 'ʔɔʏgən ma'ʁiːa]).[1]

Birth

He is the second son of King Leopold III (1901–1983) and his first wife, Astrid of Sweden (1905–1935). He ascended to the throne in 1993, following the death of his older brother, King Baudouin. His godparents were Prince Felix of Luxembourg and his paternal grandmother, Queen Elisabeth of Belgium.[1] He is the first cousin of King Harald V of Norway, Princess Astrid of Norway, and Princess Ragnhild of Norway.

Biography



King Albert II with Queen Paola, and other royals and Heads of state, at the funeral of Pope John Paul II.

Prince Albert was born in Stuyvenberg Castle, Brussels. On 10 May 1940, at the time when Belgium was being invaded, Prince Albert, his elder sister Princess Joséphine-Charlotte and his elder brother Prince Baudouin, left the country for France and later Spain. The Prince and the Princess returned to Belgium on 2 August 1940. They continued their studies until 1944, either at Laeken, or at the Chateau of Ciergnon in the Ardennes. In June 1944, at the time of the Allied landings, King Leopold III, Princess Lilian – whom he married in 1941 – and the royal children were deported by the Germans to Hirschstein, Germany, and later to Strobl, Austria, where they were liberated by the American Army on 7 May 1945.

Due to the political situation in Belgium, King Leopold and his family moved to the villa "Le Reposoir" in Pregny, Switzerland, when they left Austria in October 1945 and stayed until July 1950. During that time, Prince Albert would continue his education in a secondary school in Geneva. King Leopold III, accompanied by Prince Baudouin and Prince Albert, returned to Belgium on 22 July 1950.[1]

He is the 1,292nd Knight of the Order of the Golden Fleece in Austria and the 1,191st Knight of the Order of the Golden Fleece in Spain in 1994.

Marriage and family

In 1958, Prince Albert of Liege went to the Vatican to witness the inauguration of Pope John XXIII. At a reception at the Belgian embassy, the prince met Italian Princess Paola Ruffo di Calabria. “We were both shy, so we only talked a little,” Paola said later about their first meeting. Shy but smitten, Prince Albert proposed marriage to Paola, and she accepted. Two months after their meeting, the Prince introduced his future wife to his family, and four months later to the press.

Belgian Royal Family



HM The King
HM The Queen

- HRH The Duke of Brabant
  HRH The Duchess of Brabant
  - HRH Princess Elisabeth
  - HRH Prince Gabriel
  - HRH Prince Emmanuel
  - HRH Princess Eléonore
- HI&RH The Archduchess of Austria-Este
  HI&RH The Archduke of Austria-Este
  - HI&RH Prince Amedeo
  - HI&RH Princess Maria Laura
  - HI&RH Prince Joachim
  - HI&RH Princess Luisa Maria
  - HI&RH Princess Laetitia Maria
- HRH Prince Laurent
  HRH Princess Claire
  - HRH Princess Louise
  - HRH Prince Nicolas
  - HRH Prince Aymeric

HM Queen Fabiola

Extended royal family

Upon arriving in Brussels for the first time before her wedding, Princess Paola won over the Belgian media immediately. *"The charm and beauty of the blond princess from the south quickly captured the hearts of the Belgians"*, wrote the newspapers back then.

HRH Princess Léa
HRH Princess Marie-Christine
HRH Princess Marie-Esméralda

They wanted a marriage at the Vatican at first, a setting promoted by both families, but the Belgian government did not approve of that. They did not want to keep a fairy tale wedding from the people of Belgium, who finally had an opportunity for organizing celebrations for their Royals Family. The Pope, after some diplomatic pressure, refused them a marriage at the Vatican, saying he would understand if the couple would want to get married amidst their people.



Villa Le Reposoir in Switzerland where the family lived in the late 1940s

On 2 July 1959 he married Princess Paola Ruffo di Calabria (born 11 September 1937) in Brussels. She is the daughter of Fulco VIII, Prince Ruffo di Calabria, 6th Duke of Guardia Lombarda and his wife, Countess Luisa Gazelli di Rossana e di Sebastiano (1896–1989). Together they have three children, two sons and a daughter:

- HRH Prince Philippe of Belgium, Duke of Brabant (born 15 April 1960). On 4 December 1999, the Duke married Jonkvrouwe Mathilde d'Udekem d'Acoz (born 20 January 1973), who was created HRH Princess Mathilde of Belgium a day before their marriage. She is a daughter of the late Count Patrick d'Udekem d'Acoz and his wife, Countess Anna Maria Komorowska. The Duke and Duchess of Brabant have four children, two sons and two daughters:
  - HRH Princess Elisabeth of Belgium (born 25 October 2001), who will inherit the throne after her father.
  - HRH Prince Gabriel of Belgium (born 20 August 2003)
  - HRH Prince Emmanuel of Belgium (born 4 October 2005)
  - HRH Princess Eléonore of Belgium (born 16 April 2008)
- HI&RH Princess Astrid of Belgium, Archduchess Lorenz of Austria-Este, Duchess of Modena (born 5 June 1962). In 1984, she married HI&RH Archduke Lorenz of Austria-Este, Archduke of Austria, Prince Royal of Hungary and Bohemia (born 16 December 1955), who was created a Prince of Belgium in 1995. They have five children, two sons and three daughters:
  - HI&RH Prince Amedeo of Belgium, Archduke of Austria-Este (born 22 February 1986)
  - HI&RH Princess Maria Laura of Belgium, Archduchess of Austria-Este (born 26 August 1988)
  - HI&RH Prince Joachim of Belgium, Archduke of Austria-Este (born 9 December 1991)
  - HI&RH Princess Luisa Maria of Belgium, Archduchess of Austria-Este (born 11 October 1995)
  - HI&RH Princess Laetitia Maria of Belgium, Archduchess of Austria-Este (born 23 April 2003)
- HRH Prince Laurent of Belgium (born 19 October 1963). On 12 April 2003, He married Claire Coombs (born 18 January 1974), an Anglo-Belgian former real-estate agent. She was created HRH Princess Claire of Belgium 11 days before their marriage. They have three children, two sons and one daughter:
  - HRH Princess Louise of Belgium (born 6 February 2004)
  - HRH Prince Nicolas of Belgium (born 13 December 2005)
  - HRH Prince Aymeric of Belgium (born 13 December 2005)



King Albert II and Queen Paola with US President George W. Bush and First Lady Laura Bush at the Royal Palace in Brussels in 2005.

Official role

As the younger brother of King Baudouin, Prince Albert was the heir-presumptive to the throne. However his son Prince Philippe was groomed to be Baudoin's successor, once it became clear that the King would have no children to succeed him. However, on Baudouin's death (at age 62), Albert was sworn in before parliament on 9 August 1993 as the sixth King of the Belgians.[2]

As King, Albert's duties include representing Belgium at home and abroad on state visits, trade missions, and at high level international meetings as well as taking an interest in Belgian society, culture and enterprise. [3]

In 1984, he set up the Prince Albert Foundation, to promote expertise in foreign trade. [4]

The King has a constitutional role which came into play in 2010-2011 when Belgium's parliament was unable to agree on a government. When the crisis was resolved, Albert swore in the new government. [5]

In January 2012, Albert announced that the royal family would freeze their allowances and use a greater proportion of their income to maintain the royal palaces.

Ancestry

See also: Kings of Belgium family tree

Patrilineal descent

Patrilineal descent
Albert's patriline is the line from which he is descended father to son. Patrilineal descent is the principle behind membership in royal houses, as it can be traced back through the generations – which means that if Albert II were to choose an historically accurate house name it would be Wettin, as all his male-line ancestors have been of that house. **House of Wettin** 1. Dietrich I von Wettin, c. 916 – c. 976 (top ancestor) 2. Dedo I von Wettin, c. 950 – c. 1009 3. Dietrich II, Margrave of Lower Lusatia 4. Thimo of Wettin, Count of Brehna 5. Conrad, Margrave of Meissen, maternal grandson of Otto of Nordheim, 1098–1157 6. Otto II, Margrave of Meissen, 1125–1190 7. Dietrich I, Margrave of Meissen, 1162–1221 8. Henry III, Margrave of Meissen, c. 1215–1288 9. Albert II, Margrave of Meissen, 1240–1314

10. Frederick I, Margrave of Meissen, 1257–1323
11. Frederick II, Margrave of Meissen, 1310–1349
12. Frederick III, Landgrave of Thuringia, 1332–1381
13. Frederick I, Elector of Saxony, 1370–1428
14. Frederick II, Elector of Saxony, 1412–1464
15. Ernest, Elector of Saxony, 1441–1486
16. John, Elector of Saxony, 1468–1532
17. John Frederick I, Elector of Saxony, 1503–1554
18. Johann Wilhelm, Duke of Saxe-Weimar, 1530–1573
19. John II, Duke of Saxe-Weimar, 1570–1605
20. Ernest I, Duke of Saxe-Gotha, 1601–1675
21. John Ernest IV, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, 1658–1729
22. Francis Josias, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, 1697–1764
23. Ernest Frederick, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, 1724–1800
24. Francis, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, 1750–1806
25. Leopold I of Belgium, 1790–1865
26. Prince Philippe, Count of Flanders, 1837–1905
27. Albert I of Belgium, 1875–1934
28. Leopold III of Belgium, 1901–1993
29. Albert II of Belgium, 1934 –

Titles & styles



Arms as Albert, Prince of Liège, Prince of Belgium

Titles and styles

- **6 June 1934 – 7 June 1934:** *His Royal Highness* Prince Albert of Belgium
- **7 June 1934 – 9 August 1993:** *His Royal Highness* The Prince of Liège
- **9 August 1993 – present:** *His Majesty* The King of the Belgians

Monarchical styles of
King Albert II of Belgium



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Sire

Honours

Belgian honours

- Grand Master of the Order of Leopold
- Grand Master of the Order of the African Star (*dormant order*)
- Grand Master of the Royal Order of the Lion (*dormant order*)
- Grand Master of the Order of the Crown
- Grand Master of the Order of Leopold II



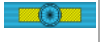
Personal Standard of King Albert II.

Foreign honours

Recipient of numerous foreign decorations, Albert II is one of the few European leaders to be both a knight of the Golden Fleece (Austrian awarded in 1962 by Archduke Otto von Habsburg) and Knight of the Golden Fleece Gold Spanish (awarded in 1994 by King Juan Carlos).

The list of his honorifical decorations (to be expanded) consists of :

State honours			
	Bulgaria	Grand Cross of the Order of Stara Planina (2003)	Photo (http://www.monarchie.be/sites/default/files/imagecache/ImageDetail/images/fr_bulga3_3160.jpg)
	Commonwealth	Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order	Photo (http://cache4.asset-cache.net/xc/758045.jpg?v=1&c=IWSAsset&k=2&d=77BFBA49EF878921F7C3FC3F69D929FDD651C1E0C23EE17249646E58D0EE98F1294C7869B2C8666E)
	Denmark	Grand Cross of the Order of the Dannebrog	
		Knight of the Order of the Elephant	Photo (http://www2.pictures.gi.zimbio.com/Wedding+Danish+Crown+Prince+Frederik+Mary+_xhhu353Zsfl.jpg)
	Estonia	Collar of the Order of the Cross of Terra Mariana (2008)	Ph.1 (http://0.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:9519873:preview:watermark) , Ph.2 (http://5.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:9519900:preview:watermark)

	Finland	Grand Cross of the Order of the White Rose (2004)	Photo (http://9.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:1720618:preview:watermark)
	Germany	Grand Cross, Special Class, of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic	Photo (http://9.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:271937:preview:watermark)
	Hungary	Grand Cross with Chain of the Order of Merit of the Hungarian Republic, Civilian Class	Photo (http://3.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:8924613:preview:watermark)
	Holy See	Knight of the Collar of the Equestrian Order of the Holy Sepulchre of Jerusalem (1995)	website (http://www.holysepulchre.be/en/Lieutenancy_en.htm)
	Italy	Knight Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic	
	Japan	Collar of the Order of the Chrysanthemum	
	Latvia	Commander Grand Cross with Chain of the Order of Three Stars (2007)	recipents list (.doc) (http://www.president.lv/images/modules/items/DOC/2011maijs-tzo%20registrs.doc)
	Lithuania	Golden Collar of the Order of Vytautas the Great	News (http://archyvas.lrp.lt/en/news.full/6486) , Photo (http://picture.belga.be/belgapicture/picture /4031162.html?page=16)
	Luxembourg	Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Gold Lion of the House of Nassau	Photo (http://7.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:6341557:preview:watermark)
	Monaco	Knight Grand Cross of the Order of St. Charles (1957)[6]	Photo (http://cache1.asset-cache.net/xc/117976951.jpg?v=1&c=IWSAsset& k=2&d=77BFBA49EF878921E86F5CE8BE5D78FBC523196C0668E6FD74A55DD5CC9D9FFEE3455BE92EB0D692)
	Morocco	Special Class of the Order of the Mohammediya	
	Netherlands	Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion	Photo (http://picture.belga.be/belgapicture/picture/23477511.html)
		Knight Grand Cross of the Order of Orange-Nassau	
	Norway	Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of St. Olav	Photo (http://www.monarchie.be/sites/default/files/imagecache/ImageDetail/images/fr_gala_2768.jpg)
	Poland	Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the White Eagle	Photo (http://www.monarchie.be/sites/default/files/imagecache/ImageDetail/images/fr_pol.jpg)
	Portugal	Grand Cordon of the Military Order of Aviz (1985)	Orders website (http://www.ordens.presidencia.pt/?idc=154)
		Grand Collar of the Order of the Infante Dom	Photo (http://7.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:3513379:preview:watermark)

		Henrique (1999)	
	Romania	Sash (Collar) of the Order of the Star of Romania (2009)	Recipients table (http://canord.presidency.ro/Ord.St.Rom..xls)
	Spain	Sash (Collar) of the Order of the Golden Fleece (1994)	Photo (http://5.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:471649:preview:watermark)
		Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Charles III	
	Sweden	Knight of the Order of the Seraphim	Photo (http://9.t.cdn.belga.be/picture:20856071:preview:watermark)
Sovereign Entities			
	Malta	Bailiff and Knight Grand Cross of Honour and Devotion of the Sovereign Military Order of Malta	
Former sovereign families			
	Austrian Empire	Knight of the Order of the Golden Fleece (House of Habsburg)	
	K. of France	Knight of the Order of Saint Michael - (House of Bourbon)	
	Kingdom of Italy	Knight of the Order of the Most Holy Annunciation (House of Savoy)	
	Kingdom of Italy	Knight Grand Cross of the Order of Saints Maurice and Lazarus (House of Savoy)	

Honorary degrees

King Albert is Doctor Honoris Causa of the Catholic University of Leuven, the Saint Louis University, Baguio City, Ghent University, Free University of Brussels, the Catholic university of Mons and the Polytechnic Faculty of Mons.

Belgian coinage

In Belgium, it is common that the effigy of the ruling King is minted in the coins for circulation. As a general rule, this does not happen for the commemorative and collectors' coins. However, some very high value coins have been minted with the effigy of the King in one side, such as the commemorative 100 euro gold coin minted in 2003.



Commemorative 100 euro gold coin featuring King Albert II

See also

- List of Succession to the Belgian Throne
- Crown Council of Belgium
- Royal Trust
- Prince Albert Fund
- Michel Didisheim, former private secretary
- Jacques van Ypersele de Strihou (private secretary)
- Frank De Coninck, (former) Marshal of the Royal Household

References

1. ^ [a] [b] [c] "King Albert II" (http://www.monarchie.be/royal-family/king-albert-ii) . http://www.monarchie.be. http://www.monarchie.be/royal-family/king-albert-ii. Retrieved 2010-04-28.
2. ^ http://www.monarchie.be/royal-family/king-albert-ii
3. ^ http://www.monarchie.be/monarchy-today

4. ^ http://www.monarchie.be/monarchy-today/royal-initiatives/prince-albert-fund
5. ^ http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-europe-16042750
6. ^ Royauté-News (http://www.royaute-news.com/article-maisons-de-belgique-et-de-monaco-38762337.html) , reçu en 1957 lors de l'inauguration d'un monument en mémoire du Roi Albert Ier à Monaco

External links

- Official Belgian monarchy web site (http://www.monarchie.be/en)
- "Belgium defends king against 'assault'" (http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/europe/1550250.stm) . BBC News. 2001-09-18. http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/europe/1550250.stm.
- The Royal Belgium Orders (http://almanachdechivalry.com/_wsn/page3.html/)
- VR panorama of King Albert II's visit to Küssnacht am Rigi on 29 August 2010 (http://www.360cities.net/image/albert2#50.60,3.60,70.0)

Albert II of Belgium **House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha** Cadet branch of the **House of Wettin** **Born:** 6 June 1934		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Baudouin**	**King of the Belgians** 1993–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Philippe, Duke of Brabant*
Belgian royalty		
New title	**Prince of Liège** 1934–present	**Reverts to the Crown after death**
Academic offices		
Preceded by **Robert van Schendel**	**Speaker at the College of Europe Opening Ceremony** 1969	Succeeded by **Jean Rey**
Titles in pretence		
Preceded by **Prince Umberto of Bulgaria**	**Line of succession to the throne of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha** 21st position	Succeeded by **Prince Philippe, Duke of Brabant**

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Albert_II_of_Belgium&oldid=482088187"

Categories: Living people | 1934 births | 20th-century Roman Catholics | 21st-century Roman Catholics | Belgian monarchs | Belgian royal princes | Belgian Roman Catholics | Current national leaders | House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha (Belgium) | People from Brussels | Princes of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha | Reigning monarchs | Roman Catholic monarchs | Alumni of Institut Le Rosey | Grand Cordons of the Order of Leopold (Belgium) | Grand Crosses of the Order of the African Star | Grand Crosses of the Royal Order of the Lion | Grand Crosses of the Order of the Crown (Belgium) | Grand Crosses of the Order of Leopold II | Bailiffs Grand Cross of the Order of St John | Grand Collars of the Order of Prince Henry | Knights and Dames of the Collar of the Equestrian Order of the Holy Sepulchre | Knights Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic | Commanders Grand Cross of the Order of the White Rose of Finland | Grand Crosses with Collar of the Order of Charles III | Collars of the Order of the Chrysanthemum | Grand Crosses Special Class of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany | Grand Crosses of the Order of Aviz | Grand Crosses of the Order of the Dannebrog | Grand Crosses of the Order of Stara Planina | Grand Crosses of the Order of the Gold Lion of the House of Nassau | Grand Crosses of the Order of Saint-Charles | Honorary Knights Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order | Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion | Knights Grand Cross of the Order of Orange-Nassau | Knights Grand Cross of the Order of Saints Maurice and Lazarus | Knights Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of St. Olav | Knights of the Elephant | Knights of the Golden Fleece | Knights of the Order of the Most Holy Annunciation | Knights of the Order of Saint Michael | Recipients of the Collar of the Order of the Cross of Terra Mariana | Recipients of the Order of the Mohammedi | Recipients of the Order of the Seraphim | Recipients of the Order of the Three Stars, 1st Class with Chain | Recipients of the Order of Vytautas the Great | Recipients of the Order of the White Eagle (Poland) | Sashes of the Order of the Star of Romania

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House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha** (*orig.* Haus Sachsen-Coburg und Gotha) is a German dynasty, the senior line of the Saxon House of Wettin that ruled the Ernestine duchies, including the duchy of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

Founded by Ernest Anton, the sixth duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, it is also the royal house of several European monarchies, and branches currently reign in Belgium through the descendants of Leopold I, and in the Commonwealth realms through the descendants of Prince Albert. Due to anti-German sentiment in the United Kingdom during World War I, George V of the United Kingdom changed the name of his branch from Saxe-Coburg and Gotha to Windsor in 1917. The same happened in Belgium where it was changed to "*van België*" (Dutch) or "*de Belgique*" (French).

House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha



Country	Duchy of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, Kingdom of Belgium, Kingdom of Portugal, Kingdom of Bulgaria, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Empire of India
Ancestral house	House of Wettin
Titles	▪ Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha ▪ King of the Belgians ▪ Tsar of Bulgaria ▪ King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland ▪ Emperor of India
Founder	Ernest I, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Current head	Andreas, Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Founding	1826
Dissolution	1918

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History

The first duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha was Ernest I, who reigned from 1826 until his death in 1844. He had previously been Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld (as Ernest III) from 1806 until the duchy was reorganized in 1826. Ernst's younger brother Leopold became King of the Belgians in 1831, and his descendants continue to serve as Belgian head of state. Léopold's only daughter, Princess Charlotte of Belgium, was the consort of Maximilian I of Mexico, known as the Empress

Carlota of Mexico, in the 1860s. Ernst's nephew Ferdinand married Queen Maria II of Portugal, and his descendants continued to rule Portugal until that country became a republic in 1910.

Cadet branches	House of Windsor House of Koháry House of Braganza-Saxe-Coburg and Gotha

Ernst I's second son, Prince Albert (1819–1861), married Queen Victoria in 1840, and thus is the progenitor of the United Kingdom's current royal family, called Windsor since World War I.

In 1826, a cadet branch of the house inherited the Hungarian princely estate of Koháry, and converted to Roman Catholicism. Its members managed to marry an imperial princess of Brazil, an archduchess of Austria, a royal princess of "the French", a royal princess of Belgium and a royal princess of Saxony. A scion of this branch, also named Ferdinand, became Prince, and then Tsar, of Bulgaria, and his descendants continued to rule there until 1946. The current head of the House of Bulgaria, the former Tsar Simeon II who was deposed and exiled during World War II, goes by the name *Simeon Sakskoburggotski* and served as Bulgaria's prime minister from 2001 to 2005.

The ducal house consisted of all male-line descendents of John Ernest IV, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld legitimately born of an equal marriage, males and females (the latter until their marriage), their wives in equal and authorised marriages, and their widows until remarriage. According to the House law of the Duchy of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha the full title of the Duke was:

> *Wir, Ernst, Herzog zu Sachsen-Coburg und Gotha, Jülich, Cleve und Berg, auch Engern und Westphalen, Landgraf in Thüringen, Markgraf zu Meißen, gefürsteter Graf zu Henneberg, Graf zu der Mark und Ravensberg, Herr zu Ravenstein und Tonna usw.*
>
> We, Ernst, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, Jülich, Cleves and Berg, also Angria and Westphalia, Landgrave in Thuringia, Margrave of Meissen, Princely Count of Henneberg, Count of the Mark and Ravensberg, Lord of Ravenstein and Tonna, et cetera.

Ducal Family of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha



- **HH The Prince**
  HH The Princess
  - HH The Hereditary Prince
    HH The Hereditary Princess
  - HH Prince Alexander
  - HH Princess Stephanie
- HH Prince Adrian
- HH Princess Claudia, Mrs. Gianetta Antonia Schäfer
- HH Princess Beatrice Charlotte of Saxe-Meiningen

Extended family

- HH Princess Felicitas, Mrs. Sergei Trotzky

- Bulgarian Royal Family

- Belgian Royal Family

Branches

Ducal branch

Dukes, 1826–1918

- Ernest I 1826–1844
- Ernest II 1844–1893
- Alfred 1893–1900
- Charles Edward 1900–1918

Heads of the house since 1918

- Charles Edward 1918–1954

- Friedrich Josias 1954–1998
- Andreas 1998–*present*

Although the ducal branch is eponymous with the dynasty, its head is not the genealogically or agnatically senior member of the family. In 1893 the reigning duke died childless, whereupon the throne of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha would have devolved, by male primogeniture, upon the British branch descended from Prince Albert. However, as heirs to the British throne, Albert's descendants consented and the law of the duchy ratified that the ducal throne would not be inherited by the British monarch or heir apparent. Therefore, the German duchy became a secundogeniture, hereditary among the younger princes of the British royal family who belonged to the House of Wettin, and their male-line descendants.

Instead of the future Edward VII of the United Kingdom inheriting the duchy, it was diverted to his next brother, Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh and, upon the latter's death without surviving sons, to the youngest grandson of Prince Albert and Queen Victoria, Prince Charles Edward, Duke of Albany (bypassing Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught (and his male line) who, although senior by birth to his nephew Charles Edward, preferred to remain on British soil).

The current head of the ducal branch, Andreas, Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, is therefore the descendant and German heir of Charles Edward. Should his legitimate male line become extinct, the claim to the Saxon duchy (which lost its sovereignty and independent existence in 1918) would revert to the male line of Edward VII, currently represented in chief by Prince Richard, Duke of Gloucester.

Kings of the Belgians

- Leopold I (1831–1865)
- Leopold II (1865–1909)
- Albert I (1909–1934)
- Leopold III (1934–1951)
- Baudouin (1951–1993)
- Albert II (1993–*present*)

Belgian royal house

Because of the First World War, the family name was changed to *van België*, *de Belgique* or *von Belgien* ("of Belgium"), depending upon which of the country's three official languages (Dutch, French and German) is in use. It is this family name which is used on the identity cards and in all official documents by Belgium's royalty (marriage licenses, etc.).[*citation needed*]

Kingdom of Portugal

In Portugal the former royal house is usually not distinguished from the House of Braganza

- Pedro V (1853–1861)
- Luís I (1861–1889)
- Carlos I (1889–1908)
- Manuel II (r. 1908–1910, d.1932)

Manuel II died childless in 1932. He recognised as his successor his distant cousin Duarte Nuno, Duke of Braganza, who is not a descendant of Ferdinand II, or the house of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. Duarte Nuno and his successors, as claimants to the Portuguese throne, are therefore members of the House of Braganza, rather

than the House of Braganza-Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

Kingdom of Bulgaria

- Ferdinand I (1887–1918)
- Boris III (1918–1943)
- Simeon II (1943–1946) In 2001, elected[1] Prime Minister of Bulgaria as Simeon Saxe-Coburg-Gotha—also known as Simeon "Sakskoburggotski" (Сакскобургготски).[2][3][4]

United Kingdom

- Edward VII (1901–1910)
- George V (1910–1936, until 1917 when the name was changed and the royal house and family were to be known as Windsor).
- Edward VIII (1936)
- George VI (1936–1952)
- Elizabeth II (1952–)

If Elizabeth II is succeeded by her child (or a child of one of her sons), the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha will be succeeded patrilineally by the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, a cadet branch of the House of Oldenburg. However, by a 1960 Order in Council, her children also bear the name of Windsor and therefore the reigning dynasty will continue under that name unless changed.

According to the official website of the British monarchy, however, "the only British monarch of the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha was King Edward VII, who reigned for nine years. King George V replaced the German-sounding title with the name of Windsor during the First World War. The name *Saxe-Coburg-Gotha* survived in other European realms, including the former monarchies of Portugal and Bulgaria and in the Belgian royal family until 1920."[5]

Names of the British royal house

Ernest I's younger son, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, became Prince Consort to Queen Victoria, Ernest's niece through his sister Princess Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld. As a consequence of their marriage, *Saxe-Coburg and Gotha* became the dynasty of the British Royal Family from the accession of Edward VII in 1901 until changed to Windsor by King George V in 1917, during the United Kingdom's war with the German Empire.

Contrary to common belief, *Saxe-Coburg and Gotha* was not the *personal surname* of either Prince Albert, his wife or their descendants. Queen Victoria launched an inquiry to identify her surname. After an exhaustive search her advisors concluded that Prince Albert (and thus the Queen—by virtue of her marriage) had the surname *Wettin*.[*citation needed*]

George V changed both *Wettin* and *Saxe-Coburg and Gotha* to *Windsor* by proclamation in 1917.

In 1947 Princess Elizabeth (now Elizabeth II) married Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, who also had German heritage, being descended from the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, and whose surname since shortly before his marriage has been Mountbatten—anglicized during WWI from "*Battenberg*" of the Grand Duchy of Hesse. The Queen's marriage to Prince Philip raised the issue of the surname and dynastic name to be carried by the Queen's descendants, including future monarchs. An Order in Council in 1960 decreed that the name and dynasty of Elizabeth II would remain "Windsor", as would that of her children by the Duke of

Edinburgh (save that of any of their daughters who married). The order stipulated, however, that those of their male-line descendants who do not bear the title of prince or princess and the style of *Royal Highness* would have the surname of *Mountbatten-Windsor*. In fact, some of Elizabeth II's children have also chosen, on occasion, to use that designation on legal documents.

Genealogy

Patrilineality, descent as reckoned from father to son, has historically been the principle determining membership in reigning families, thus the dynasty to which the monarchs of the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha belonged genealogically through the 20th century is the House of Wettin, despite the official use of varying names by different branches of the patriline.

Descent before Conrad the Great may not be entirely accurate.[6]

House of Wettin

1. Burkhard I, Duke of Thuringia, d. 870
2. Burchard, Duke of Thuringia, 836–908
3. (possibly) Burkhard III of Grabfeldgau, 866–913
4. Dedi I, Count of Hessegau, 896–957
5. (probably) Dietrich I of Wettin, d. 976
6. (possibly) Dedo I of Wettin, 946–1009
7. Dietrich II, Margrave of Lower Lusatia, 991–1034
8. (Thimo I of Wettin, d. 1099)
9. Thimo the Brave, Count of Wettin, d. 1118?
10. Conrad, Margrave of Meissen, 1098–1157
11. Otto II, Margrave of Meissen, 1125–1190
12. Dietrich I, Margrave of Meissen, 1162–1221
13. Henry III, Margrave of Meissen, c. 1215–1288
14. Albert II, Margrave of Meissen, 1240–1314
15. Frederick I, Margrave of Meissen, 1257–1323
16. Frederick II, Margrave of Meissen, 1310–1349
17. Frederick III, Landgrave of Thuringia, 1332–1381
18. Frederick I, Elector of Saxony, 1370–1428
19. Frederick II, Elector of Saxony, 1412–1464
20. Ernest, Elector of Saxony, 1441–1486
21. John, Elector of Saxony, 1468–1532
22. John Frederick I, Elector of Saxony, 1503–1554
23. John William, Duke of Saxe-Weimar, 1530–1573
24. John II, Duke of Saxe-Weimar, 1570–1605
25. Ernest I, Duke of Saxe-Gotha, 1601–1675
26. John Ernest IV, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, 1658–1729
27. Francis Josias, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, 1697–1764
28. Ernest Frederick, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, 1724–1800
29. Francis, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, 1750–1806
30. Ernest I, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, 1784–1844
31. Albert, Prince Consort, 1819–1861
32. Edward VII of the United Kingdom, 1841–1910
33. George V of the United Kingdom, 1865–1936
34. Prince Henry, Duke of Gloucester, 1900–1974
35. Prince Richard, Duke of Gloucester, 1944–present

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2. ^ Former king marks first year as Bulgarian Prime Minister (http://www.rferl.org/newsline/2002/07/5-NOT/not-260702.asp/) , *Radio Free Europe*, 26 July 2002. Retrieved on 28 July 2007.
3. ^ Bulgarian (or Spanish) Prime Minister? (http://www.bulgaria-gateway.org/en/browser.php?state=content&id=500&type=article&lang=en&topic_id=1&cur_pos=/) , *Bulgaria Development Gateway*, 24 July 2003. Retrieved on 28 July 2007.
4. ^ Lord Alderdice speaking in the House of Lords on 19 May 2005 (http://www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/ld200506/ldhansrd/vo050519/text/50519-10.htm) , *Hansard*. Retrieved on 28 July 2007.
5. ^ Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (http://www.royal.gov.uk/HistoryoftheMonarchy/KingsandQueensoftheUnitedKingdom/Saxe-Coburg-Gotha/Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.aspx) on the official website of the British monarchy
6. ^ Konrad 'the Great' von Groitzsch-Rochlitz (http://fabpedigree.com/s056/f354285.htm) in *Jamie Allen's Family Tree & Ancient Genealogical Allegation*

External links

- Official Website (http://www.sachsen-coburg-gotha.de/)

Royal house **House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha** Cadet branch of the **House of Wettin**		
New title	**Ruling house of the Duchy of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha** 1826–1918	**Duchy abolished in the German Revolution of 1918–19**
	Ruling house of the Kingdom of Belgium 1831–*present*	**Incumbent**
	Ruling house of the Kingdom of Bulgaria 1887–1946	**Monarchy abolished after the Bulgarian coup d'état of 1944**
Preceded by **House of Hanover**	**Ruling house of the United Kingdom** *(Renamed House of Windsor by Royal Proclamation 17 July 1917)* 1901–*present*	Succeeded by **Incumbent**

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Categories: Royal families | German nobility | House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha | House of Wettin | European royal families

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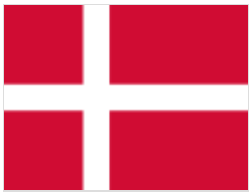
Denmark

Coordinates: 56°N 10°E

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Kingdom of Denmark** (Danish: *Kongeriget Danmark*, pronounced ['kɔŋəʁiːəð 'danmɑǧ] (listen)) is a constitutional monarchy and sovereign state consisting of the country of **Denmark** (English /'dɛnmɑːk/; Danish *Danmark*) in northern Europe and two autonomous constituent countries, the Faroe Islands in the North Atlantic and Greenland in North America. The kingdom is a unitary state with some power being devolved from Denmark proper to Greenland and the Faroe Islands; this federacy is referred to as the *Danish Realm*. Denmark proper is the hegemonial area, where judicial, executive, and legislative power resides.[5] The Faroe Islands are defined to be a community of people within the kingdom, and the Greenlandic people are defined as a separate people with the right to self-determination.[6][7]

Kingdom of Denmark
Kongeriget Danmark



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: (Royal) "*Guds hjælp, Folkets kærlighed, Danmarks styrke*"[a]
"God's Help, the People's Love, Denmark's Strength"

Anthem: *Der er et yndigt land* (national)
Royal anthem: *Kong Christian stod ved højen mast* (royal and national)



Location of **Denmark** (dark green)
– in Europe (green & dark grey)
– in the European Union (green) — [Legend]

Denmark itself is the southernmost of the Nordic countries, located southwest of Sweden and south of Norway, and bordered to the south by Germany. The country consists of a large peninsula, Jutland and many islands, most notably Zealand, Funen, Lolland, Falster and Bornholm, as well as hundreds of minor islands often referred to as the Danish Archipelago.

Denmark's history has particularly been influenced by its geographical location between the North and Baltic seas. This meant that it was between Sweden and Germany and thus at the center of the mutual struggle for control of the Baltic Sea; before the digging of the Kiel Canal, water passage to the Baltic Sea was possible only through the three channels known as the "Danish straits". Denmark was long in disputes with Sweden over control of Skånelandene (Scanian War) and Norway, and in disputes with the Hanseatic League over the duchies of Schleswig (a Danish fief) and Holstein (a German fief). Eventually Denmark lost the conflicts and ended up ceding first Skånelandene to Sweden and later Schleswig-Holstein to the German Empire.

Denmark became a member of the European Union in 1973 but remains outside the Eurozone, while both Greenland and the Faroe Islands have opted to remain outside the EU entirely. A founding member of NATO and the OECD, Denmark is also a member of the Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). With a mixed market economy and a large welfare state, Denmark ranks as having the world's highest level of income equality. The country has the world's seventh highest per capita income. It has frequently ranked as the happiest and least corrupt country in the world. In 2011, Denmark was listed 16th on the Human Development Index and 2nd on the

Corruption Perceptions Index. The national language, Danish, is closely related to Swedish and Norwegian, with which it shares strong cultural and historical ties. Denmark, along with Sweden and Norway, is part of the cultural region known as "Scandinavia" and is also a member of the Nordic Council.

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Greenland, the Faroe Islands and Denmark (shaded green)

Capital (and largest city)	Copenhagen 55°43′N 12°34′E
Official language(s)	Danish[b]
Recognised regional languages	Faroese, Greenlandic, German[b]
Demonym	Danish or Dane(s)
Government	Constitutional monarchy, parliamentary representative democracy
- Queen	Margrethe II
- Prime Minister	Helle Thorning-Schmidt
- Speaker of the Folketing	Mogens Lykketoft
- Current coalition	SRSF-coalition
Legislature	Folketing
Consolidation	8th century
Area	
- Total	2,220,093 km^2 (12th) 1,370,000 sq mi
- Denmark	43,075 km^2 (132nd) 16,641 sq mi
Population	
- 2011 estimate	
- Total	5,671,050 (111th)
- Denmark	5,529,888[1]
- Density	Total: 2.55/km^2, 6.7/sq mi (236th) Denmark: 129/km^2, 334/sq mi (88th)
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$201.739 billion[2][c]

Etymology

- Per capita	$37,585[2][c]
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$310.760 billion[2][c]
- Per capita	$60,961[2][c]
Gini (2009)	24.7[c] (low) (1st)
HDI (2010)	▲ 0.866[3][c] (very high) (19th)
Currency	Danish krone[e] (DKK)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1 [c])
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2 [c])
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	DK
Internet TLD	.dk[d]
Calling code	+45[c]

^ Denmark has no civil national motto, however the motto "Guds hjælp, Folkets kærlighed, Danmarks styrke" was adopted by Queen Margrethe II as her personal, royal motto.[4]
^ b. Danish is official in Denmark proper and co-official in the Faroe Islands, but not in Greenland; Greenlandic is the sole official language in Greenland. German is recognised as a protected minority language in the South Jutland area of Denmark.
^ c. This data is for **Denmark proper** only. For data pertaining to Greenland and the Faroe Islands see the respective articles.
^ d. The TLD .eu is shared with other European Union countries. Greenland (.gl) and the Faroe Islands (.fo) have their own TLDs.
^ e. In the Faroes this is called the króna and has a separate design, but is not a separate currency.

The etymology of the word Denmark, and especially the relationship between Danes and Denmark and the unifying of Denmark as a single kingdom, is a subject which attracts some debate.[8][9] This is centred primarily around the prefix *"Dan"* and whether it refers to the Dani or a historical person Dan and the exact meaning of the *-"mark"* ending. The issue is further complicated by a number of references to various Dani people in Scandinavia or other places in Europe in Greek and Roman accounts (like Ptolemy, Jordanes, and Gregory of Tours), as well as some mediaeval literature (like Adam of Bremen, Beowulf, Widsith and Poetic Edda).

Most handbooks derive[10] the first part of the word, and the name of the people, from a word meaning "flat land", related to German *Tenne* "threshing floor", English *den* "cave", Sanskrit *dhánuṣ-* (धनुस्; "desert"). The *-mark* is believed to mean woodland or borderland (see marches), with probable references to the border forests in south Schleswig,[11]

Some of the earliest descriptions of the origin of the word 'Denmark', describing a territory, are found in the *Chronicon Lethrense* (12th century), Svend Aagesen (late 12th century), Saxo Grammaticus (early 13th century) and the Ballad of Eric (mid-15th century). There are, however, many more Danish annuals and yearbooks containing various other details, similar tales in other variations, other names or spelling variations.



The Jelling Stones, commonly referred to as Denmark's "birth certificate", seen from the north with "Gorm's Mound" in the background

In Norse, the land was called *Danmǫrk*.[12]

The earliest mention of a territory called "Denmark" is found in King Alfred the Great's modified translation into Old English of Paulus Orosius' *Seven Books of History Against The Pagans* ("Historiarum adversum Paganos Libri Septem"), written by Alfred when king of Wessex in the years 871–899. In a passage introduced to the text by Alfred, we read about Ohthere of Hålogaland's travels in the Nordic region, during which 'Denmark [*Denamearc*] was on his port side... And then for two days he had on his (port side) the islands which belong to Denmark'.[13]

The first recorded use of the word "Denmark" within Denmark itself is found on the two Jelling stones, which are rune stones believed to have been erected by Gorm the Old (c. 955) and Harald Bluetooth (c. 965). The larger stone of the two is often cited as Denmark's birth certificate ("dåbsattest" [trans:babtismal certificate]), though both use the word "Denmark", in the form of accusative ᛏᛅᚿᛘᛅᚢᚱᚴ "tanmaurk" ([danmɒrk]) on the large stone, and genitive "tanmarkar" (pronounced [danmarkaʀ]) on the small stone.[14] The inhabitants of Denmark are there called "tani" ([danɪ]), or "Danes", in the accusative. In the Song of Roland, estimated to have been written between 1040 and 1115, the first mention of the legendary Danish hero Holger Danske appears; he is mentioned several times as "Ogier the Dane" (Ogier de Denemarche).

History

Main article: History of Denmark

See also: History of Greenland and History of the Faroe Islands

Prehistory

The earliest archaeological findings in Denmark date back to the Eem interglacial period from 130,000–110,000 BC.[15] Denmark has been inhabited since around 12,500 BC and agriculture has been evident since 3900 BC.[16] The Nordic Bronze Age (1800–600 BC) in Denmark was marked by burial mounds, which left an abundance of findings including lurs and the Sun Chariot.

During the Pre-Roman Iron Age (500 BC – 1 AD), native groups began migrating south, although[16] the first Danish people came to the country between the Pre-Roman and the Germanic Iron Age,[17] in the Roman Iron Age (1–400 AD). The Roman provinces maintained trade routes and relations with native tribes in Denmark, and Roman coins have been found in Denmark. Evidence of strong Celtic cultural influence dates from this period in Denmark and much of North-West Europe and is among other things reflected in the finding of the Gundestrup cauldron.



The gilded side of the Trundholm sun chariot

Historians believe that before the arrival of the precursors to the Danes, who came from the east Danish islands (Zealand) and Skåne and spoke an early form of North Germanic, most of Jutland and some islands were settled by Jutes. They were later invited to Great Britain as mercenaries by Brythonic King Vortigern and were granted the southeastern territories of Kent, the Isle of Wight among other areas, where they settled. They were later absorbed or ethnically cleansed by the invading Angles and Saxons, who formed the Anglo-Saxons. The remaining population in Jutland assimilated in with the Danes.

A short note[18] about the *Dani* in "Getica" by historian Jordanes is believed by some to be an early mention of the Danes,[19] one of the ethnic groups from whom the modern Danish people are descended. The Danevirke defence structures were built in phases from the 3rd century forward,[20] and the sheer size of the construction efforts in 737 are attributed to the emergence of a Danish king.[20] The new runic alphabet was first used around the same time, and Ribe, the oldest town of Denmark, was founded about 700.

Viking Age

Main article: Viking Age

From the 8th to the 10th century, the Danes were known as Vikings. Together with Norwegians and Swedes, they colonised, raided and traded in all parts of Europe. Viking explorers first discovered Iceland by accident in the 9th century, on the way towards the Faroe Islands and eventually came across "Vinland" (Land of wine) also known today as Newfoundland, in Canada. The Danish Vikings were most active in British Isles and Western Europe. They temporarily conquered and settled parts of England (known as the Danelaw), Ireland, France and founded Normandy. More Anglo-Saxon pence of this period have been found in Denmark than in England. As attested by the Jelling stones, the Danes were united and Christianised about 965 by Harald Bluetooth. It is believed that Denmark became Christian for



The Ladby ship, the largest ship burial found in Denmark

political reasons so as not to get invaded by the rising Christian power in Europe, Germania, which was an important trading area for the Danes. In that case Harald built six fortresses around Denmark called Trelleborg and built a further Danevirke. In the early 11th century Canute the Great won and united Denmark, England and Norway for almost 30 years.[21]

Medieval Denmark

Throughout the High and Late Middle Ages, Denmark also included Skåneland (Skåne, Halland and Blekinge) and Danish kings ruled Danish Estonia, as well as the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Most of the latter two now form part of northern Germany.

In 1397, Denmark entered the Kalmar Union with Norway and Sweden, united under Queen Margaret I. The three countries were to be treated as equals in the union. However, even from the start Margaret may not have been so idealistic—treating Denmark as the clear "senior" partner of the union.[22] Thus, much of the next 125 years of Scandinavian history revolves around this union, with Sweden breaking off and being re-conquered repeatedly. The issue was for practical purposes resolved on 17 June 1523, as Swedish King Gustav Vasa conquered the city of Stockholm.

The Protestant Reformation came to Scandinavia in the 1530s, and following the Count's Feud civil war, Denmark converted to Lutheranism in 1536. Later that year, Denmark entered into a union with Norway.

Early modern history

After Sweden permanently broke away from the Kalmar Union in 1523, Denmark tried on two occasions to reassert control over Sweden. The first was in the Northern Seven Years War which lasted from 1563 until 1570. The second occasion was the Kalmar War when King Christian IV attacked Sweden in 1611 but failed to accomplish his main objective of forcing Sweden to return to the union with Denmark. The war led to no territorial changes, but Sweden was forced to pay a war indemnity of 1 million silver riksdaler to Denmark, an amount known as the *Älvsborg ransom*.[23]



Battle of Öland between an allied Dano-Norwegian-Dutch fleet and the Swedish navy, 1 June 1676.

King Christian used this money to found several towns and fortresses, most notably Glückstadt (founded as a rival to Hamburg), Christiania (following a fire destroying the original city of Oslo), Christianshavn, Christianstad and Christiansand. Christian also constructed a number of buildings, most notably Børsen, Rundetårn, Nyboder, Rosenborg, a silver mine and a copper mill. Inspired by the Dutch East India Company, he founded a similar Danish company and planned to claim Ceylon as a colony, but the company only managed to acquire Tranquebar on India's Coromandel Coast. Denmark's large colonial aspirations were limited to a few key trading posts in Africa and India.

In the Thirty Years' War, Christian tried to become the leader of the Lutheran states in Germany but suffered a crushing defeat at the Battle of Lutter.[24] The result was that the Catholic army under Albrecht von Wallenstein was able to invade, occupy and pillage Jutland,[25] forcing Denmark to withdraw from the war. Denmark managed to avoid territorial concessions, but Gustavus Adolphus' intervention in Germany was seen as a sign that the military power of Sweden was on the rise while Denmark's influence in the region was declining. Swedish armies invaded Jutland in 1643 and claimed Skåne in 1644. According to Geoffrey Parker, "The Swedish occupation caused a drop in agricultural production and a shortage of capital; harvest failure and plague ravaged the land between 1647 and 1651; Denmark's population fell by 20 per cent."[26]

In the 1645 Treaty of Brømsebro, Denmark surrendered Halland, Gotland, the last parts of Danish Estonia, and several provinces in Norway. In 1657, king Frederick III declared war on Sweden and marched on Bremen-Verden.

This led to a massive Danish defeat and the armies of King Charles X Gustav of Sweden conquered both Jutland, Funen and much of Zealand before signing the Peace of Roskilde in February 1658 which gave Sweden control of Skåne, Blekinge, Trøndelag and the island of Bornholm. Charles X Gustav quickly regretted not having destroyed Denmark completely and in August 1658 he began a two-year long siege of Copenhagen but failed to take the capital. In the following peace settlement, Denmark managed to maintain its independence and regain control of Trøndelag and Bornholm.

Denmark tried to regain control of Skåne in the Scanian War (1675–79) but this attempt was a failure. Following the Great Northern War (1700–21), Denmark managed to restore control of the parts of Schleswig and Holstein ruled by the house of Holstein-Gottorp in 1721 and 1773, respectively. In the Napoleonic Wars, Denmark originally tried to pursue a policy of neutrality and trade with both France and the United Kingdom and joined the League of Armed Neutrality with Russia, Sweden and Prussia. The British considered this a hostile act and attacked Copenhagen in both 1801 and 1807, in one case carrying off the Danish fleet, in the other, burning large parts of the Danish capital. This led to the so-called Danish-British Gunboat War, but the British control of the waterways between Denmark and Norway proved disastrous to the union's economy and in 1813, Denmark-Norway went bankrupt. The Danish-Norwegian union was dissolved by the Treaty of Kiel in 1814. Norway entered a new union with Sweden which lasted until 1905. Denmark kept the colonies of Iceland, Faroe Islands and Greenland. Apart from the Nordic colonies, Denmark ruled over Danish India (Tranquebar in India) from 1620 to 1869, the Danish Gold Coast (Ghana) from 1658 to 1850, and the Danish West Indies (the U.S. Virgin Islands) from 1671 to 1917.

Constitutional monarchy



Den Grundlovsgivende Rigsforsamling (The founding fathers of the Danish constitution), 1860–1864 painting by Constantin Hansen.

The Danish liberal and national movement gained momentum in the 1830s, and after the European Revolutions of 1848 Denmark peacefully became a constitutional monarchy on 5 June 1849. After the Second War of Schleswig (Danish: *Slesvig*) in 1864, Denmark was forced to cede Schleswig and Holstein to Prussia, in a defeat that left deep marks on the Danish national identity. After these events, Denmark returned to its traditional policy of neutrality.

After the defeat of Germany in World War I, the Versailles powers offered to return the then-German region of Schleswig-Holstein to Denmark. Fearing German irredentism, Denmark refused to consider the return of the area and insisted on a plebiscite concerning the return of Schleswig. The two Schleswig Plebiscites took place on 10 February and 14 March, respectively. On 10 July 1920, after the plebiscite and the King's signature (9 July) on the reunion document, Northern Schleswig (Sønderjylland) was recovered by Denmark, thereby adding 163,600 inhabitants and 3,984 km². The reunion day (Genforeningsdag) is celebrated every year 15 June on Valdemarsdag.



Denmark became a member of the European Union in 1973 and signed the Lisbon Treaty in 2007.

Germany's invasion of Denmark on 9 April 1940 – code named Operation Weserübung – met only two hours of military resistance before the Danish government surrendered. Economic co-operation between Germany and Denmark continued until 1943, when the Danish government refused further co-operation and its navy sank most of its ships and sent as many of their officers as they could to Sweden. During the war, the government was helpful towards the Danish Jewish minority, and the Danish resistance performed a rescue operation that managed to get most of them to Sweden and safety shortly before the Germans planned to round up the Danish Jews. Denmark led many "inside operations" or sabotage against the German facilities. Iceland severed ties to Denmark and became an

independent republic, and in 1948, the Faroe Islands gained home rule.

After the war, Denmark became one of the founding members of the United Nations and NATO, and in 1973, along with Britain and Ireland, joined the European Economic Community (now the European Union) after a public referendum. The Maastricht treaty was ratified after a further referendum in 1993 and the subsequent addition of concessions for Denmark under the Edinburgh Agreement. Greenland gained home rule in 1979 and was awarded self-determination in 2009. Neither Greenland nor the Faroe Islands are members of the European Union, the Faroese declining membership in EEC from 1973 and Greenland from 1986, in both cases because of fisheries policies.

Despite its modest size, Denmark has been participating in major UN sanctioned, and often NATO led, military and humanitarian operations notably including: Cyprus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Korea, Egypt, Croatia, Kosovo, Ethiopia, Afghanistan, Iraq, Somalia and recently Libya. In 2009 Anders Fogh Rasmussen resigned as Prime Minister of Denmark to become the Secretary General of NATO.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Denmark



Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark

Denmark shares a border of 68 kilometres with Germany to the south and is otherwise surrounded by 7,314 kilometres of tidal shoreline (including small bays and inlets). It occupies 43,094 square kilometres. Since 2000 Denmark has been connected by the Øresund Bridge to southern Sweden.

Denmark's northernmost point is Skagens point (the north beach of the Skaw) at 57° 45' 7" northern latitude; the southernmost is Gedser point (the southern tip of Falster) at 54° 33' 35" northern latitude; the westernmost point is Blåvandshuk at 8° 4' 22" eastern longitude; and the easternmost point is Østerskær at 15° 11' 55" eastern longitude. This is in the archipelago Ertholmene 18 kilometres northeast of Bornholm. The distance from east to west is 452 kilometres (281 mi), from north to south 368 kilometres (229 mi).



Map of Denmark

Denmark consists of the peninsula of Jutland and 443 named islands (1,419 islands above 100 m² in total).[27] Of these, 72 are inhabited,[28] with the largest being Zealand and Funen. The island of Bornholm is located east of the rest of the country, in the Baltic Sea. Many of the larger islands are connected by bridges; the Øresund Bridge connects Zealand with Sweden; the Great Belt Bridge connects Funen with Zealand; and the Little Belt Bridge connects Jutland with Funen. Ferries or small aircraft connect to the smaller islands. The largest cities with populations over 100,000 are the capital Copenhagen on Zealand; Århus, Aalborg in Jutland; and Odense on Funen.

The country is flat with little elevation; having an average height above sea level of 31 metres (102 ft). The highest natural point is Møllehøj, at 170.86 metres (560.56 ft). The area of inland water is 700 km^2 (270 sq mi).

Denmark's tidal shoreline is 7,314 km (4,545 mi).[29] No location in Denmark is further from the coast than 52 km (32 mi). The size of the land area of Denmark cannot be stated exactly since the ocean constantly erodes and adds material to the coastline, and because of human land reclamation projects (to counter erosion). On the southwest

coast of Jutland, the tide is between 1 and 2 m (3.28 and 6.56 ft), and the tideline moves outward and inward on a 10 km (6.2 mi) stretch.[30]

Phytogeographically, Denmark (including Greenland and the Faroe Islands) belongs to the Boreal Kingdom and is shared between the Arctic, Atlantic European and Central European provinces of the Circumboreal Region. According to the World Wide Fund for Nature, the territory of Denmark can be subdivided into two ecoregions: the Atlantic mixed forests and Baltic mixed forests. The Faroe Islands are covered by the Faroe Islands boreal grasslands, while Greenland hosts the ecoregions of Kalaallit Nunaat high arctic tundra and Kalaallit Nunaat low arctic tundra.

Climate



Denmark seen from space

The climate in Denmark is temperate, characterised by mild winters, with mean temperatures in January and February of 0.0 °C, and the summers are cool, with a mean temperature in August of 15.7 °C.[31] Denmark has an average of 121 days per year with precipitation, on average receiving a total of 712 mm per year; autumn is the wettest season and spring the driest.[31]

Because of Denmark's northern location, the length of the day with sunlight varies greatly. There are short days during the winter with sunrise coming around 8:45 am and sunset 3:45 pm, as well as long summer days with sunrise at 4:30 am and sunset at 10 pm[32]



Grenen near Skagen, Denmark's northmost point

Environment

Denmark has historically taken a progressive stance on environmental preservation; in 1971 Denmark established a Ministry of Environment and was the first country in the world to implement an environmental law in 1973.[33] To mitigate environmental degradation and global warming the Danish Government has signed the following international agreements: Antarctic Treaty; Climate Change-Kyoto Protocol; Endangered Species Act[1]

Copenhagen is the spearhead of the bright green environmental movement in Denmark. In 2008, Copenhagen was mentioned by Clean Edge as one of the key cleantech clusters to watch in the book *The Cleantech Revolution*.[34] The city is the focal point for more than half of Denmark's 700 cleantech companies and draws on some 46 research institutions. The cluster employs more than 60,000 people and is characterised by a close collaboration between universities, business and governing institutions. The capital's most important cleantech research institutions are the University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen Business School,[35] Risø DTU National Laboratory for Sustainable Energy and the Technical University of Denmark which Risø is now part of. Leading up to the 2009 United Nations Climate Change Conference the University of Copenhagen held the Climate Change: Global Risks, Challenges and Decisions conference where the need for comprehensive action to mitigate climate change was stressed by the international scientific community. Notable figures such as Rajendra K. Pachauri, Chairman of the IPCC, Professor Nicholas Stern, author of the Stern Report and Professor Daniel Kammen all emphasised the good example set by Copenhagen and Denmark in capitalising on cleantech and achieving economic growth while stabilising carbon emissions.

Denmark's green house gas emissions per dollar of value produced has been for the most part unstable since 1990, seeing sudden growths and falls. Overall though, there has been a reduction in gas emissions per dollar value added

to its market.[36] It lags behind other Scandinavian countries such as Norway[37] and Sweden.[38]

Politics

Main articles: Politics of Denmark and Government of Denmark



Queen Margrethe II of Denmark.

The Kingdom of Denmark is a constitutional monarchy. The current and reigning monarch is Queen Margrethe II. As stipulated in the Danish Constitution, the monarch is not answerable for their actions, and their person is sacrosanct.[39] The monarch formally appoints and dismisses the prime minister and other ministers. The prime minister is customarily chosen through negotiation between the parliament party leaders.



Christiansborg Palace, where the Folketing and the courts meet.

The Folketing is the national legislature. In theory it has the ultimate legislative authority according to the doctrine of parliamentary sovereignty, it is able to legislate on any matter and not bound by decisions of its predecessors. However questions over sovereignty have been brought forward because of Denmark's entry into the European Union. Parliament consists of 175 members elected by proportional majority, plus two members each from Greenland and the Faroe Islands.[40] Parliamentary elections are held at least every four years, but it is within the powers of the prime minister to ask the monarch to call for an election before the term has elapsed. On a vote of no confidence, the parliament may force a single minister or the entire government to resign.[41]

The Danish political system has traditionally generated coalitions. Most Danish post-war governments have been minority coalitions ruling with the support of non-government parties.[42]

Executive authority is exercised on behalf of the monarch by the prime minister and other cabinet ministers who head departments. The cabinet, prime minister and other ministers collectively make up the government.

Legislative authority is vested in the executive and the legislature conjointly, although as noted the legislature remains supreme. Judicial authority lies with the courts of justice.[43]



Prime Minister of Denmark, Helle Thorning-Schmidt.

Anders Fogh Rasmussen from the Venstre party, a center-right liberal party was prime minister from November 2001 to April 2009. His government was a coalition consisting of Venstre and the Conservative People's Party, with parliamentary support from the national-conservative Danish People's Party (Dansk Folkeparti). The three parties obtained a parliamentary majority in the 2001 election and maintained it virtually unchanged in the 2005 election. On 24 October 2007, an early election was called by the Prime Minister for 13 November. Following the election the Danish People's Party was strengthened while Anders Fogh Rasmussen's Venstre lost 6 seats and the Conservative People's Party retained the same number of seats in Parliament as prior to the election. The result ensured that Anders Fogh Rasmussen could continue as prime minister for a third term.

With the parliamentary election held September 2011 the right wing, led by Lars Løkke Rasmussen, lost by a small margin to the opposing coalition, led by Helle Thorning-Schmidt who on 3 October 2011 formed a new government

consisting of the Social Democratic Party, Danish Social Liberal Party and Socialist People's Party.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Denmark

Danish foreign policy is based on its identity as a sovereign nation in Europe. As such its primary foreign policy focus is on its relations with other nations as a sovereign independent nation. Denmark has long had good relations with other nations. It has been involved in coordinating Western assistance to the Baltic states (Estonia,[44] Latvia, and Lithuania).[45] The country is a strong supporter of international peacekeeping.

Denmark is today pursuing an active foreign policy, where human rights, democracy and other crucial values are to be defended actively. In recent years Greenland and The Faroe Islands have been guaranteed a say in foreign policy issues such as fishing, whaling, and geopolitical concerns.

Military

Main articles: Danish Defence and Military history of Denmark



Group of Danish MP-soldiers.

Denmark's armed forces are known as the Danish Defence (Danish: *Forsvaret*). During peacetime, the Ministry of Defence in Denmark employs around 33,000 in total. The main military branches employ almost 27,000: 15,460 in the Royal Danish Army, 5,300 in the Royal Danish Navy and 6,050 in the Royal Danish Air Force (all including conscripts).



HDMS Absalon.

The Danish Emergency Management Agency (Danish: *Beredskabsstyrelsen*) employs 2,000 (including conscripts), and about 4,000 are in non-branch-specific services like the Danish Defence Command, the Danish Defence Research Establishment and the Danish Defence Intelligence Service. Furthermore around 55,000 serve as volunteers in the Danish Home Guard (Danish: *Hjemmeværnet*).

The Danish Defence has around 1,400[46] staff in international missions, not including standing contributions to NATO SNMCMG1. The three largest contributions are in Afghanistan (ISAF), Kosovo (KFOR) and Lebanon (UNIFIL). Between 2003 and 2007, there were approximately 450 Danish soldiers in Iraq.[47]

Administrative divisions

Main articles: Regions of Denmark and Municipalities of Denmark

Denmark proper is divided into five regions (Danish: *regioner*, singular: *region*) and a total of 98 municipalities. The regions were created on 1 January 2007 to replace the former counties. At the same time, smaller municipalities were merged into larger units, cutting the number of municipalities from 270 to 98. Most municipalities have a population of at least 20,000 people to give them financial and professional sustainability, although a few exceptions were made to this rule.[48] The most important

area of responsibility for regions is the national health service. Unlike the former counties, the regions are not allowed to levy taxes, and the health service is primarily financed by a national health care contribution of 8% (Danish: *sundhedsbidrag*) combined with funds from both government and municipalities.[49] Municipalities and regions are led by directly elected councils, elected every four years. The last Danish local elections were held on 17 November 2009.

The Ertholmene archipelago, with a population of 96 (2008), is neither part of a municipality nor a region but belongs to the Ministry of Defence.[50]



Regions							Municipalities
English name	**Denmark name**	**Seat of administration**	**Largest city**	**Population (1 January 2008)**	**Area (km²)**	**Density (pop. per km²)**	**No. of municipalities**
Capital Region of Denmark	Region Hovedstaden	Hillerød	Copenhagen	1,645,825	2,561	642.6	29 (list)
Central Denmark Region	Region Midtjylland	Viborg	Århus	1,237,041	13,142	94.2	19 (list)
North Denmark Region	Region Nordjylland	Aalborg	Aalborg	578,839	7,927	73.2	11 (list)
Region Zealand	Region Sjælland	Sorø	Roskilde	819,427	7,273	112.7	17 (list)
Region of Southern Denmark	Region Syddanmark	Vejle	Odense	1,194,659	12,191	97.99	22 (list)

Greenland and the Faroe Islands

Further information: Danish Realm

The Kingdom of Denmark is a unitary state, however Greenland and the Faroe Islands were granted autonomy in 1948 and 1979 respectively, having previously had the status of counties.[51][52] Extensive powers have been devolved to Greenland and the Faroe Islands which have their own governments and legislatures and are effectively self-governing in regards to domestic affairs.[52] However, the devolved legislatures are subordinate to the Folketing where the two territories are represented by two seats each. High Commissioners (Danish: *Rigsombudsmand*) act as representatives of the Danish government.[52]

Country	Legislature	Population (2011 estimate)	Area (km²)	Density (pop per km²)

Denmark	Folketing	5,564,219	43,075	129
Faroe Islands	Løgting	49,267	1,399	35
Greenland	Landsting	56,615	2,166,086	0.027
Total Danish Realm	Folketing	5,670,101	2,220,097	2.6



The Kingdom of Denmark (Denmark, Greenland and the Faroe Islands).

Economy

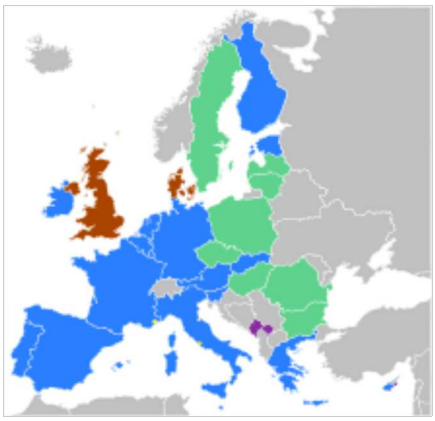
Main article: Economy of Denmark

Denmark's mixed economy features high amount of free trade. Denmark ranks 16th in the world in terms of GDP (PPP) per capita and ranks 5th in nominal GDP per capita.

According to World Bank Group, Denmark has the most flexible labour market in Europe; the policy is called flexicurity. It is easy to hire and fire (flexibility), and between jobs, unemployment compensation is very high (security). Denmark has a labour force of about 2.9 million. Denmark has the fourth highest ratio of tertiary degree holders in the world.[53] GDP per hour worked was the 13th highest in 2009. Denmark has the world's lowest level of income inequality, according to the UN, and the world's highest minimum wage, according to the IMF. As of June 2010 the unemployment rate is at 7.4%, which is below the EU average of 9.6%.[54]

Denmark is one of the most competitive economies in the world according to World Economic Forum 2008 report, IMD and The Economist.[55] According to rankings by OECD, Denmark has the most free financial markets in EU-15 and also one of the most free product markets.

Denmark has a company tax rate of 25% and a special time limited tax regime for expatriates.[56] The Danish taxation system is broad based, with a 25% VAT, in addition to excise taxes, income taxes and other fees. The overall tax burden (sum of all taxes, as a percentage of GDP) is estimated to be 46% in 2011.[57]



Denmark is part of the Schengen Area and the EU single market.

Denmark's currency, the *krone*, is pegged at approximately 7.46 kroner per euro through the ERM. The exchange rate. Although a September 2000 referendum rejected adopting the euro,[58] the country in practice follows the policies set forth in the Economic and Monetary Union of the European Union and meets the economic convergence criteria needed to adopt the euro. The majority of the political parties in the parliament are for the euro, but as yet a new referendum has not been held, despite plans;[59] skepticism of the EU among Danish voters has historically been strong.

Denmark is known for the Danish cooperative movement within among others farming, the food industry (Danish Crown), dairy production (Arla Foods), retailing (Brugsen), wind turbine cooperatives and co-housing associations.

Support for free trade is high – in a 2007 poll 76% responded that globalisation is a good thing.[60] 70% of trade flows are inside the European Union. Denmark has the 9th highest export per capita in the world. Denmark's main exports are: industrial production/manufactured goods 73.3% (of which machinery and instruments were 21.4%, and fuels, chemicals, etc. 26%); agricultural products and others for consumption 18.7% (in 2009 meat and meat products were 5.5% of total export; fish and fish products 2.9%).[1] Denmark is a net exporter of food and energy and has for a number of years had a balance of payments surplus while battling an equivalent of approximately 39%

of GNP foreign debt or more than 300 billion DKK.[61]

Denmark has ranked as the world's 11th most free economy, of 162 countries, in an index created by the Wall Street Journal and Heritage Foundation, the Index of Economic Freedom 2008. The Index has been categorised as using inappropriately weighted indicators for economic freedom, leading to wealthy and/or conservative countries with barriers to trade placing high on the list, while poor and/or socialist countries with fewer restrictions on trade place low.[62] The Index has only a 10% statistical correlation with a standard measure of economic growth at GDP per capita.[63] Neither does the Index account for the actions of governments to nurture business[64] in the manner of the Japanese Zaibatsus during the late 20th century that helped lead to the Japanese economic miracle. After rising to eighth place in 2011, Denmark fell back to the 11th place in the 2012 Index of Economic Freedom.[65]

StatBank is the name of a large statistical database maintained by the central authority of statistics in Denmark. Online distribution of statistics has been a part of the dissemination strategy in Denmark since 1985. By this service, Denmark is a leading country in the world regarding electronic dissemination of statistics. There are about 2 million hits every year.

Energy

Main article: Energy in Denmark



Offshore wind turbines near Copenhagen

Denmark has considerable sources of oil and natural gas in the North Sea and ranks as number 32 in the world among net exporters of crude oil.[66] Most electricity is produced from coal, but 16–19% of electricity demand is supplied through wind turbines.[67] Denmark is a long time leader in wind energy, and as of May 2011 Denmark derives 3.1% of its gross domestic product from renewable (clean) energy technology and energy efficiency, or around €6.5 billion ($9.4 billion).[68] Denmark is connected by transmission lines to other European countries.

Transport

Main article: Transport in Denmark



Copenhagen Airport is the 15th busiest airport in Europe.

Significant investment has been made in building road and rail links between regions in Denmark, most notably the Great Belt Fixed Link, which connects Zealand and Funen. It is now possible to drive from Frederikshavn in northern Jutland to Copenhagen on eastern Zealand without leaving the motorway. The main railway operator is DSB for passenger services and DB Schenker Rail for freight trains. The railway tracks are maintained by Banedanmark. Copenhagen has a small Metro system, the Copenhagen Metro, and the greater Copenhagen area has an extensive electrified suburban railway network, the S-train. Denmark's national airline (together with Norway and Sweden) is Scandinavian Airlines (SAS), and Copenhagen Airport is the largest in Scandinavia. A ferry link to the Faroe Islands is maintained by Smyril Line. Other international ferry services are mainly operated by DFDS (to Norway and the UK), Scandlines (to Germany and Sweden), Stena Line (to Norway, Sweden, and Poland), Color Line (to Norway), and FjordLine (to Norway).

Private vehicles are increasingly used as a means of transport. Because of the high registration tax (180%), VAT (25%), and the world's highest income tax rate, new cars are very expensive. The purpose of the tax is to discourage car ownership. The car fleet has increased by 45% over the last 30 years. In 2007 an attempt was made by the government to favor environmentally-friendly cars by slightly reducing taxes on high mileage vehicles. However,

this has had little effect, and in 2008 Denmark experienced an increase in the import of fuel inefficient old cars (mostly older than 10 years),[69] primarily from Germany, as the cost for older cars—including taxes—keeps them within the budget of many Danes.


Copenhagen Central Station with S-Trains

Bicycling in Denmark is a common form of transportation, particularly for the young and for city dwellers. With a network of bicycle routes extending more than 12,000 km[70] and an estimated 7,000 km[71] of segregated dedicated bicycle paths and lanes, Denmark has a solid bicycle infrastructure.

Denmark has integrated fluctuating and unpredictable energy sources such as wind power into the grid. Denmark now aims to focus on intelligent battery systems (V2G) and plug-in vehicles in the transport sector.[72][73]

Public policy

See also: Nordic model and Flexicurity

After deregulating the labour market in the 1990s, Denmark has one of the most free labour markets in European countries. According to World Bank labour market rankings, the labour market flexibility is at the same levels as the United States. Around 80% of employees belong to unions and the unemployment funds that are attached to them. Labour market policies are mainly determined in negotiations between the workers' unions and employers' unions, and the government only interferes if labour strikes extend for too long.

Despite the success of the trade unions, a growing number of people make contracts individually rather than collectively, and many (four out of ten employees) are contemplating dropping especially unemployment fund but occasionally even union membership altogether. The average employee receives a benefit at 47% of their wage level if they have to claim benefits when unemployed. With low unemployment, very few expect to be claiming benefits at all. The only reason then to pay the earmarked money to the unemployment fund would be to retire early and receive early retirement pay (*efterløn*), which is possible from the age of 60 provided an additional earmarked contribution is paid to the unemployment fund.[74]

The unemployment rate for December 2007 was 2.7%, for a total of 74,900 persons, a reduction by 112,800 persons—2,400 per month—or 60% since December 2003.[75] The Eurostat unemployment number for August 2008 is 2.9%. This has been achieved by employing more than 38% (800,000 people)[76] of the total workforce in public sector jobs. Another measure of the situation on the labour market is the employment rate, that is the percentage of people aged 15 to 64 in employment out of the total number of people aged 15 to 64. The employment rate for Denmark in 2007 was 77.1% according to Eurostat. Of all countries in the world, only Switzerland with 78.% and Iceland with 85.1% had a higher employment rate.

In December 2008, Statistics Denmark reported that 100,000 Danes were affected by unemployment in the third quarter of 2008. Of these, 62% received a job within two months, and 6% had been unemployed for two years or more.

The number of unemployed is forecast to be 65,000 in 2015. The number of people in the working age group, less disability pensioners etc., will grow by 10,000 to 2,860,000, and jobs by 70,000 to 2,790,000;[77] part time jobs are included.[78] Because of the present high demand and short supply of skilled labour, for instance for factory and service jobs, including hospital nurses and physicians, the annual average working hours have risen, especially compared with the recession 1987–1993.[79] Increasingly, service workers of all kinds are in demand, i.e. in the

postal services and as bus drivers, and academics.[80] In the fall of 2007, more than 250,000 foreigners are working in the country, of which 23,000 still reside in Germany or Sweden.[81] According to a sampling survey of over 14,000 enterprises from December 2007 to April 2008 39,000 jobs were not filled, a number much lower than earlier surveys, confirming a downturn in the economic cycle.[82]

The level of unemployment benefits is dependent on former employment (the maximum benefit is at 90% of the wage) and at times also on membership of an unemployment fund, which is almost always—but need not be—administered by a trade union, and the previous payment of contributions. However, the largest share of the financing is still carried by the central government and is financed by general taxation, and only to a minor degree from earmarked contributions. There is no taxation, however, on proceeds gained from selling one´s home (provided there *was* any home equity (da:*friværdi*)), as the marginal tax rate on capital income from housing savings is around 0%.[83]

The Danish welfare model is accompanied by a taxation system that is both broad based (25% VAT, not including excise, duty and tax) and with a progressive income tax model, meaning the more money that is earned, the higher income tax percentage that gets paid (minimum tax rate for adults is 42% scaling to over 60%, except for the residents of Ertholmene that escape the otherwise ubiquitous 8% healthcare tax fraction of the income taxes[84][85]). Other taxes include the registration tax on private vehicles, at a rate of 180%, on top of VAT. Lately (July 2007) this has been changed slightly in an attempt to favor more fuel efficient cars but maintaining the average taxation level more or less unchanged.[86]

Demographics

Main articles: Demographics of Denmark and Languages of Denmark


Ærøskøbing, a traditional Danish town

According to 2012 figures from Statistics Denmark, 89.6% of Denmark's population of over 5,580,516 was of Danish descent.[87] Many of the remaining 10.6% were immigrants—or descendants of recent immigrants—from Bosnia and Herzegovina, neighboring countries, South Asia, and Western Asia. Many have arrived since the "Alien law" (*Udlændingeloven*) was enacted in 1983, which allows for the immigration of family members of those who had already arrived. There are also small groups of Inuit from Greenland and Faroese. During recent years, anti mass-immigration sentiment has resulted in some of the toughest immigration laws in the European Union.[88][89] The number of residence permits granted related to labour and to people from within the EU/EEA has increased since implementation of new immigration laws in 2001. The number of immigrants allowed into Denmark for family reunification decreased 70% between 2001 and 2006 to 4,198. During the same period the number of asylum permits granted has decreased by 82.5% to 1,095, reflecting a 84% decrease in asylum seekers to 1,960.[90]

Denmark's population is 5,475,791, giving Denmark a population density of 129.16 inhabitants per km² (334.53 per sq mi).[91] As in most countries, the population is not distributed evenly. Although the land area east of the Great Belt only makes up 9,622 km^2 (3,715 sq mi), 22.7% of Denmark's land area, it has 45% (2,465,348) of the population. The average population density of this area is 256.2 inhabitants per km² (663.6 per sq mi). The average density in the west of the country (32,772 km²/12,653 sq mi) is 91.86/km² (237.91 per sq mi) (3,010,443 people) (2008).

The median age is 39.8 years, with 0.98 males per female. 98.2% of the population (age 15 and up) is literate. The birth rate is 1.74 children born per woman (2006 est.). Despite the low birth rate, the population is still growing at

an average annual rate of 0.33%.[1] An international study conducted by Adrian White at Leicester University in 2006 showed that the population of Denmark had the highest life satisfaction in the world.[92]

Danish is the official language and is spoken throughout the country. English and German are the most widely-spoken foreign languages.

A total of 1,516,126 Americans reported Danish ancestry in the 2006 American Community Survey.[93] According to the 2006 census, there were 200,035 Canadians with Danish background.[94]

Religion

Main article: Religion in Denmark



A typical Danish church built c. 1200

According to official statistics from January 2011, 80.4%[98] of the population of Denmark are members of the Danish National Church (*Den Danske Folkekirke*), a Lutheran church that was made the official state religion by the Constitution of Denmark. This is down 0.6% compared to the year earlier and 1.2% down compared to two years earlier. Article 6 of the Constitution states that the Royal Family must belong to this Church, though the rest of the population is free to adhere to other faiths. About 15% of the Danes do not belong to any denomination.

Church of Denmark

year	population	members	percentage
1984	5,113,500	4,684,060	91.6%
1990	5,135,409	4,584,450	89.3%
2000	5,330,500	4,536,422	85.1%
2005	5,413,600	4,498,703	83.3%
2007	5,447,100	4,499,343	82.6%
2008	5,475,791	4,494,589	82.1%
2009	5,511,451	4,492,121	81.5%
2010	5,534,738	4,479,214	80.9%
2011	5,560.628	4,469,109	80.4%

statistical data 1984–2002,[95] 1990–2009[96] and 2010–2011.[97] Source Kirkeministeriet

Denmark's Muslims make up less than 2% of the population and form the country's second largest religious community. As per an overview of various religions and denominations by the Danish Foreign Ministry, other groups comprise less than 1% of the population individually and approximately 2% when taken all together.[99]

According to the most recent Eurobarometer Poll 2005,[100] 31% of Danish citizens responded that "they believe there is a God", whereas 49% answered that "they believe there is some sort of spirit or life force" and 19% that "they do not believe there is any sort of spirit, God or life force".

For more than a hundred years after the Reformation, Lutheranism was the only legal religion in Denmark, but in 1682 the state granted limited recognition to three other faiths: Roman Catholicism, the Reformed Church and Judaism[*citation needed*]. Until the recent immigration of Muslims, these three were practically the only non-Lutheran religions practiced in Denmark. As of 2005, 19 Muslim communities have been officially recognised. Forn Siðr (English: Old Custom), based on the much older, native pagan religion, gained official recognition in November 2003.[101]

Religious societies and churches do not need official government recognition in Denmark. They can be granted the right to perform weddings and other ceremonies without this recognition.

Education

Main article: Education in Denmark



Rundetårn (Round Tower), an old observatory in the University of Copenhagen, Denmark's oldest and largest university

The Danish education system provides access to primary school, secondary school and most kinds of higher education. Attendance at "Folkeskole" or equivalent education is compulsory for a minimum of 10 years (aged 6 to 16). Equivalent education could be in private schools or classes attended at home. About 99% of students attend primary school, 86% attend secondary school, and 41% pursue further education. All college education in Denmark is free; there are no tuition fees to enroll in courses. Students in secondary school or higher and aged 18 or above may apply for student support which provides fixed financial support, disbursed monthly.

Primary school in Denmark is called "den Danske Folkeskole" ("Danish Public School"). It runs from the introductory "kindergarten class"/0'th grade ("børnehaveklasse"/ "0. Klasse") to 10th grade, though 10th grade is optional. Pupils can alternatively attend "free schools" ("Friskole"), or private schools ("Privatskole"), i.e. schools that are not under the administration of the municipalities, such as Christian schools or Waldorf schools. The Programme for International Student Assessment, coordinated by the OECD, ranked Denmark's education as the 24th best in the world in 2006, being neither significantly higher nor lower than the OECD average.[102]

Following graduation from *Folkeskolen*, there are several other educational opportunities, including *Gymnasium* (academically oriented upper secondary education), Higher Preparatory Examination (HF) (similar to *Gymnasium*, but one year shorter), Higher Technical Examination Programme (HTX) (with focus on mathematics and engineering), and Higher Commercial Examination Programme (HHX) (with a focus on trade and business), as well as vocational education, training young people for work in specific trades by a combination of teaching and apprenticeship.

Gymnasium (STX), HF, HTX and HHX aim at qualifying pupils for higher education in universities and colleges. Denmark also teaches the IB Diploma.

Denmark has several universities; the largest and oldest are the University of Copenhagen (founded 1479) and Aarhus University (founded 1928). There are thirteen Danish Nobel laureates.[103]

Danish universities and other Danish higher education institutions also offer international students a range of opportunities for obtaining an internationally recognised qualification in Denmark. Many programmes are taught in English, including Bachelor´s, Master´s, PhD, exchange and summer school programmes [104]

Folkehøjskolerne, ("Folk high schools") introduced by politician, clergyman and poet N.F.S. Grundtvig in the 19th century, are social, informal education structures without tests or grades but with an emphasis on communal learning, self-discovery, enlightenment and learning how to develop your own opinions through open debate. Grundtvig helped to develop an understanding of the relationship between individual and society, and he has had a significant influence on the didactic ideas underlying Danish education.[105]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Denmark

See also: List of Danes

Hans Christian Andersen is known beyond Denmark for his fairy tales, such as *The Emperor's New Clothes*, *The Little Mermaid* and *The Ugly Duckling*. Karen Blixen (pen name: *Isak Dinesen*), Nobel laureate author Henrik Pontoppidan, Nobel laureate physicist Niels Bohr, comedy pianist Victor Borge and philosopher Søren Kierkegaard

have also made a name for themselves outside Denmark.



"Summer Evening on the Skagen Southern Beach with Anna Ancher and Marie Krøyer, P.S. Krøyer, 1893

Copenhagen is home to many famous sites and attractions, including Tivoli Gardens, Amalienborg Palace (home of the Danish monarchy), Christiansborg Palace, Copenhagen Cathedral, Rosenborg Castle, Opera House, Frederik's Church (Marble Church), Thorvaldsens Museum, Rundetårn, Nyhavn and the Little Mermaid sculpture.[106] Copenhagen was ranked the most liveable city in the world in 2008 by *Monocle* magazine, (currently it is their third most liveable city).[107]

The second largest city in Denmark is Aarhus. Aarhus is an old Viking Age city and one of the oldest cities in the country. The largest cathedral in Denmark and the second largest cathedral in Northern Europe is Aarhus Cathedral.

Historically, Denmark, like its Scandinavian neighbors, has been one of the most socially progressive cultures in the world. For example, in 1969, Denmark was the first country to legalise pornography.[108] And in 1989, Denmark enacted a registered partnership law, becoming the first country in the world to grant same-sex couples nearly all of the rights and responsibilities of marriage.[109]

Architecture

Main article: Architecture of Denmark



St Peter's Church in Næstved (1375)

Denmark's architecture became firmly established in the Middle Ages when first Romanesque, then Gothic churches and cathedrals sprang up throughout the country. From the 16th century, Dutch and Flemish designers were brought to Denmark, initially to improve the country's fortifications, but increasingly to build magnificent royal castles and palaces in the Renaissance style. During the 17th century, many impressive buildings were built in the Baroque style, both in the capital and the provinces. Neoclassicism from France was slowly adopted by native Danish architects who increasingly participated in defining architectural style. A productive period of Historicism ultimately merged into the 19th century National Romantic style.[110]

It was not, however, until the 1960s that Danish architects such as Arne Jacobsen entered the world scene with their highly successful Functionalism. This, in turn, has evolved into more recent world-class masterpieces including Jørn Utzon's Sydney Opera House and Johann Otto von Spreckelsen's Grande Arche de la Défense in Paris, paving the way for a number of contemporary Danish designers such as Bjarke Ingels to be rewarded for excellence both at home and abroad.[111]

Art

Main article: Danish art

While Danish art was influenced over the centuries by trends in Germany and the Netherlands, the 15th and 16th century church frescos which can be seen in many of the country's older churches are of particular interest as they were painted in a style typical of native Danish painters.[112]

The Danish Golden Age, which began in the first half of the 19th century, was inspired by a new feeling of nationalism and romanticism. Christoffer Wilhelm Eckersberg was not only a productive artist in his own right but

taught at the Royal Danish Academy of Fine Arts where his students included notable painters such as Wilhelm Bendz, Christen Købke, Martinus Rørbye, Constantin Hansen, and Wilhelm Marstrand. The sculpture of Bertel Thorvaldsen was also significant during this period.[113]



Christoffer Wilhelm Eckersberg, *Woman in front of a Mirror* (1841)

In 1871, Holger Drachmann and Karl Madsen visited Skagen in the far north of Jutland where they quickly built up one of Scandinavia's most successful artists' colonies specializing in Naturalism and Realism rather than in the traditional approach favored by the Academy. Hosted by Michael and his wife Anna, they were soon joined by P.S. Krøyer, Carl Locher and Laurits Tuxen. All participated in painting the natural surroundings and local people.[114] Similar trends developed on Funen with the *Fynboerne* who included Johannes Larsen, Fritz Syberg and Peter Hansen,[115] and on the island of Bornholm with the Bornholm school of painters icluduing Niels Lergaard, Kræsten Iversen and Oluf Høst.[116]

Collections of modern art enjoy unusually attractive settings at the Louisiana Museum of Modern Art north of Copenhagen and at the North Jutland Art Museum in Aalborg. Notable artists include the Neo-Expressionist Per Kirkeby,[117] Tal R with his wild and colorful paintings,[118] Olafur Eliasson's space exhibitions[119] and Jeppe Hein's installations.[120]

Cinema

Main article: Cinema of Denmark

The three big internationally important waves of Danish cinema have been the erotic melodrama of the silent era, the increasingly explicit sex films of the 1960s and 1970s, and lastly, the Dogme95-movement of the late 1990s.

Danish filmmakers of note include Benjamin Christensen, Carl Th. Dreyer, Erik Balling, Gabriel Axel, Bille August, Lars von Trier, Nicolas Winding Refn, Thomas Vinterberg, Anders Thomas Jensen and Susanne Bier.

A locally popular film genre is the charmingly good-natured "folkekomedie" (folk comedy), which originated in the 1930s and gained widespread dominance from the 1950s until the 1970s, usually scorned by critics and loved by the audience. Notable folkekomedie-films include *Barken Margrethe* (1934), *De røde heste* (1950), *Far til fire* (1953) and *Olsen-banden* (1968).

Since the 1980s, Danish filmmaking has been important to changing governments. The National Film School of Denmark has educated a generation of new award-winning directors. The funds for film project has been administrated by the Danish Film Institute, but their focus on movies that would achieve high tickets sales locally has been criticised for being both too populist and too narrow-minded, by directors wishing to be artistic or international.

Design

Main article: Danish design

Danish applied art and industrial design have won many international awards. Georg Jensen (1866–1935) is noted for his modern design in silver. The Danish Porcelain Factory ("Royal Copenhagen") is famous for the quality of its ceramics and export products worldwide. Danish design is also a well-known brand, often associated with world-famous designers and architects such as Børge Mogensen, Poul Kjærholm, Hans Wegner, Poul Henningsen and Arne Jacobsen.[121]

The Danish Museum of Art & Design in Copenhagen exhibits the best in Danish design.



Arne Jacobsen's The Swan and the Egg

Literature

Main article: Danish literature



The world-famous Danish poet, Hans Christian Andersen

The first known Danish literature is myths and folk stories from the 10th and 11th century. Saxo Grammaticus, normally considered the first Danish writer, worked for bishop Absalon on a chronicle of Danish history (Gesta Danorum). Very little is known of other Danish literature from the Middle Ages. With the Age of Enlightenment came Ludvig Holberg whose comedy plays are still being performed.

Romanticism influenced world famous writer Hans Christian Andersen known for his stories and fairy tales, e.g. The Ugly Duckling, and contemporary philosopher Søren Kierkegaard greatly influenced existentialism. In the late 19th century, literature was seen as a way to influence society. Known as the Modern Breakthrough, this movement was championed by Georg Brandes, Henrik Pontoppidan (awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature) and J. P. Jacobsen. In recent history Johannes Vilhelm Jensen was also awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature. Karen Blixen is famous for her novels and short stories. Other Danish writers of importance are Grundtvig, Gustav Wied, William Heinesen, Martin Andersen Nexø, Hans Scherfig, Tom Kristensen, Klaus Rifbjerg, Dan Turéll, Tove Ditlevsen, Inger Christensen and Peter Høeg.

Media

Main article: Media of Denmark

Danish media is dominated by a few large corporations. In printed media JP/Politikens Hus and Berlingske Media, between them, control the largest news papers Politiken, Berlingske Tidende and Jyllands Posten and major tabloids BT and Ekstrabladet. In television publicly owned stations Danmarks Radio (DR) and TV2 have large shares of the viewers. In radio DR has a near monopoly, currently broadcasting on all 4 nationally available FM channels, competing only with local stations. The share of Danish people that go online for news and entertainment is growing, however the newspapers and TV stations are still dominant.

Music

Main article: Music of Denmark

Denmark has long been a center of cultural innovation. Copenhagen and its multiple outlying islands have a wide range of folk traditions. The Royal Danish Orchestra is among the world's oldest orchestras. Carl Nielsen, with his six imposing symphonies, was the first Danish composer to gain international recognition, while an extensive recording industry has produced pop stars and a host of performers from a multitude of genres. Internationally only a few artists have gained significant success. Lars Ulrich from Metallica is from Denmark, along with Raveonettes, D-A-D, Volbeat, Mercyful Fate, Medina, Junior Senior, King Diamond, Goodiepal, Whigfield, Michael Learns to Rock, Alphabeat, Infernal, Oh Land, the 1990s pop band Aqua and the alternative rock bands Kashmir and Mew. In recent years, the best selling Danish artist abroad has been Rune RK with the number 1 iTunes hit[122] Calabria

Philosophy

Danish philosophy has a long tradition as part of Western philosophy. Perhaps the most influential Danish philosopher was Søren Kierkegaard, the creator of Christian existentialism, which inspired the philosophical movement of Existentialism. Kierkegaard had a few Danish followers, including Harald Høffding, who later in his life moved on to join the movement of positivism. Among Kierkegaard's other followers include Jean-Paul Sartre who was impressed with Kierkegaard's views on the individual, and Rollo May, who helped create humanistic psychology.

Photography

Main article: Photography in Denmark

Pioneers such as Mads Alstrup and Georg Emil Hansen paved the way for a rapidly growing profession during the last half of the 19th century while both artistic and press photographers have since made internationally recognised contributions. Today Astrid Kruse Jensen and Jacob Aue Sobol participate in key exhibitions around the world.[123]

Cuisine

Main article: Danish cuisine



Danish open sandwich (smørrebrød) on dark rye bread

The cuisine of Denmark, like that in the other Nordic countries as well as that of Northern Germany, consists mainly of meat and fish. This stems from the country's agricultural past, as well as its geography and climate of long, cold winters.

Danish food includes a variety of open rugbrød (Rye-bread) sandwiches or smørrebrød traditionally served for the mid-day meal or *frokost* (lunch). An ordinary *frokost* consists just of 2 to 6 pieces of simple smørrebrød prepared during breakfast and packed in a lunch box. A luxury *frokost* usually starts with fish such as pickled herring, smoked eel or hot fried plaice. Then come meat sandwiches such as cold roast beef with remoulade and fried onions, roast pork and crackling with red cabbage, hot veal medallions, Danish meat balls (*frikadeller*) or liver paté with bacon and mushrooms.

Some typically Danish items are *Sol over Gudhjem*, literally "sun over God's home" (Gudhjem is a town on Bornholm where a lot of herring is landed and smoked), consisting of smoked herring, chives and with raw egg yolk (the "sun") on top; or *Dyrlægens natmad*, 'vet's late-night bite', with liver paté, saltmeat (corned veal), sliced onions and jellied consommé. Finally cheese is served with crackers, radishes, or grapes. Lager beer accompanied by small glasses of *snaps* or aquavit are the preferred drinks for a Danish frokost. Another Danish meal is Danish pastry. It is not made in other places than Denmark. In Danish it is called 'Wienerbrød'.



The large hot meal of the day is called *middag* and is usually served in the evening. It normally consists of meat (pork, beef, lamb or fish) with gravy and a source of starch (non-sugar carbohydrates) such as boiled potatoes, rice or pasta, sometimes supplemented by salad and/or cabbage. This may be followed by a dessert such as ice cream, mousse or rødgrød. The meal may be preceded by soup or hot porridge.

Popular meat dishes include pork steak with crispy skin, frikadeller (fried pork and veal meatballs), fried meat patties made from minced beef, beef tenderloin, "million-beef" (minced beef in gravy), karbonader/krebinetter

Æbleskiver, Small Danish dessert dumplings cooked in a special pan, mostly served during the Christmas season.

(breaded and fried minced meat, typically pork), all kinds of roast etc. Popular combined meat and starch dishes include Spaghetti alla Bolognese, hash etc.

Fish is traditionally more widely eaten on the west coast of Jutland, where fishing is a major industry. Smoked fish dishes (herring, mackerel, eel) from local smoking houses or *røgerier*, especially on the island of Bornholm, are increasingly popular.

In recent years, Copenhagen restaurants like Noma, Geranium and MR has played an important role in re-inventing the Danish and Nordic cuisine, making Copenhagen a centre of gourmet dining with a Nordic twist.

Sports

Main article: Sports in Denmark

Many sports are popular in Denmark. Football (soccer) is the country's most popular sport, with a rich history of international competition. Denmark's numerous beaches and resorts are popular locations for fishing, canoeing, kayaking and a broad-range of other water-themed sports. Other popular sports include golf, tennis, cycling and indoor sports such as badminton, handball and various forms of gymnastics. In speedway racing Denmark has won several world championships, including the Speedway World Cup in 2006 and 2008.

In 1992, the national football team won the European championship. The team finished second in their qualifying group behind Yugoslavia and as a result had failed to qualify for the final tournament. They gained their place in the tournament at the last moment when the Yugoslavia national team and local clubs were banned from all international/continental competitions because of the ongoing Yugoslav Wars. The Danes won the final by defeating reigning 1990 FIFA World Cup champions Germany 2-0 on goals by John Jensen and Kim Vilfort.

As of January 2012, the national handball team are the current reigning European champions and the team with most medals won in European championship history on the men's side with a total of five medals, those being two gold medals (2008, 2012), and three bronze medals (2002, 2004 & 2006).

See also

- Outline of Denmark
- Index of Denmark-related articles

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History of Denmark

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of Denmark** dates back about 12,000 years, to the end of the last ice age, with the earliest evidence of human inhabitation. The Danes were first documented in written sources around 500 AD, including in the writings of Jordanes and Procopius. With the Christianization of the Danes c. 960 AD, it is clear that there existed a kingship in Scandinavia which controlled roughly the current Danish territory. Queen Margrethe II can trace her lineage back to the Viking kings Gorm the Old and Harald Bluetooth from this time, making the Danish Royal Family the oldest in the world.

Denmark's history has particularly been influenced by its geographical location between the North and Baltic seas. This meant that it was between Sweden and Germany and thus at the center of the mutual struggle for control of the Baltic Sea (*dominium maris baltici*). Denmark was long in disputes with Sweden over control of Skånelandene (Scanian War) and Norway, and in disputes with the Hanseatic League over the duchies of Schleswig (a Danish fief) and Holstein (a German fief). Eventually Denmark lost the conflicts and ended up ceding first Skånelandene to Sweden and later Schleswig-Holstein to the German Empire. After the eventual cession of Norway in 1814, Denmark retained control of the old Norwegian colonies of the Faroe Islands, Greenland and Iceland. During the 20th century Iceland gained independence, Greenland and the Faroese became integral parts of the Kingdom of Denmark and North Schleswig reunited with Denmark 1920 after a referendum. During World War II Denmark was occupied by Nazi Germany and liberated in 1945, after which it joined the United Nations.

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Prehistoric Denmark

See also: Neolithic and Bronze Age



The Veksø Helmets, in the National Museum of Denmark.



Copies of the Golden Horns of Gallehus at the National Museum of Denmark



The Dejbjerg wagon, National Museum of Denmark



The Nydam oak boat at Gottorp Castle, Schleswig, Germany

The Weichsel glaciation covered all of Denmark, except the western coasts of Jutland. It ended around 13,000 years ago allowing humans to move back into the previously ice-covered territories and establish permanent habitation. During the first post-glacial millennia the landscape gradually changed from tundra to light forest and

a varied fauna including now extinct Megafauna appeared. The first inhabitants of this early post-glacial landscape in the so-called Boreal period, were very small and scattered populations living from hunting of reindeer and other land mammals and gathering whatever fruits the climate was able to offer. Around 8300 BC the temperature rose drastically, now with summer temperatures around 15 degrees, and the landscape changed into dense forests of aspen, birch and pine and the reindeer moved north, while aurochs and elk arrived from the south. With a continuing rise in temperature the oak, elm and hazel arrived in Denmark around 7000 BC. Now boar, red deer, and roe also began to abound.[1] A burial from Bøgebakken at Vedbæk dates to ca. 6000 BC and contains 22 persons - including four newborns and one toddler. Eight of the 22 had died before reaching 20 years of age - testifying to the hardness of hunter-gatherer life in the cold north.[2] Based on estimates of the amount of game animals scholars estimate the population of Denmark to have been between 3300-8000 persons in the time around 7000 BC.[3] It is believed that the early hunter-gatherers lived nomadically, exploiting different environments at different times of the year, gradually shifting to the use of semi permanent base camps.[4]

With the rising temperatures sea levels also rose, so that in the Atlantic period Denmark, which had been a contiguous landmass around 11000 BC, by 4500 BC was a series of islands. Humans then shifted to a seafood based diet, which allowed the population to increase.



The famous Trundholm sun chariot (called *Solvognen* in Danish), a sculpture of the sun pulled by a mare. Scholars have dated it to some time in the 15th century BC and believe that it illustrates an important concept expressed in Nordic Bronze Age mythology

Agricultural settlers made inroads around 3000 BC. The Nordic Bronze Age period in Denmark featured a culture which buried its dead, with their worldly goods, beneath burial mounds. Many dolmens and rock tombs (especially "passage graves") date from this period. The many finds of bronze from this era include beautiful religious artifacts and musical instruments, and provide the earliest evidence of social classes and stratification.

During the Pre-Roman Iron Age (from the 4th to the 1st century BC), the climate in Denmark and southern Scandinavia became cooler and wetter, limiting agriculture and setting the stage for local groups to migrate southward into Germania. At around this time people began to extract iron from the ore in peat-bogs. Evidence of strong Celtic cultural influence dates from this period in Denmark and in much of northwest Europe, and survives in some of the older place-names.

The Roman provinces, whose frontiers stopped short of Denmark, nevertheless maintained trade-routes and relations with Danish or proto-Danish peoples, as attested by finds of Roman coins. The earliest-known runic inscription dates back to *ca.* 200 — literacy as well probably came from the south. Depletion of cultivated land in the last century BC seems to have contributed to increasing migrations in northern Europe and increasing conflict between Teutonic tribes and Roman settlements in Gaul. Roman artifacts are especially common in finds from the 1st century. It seems clear that some part of the Danish warrior-aristocracy served in the Roman army.[5]

Occasionally during this time, killings occurred and bodies were thrown into bogs. In recent times some of these bog bodies have emerged very well-preserved, providing valuable information about the people who lived in Denmark during this period.

The Germanic Iron Age

Historians refer to the material culture of northern Europe during the mass-migrations of the 5th to the 7th

centuries as the Germanic Iron Age. Some of the best-known remains from the period include the "peat bog corpses", among them the well-preserved bodies of two people deliberately strangled: Tollund Man and Haraldskær Woman.

Middle Ages

Earliest literary sources

Further information: Danes (Germanic tribe)

In his description of Scandza (from the 6th century work, *Getica*), the ancient writer Jordanes says that the **Dani** were of the same stock as the *Suetidi* (Swedes, *Suithiod*?) and expelled the Heruli and took their lands.[6]

The Old English poems *Widsith* and *Beowulf*, as well as works by later Scandinavian writers — notably by Saxo Grammaticus (c. 1200) — provide some of the earliest references to Danes.

Viking Age

Main article: Viking Age



The Ladby ship, the largest ship burial found in Denmark

With the beginning of the Viking Age in the 9th century, the prehistoric period in Denmark ends. The Danish people were amongst those known as the Vikings during the 8th–11th centuries. Viking explorers first discovered and settled in Iceland in the 9th century, on their way from the Faroe Islands. From there, Greenland and Vinland (probably Newfoundland) were also settled. Utilizing their great skills in shipbuilding and navigation they raided and conquered parts of France and the British Isles. But they also excelled in trading along the coasts and rivers of Europe, running trade routes from Greenland in the north to Constantinople in the south via Russian rivers. The Danish Vikings were most active in Britain, Ireland, France, Spain, Portugal and Italy where they raided, conquered and settled (their earliest settlements included sites in the Danelaw, Ireland and Normandy). The Danelaw resulted when Alfred the Great was forced to cede half his kingdom to the Vikings, who then settled there for a time and engaged in peaceful trade, but attacks eventually resumed and the English kings had to pay tribute (Danegeld).

In the early 9th century, Charlemagne's Christian empire had expanded to the southern border of the Danes, and Frankish sources (e.g. Notker of St Gall) provide the earliest historical evidence of the Danes. These report a King Gudfred, who appeared in present day Holstein with a navy in 804 where diplomacy took place with the Franks; In 808, King Gudfred attacked the Obotrite and conquered the city of Reric whose population was displaced or abducted to Hedeby. In 809, King Godfred and emissaries of Charlemagne failed to negotiate peace, despite the sister of Godfred being a concubine of Charlemagne, and the next year King Godfred attacked the Frisians with 200 ships.

Viking raids along the coast of France and the Netherlands were large-scale. Paris was besieged and the Loire Valley devastated during the 10th century. One group of Danes were granted permission to settle in northwestern France under the condition that they defend the place from future attacks. As a result, the region became known as "Normandy" and it was the descendants of these settlers who conquered England in 1066.

In addition, the Danes and Norwegians moved west into the Atlantic Ocean, settling on Iceland, Greenland, and

the Shetland Isles. Brief Vikings expeditions to North America around 1000 did not result in any settlements and they were soon driven off by natives. Other Viking raids into Germany and the Mediterranean were short-lived and had no lasting effect.

The oldest parts of the defensive works of Danevirke near Hedeby at least date from the summer of 755 and were expanded with large works in the 10th century. The size and amount of troops needed to man it indicates a quite powerful ruler in the area, which might be consistent with the kings of the Frankish sources. In 815 AD, Emperor Louis the Pious attacked Jutland apparently in support of a contender to the throne, perhaps Harald Klak, but was turned back by the sons of Godfred, who most likely were the sons of the above mentioned Godfred. At the same time St. Ansgar travelled to Hedeby and started the Catholic Christianisation of Scandinavia.



Map showing Danevirke and Hærvejen

The Danes were united and officially Christianized in 965 AD by Harald Bluetooth (see below), the story of which is recorded on the Jelling stones. The extent of Harald's Danish Kingdom is unknown, although it is reasonable to believe that it stretched from the defensive line of Dannevirke, including the Viking city of Hedeby, across Jutland, the Danish isles and into southern present day Sweden; Scania and perhaps Halland and Blekinge. Furthermore, the Jelling stones attest that Harald had also "won" Norway. In retaliation for the St. Brice's Day massacre of Danes in England, the son of Harald, Sweyn Forkbeard mounted a series of wars of conquest against England. By 1014, England had completely submitted to the Danes. However, distance and a lack of common interests prevented a lasting union, and Harald's son Cnut the Great barely maintained the link between the two countries, which completely broke up during the reign of his son Hardecanute. A final attempt by the Norwegians to reconquer England failed, but did pave the way for William the Conqueror's takeover in 1066.[7]


fortified Viking Town Aros (Aarhus) 950 AD

Following the death of Canute the Great, Denmark and England were left divided and despite some attempts (see below) were never reunited.

Canute thanked the Norwegians for their patience and then went from assembly to assembly (Danish:landsting) outlawing any sailor, captain or soldier who refused to pay a fine which amounted to more than a years harvest for most farmers. Canute and his housecarls fled south with a growing army of rebels on his heels. Canute fled to the royal property outside the town of Odense on Funen with his two brothers. After several attempts to break in and then bloody hand to hand fighting in the church, Benedict was cut down and Canute struck in the head by a large stone and then speared from the front. He died at the base of the main altar 10 July 1086, where he was buried by the Benedictines. When Queen Edele came to take Canute's body to Flanders, a light allegedly shone around the church and it was taken as a sign that Canute should remain where he was.

The death of St. Canute marks the end of the Viking Age. Never again would massive flotillas of Scandinavians meet each year to ravage the rest of Christian Europe.

Christianity, expansion and the establishment of the Kingdom of Denmark



Often regarded as Denmark's "birth certificate", the large Jelling Stone announces the unification and Christinization of Denmark by Harald Bluetooth c. 980

The history of Christianity in Denmark overlaps with that of the Viking Age. Various petty kingdoms existed throughout the area now known as Denmark for many years. Between c. 960 and the early 980s, Harald Bluetooth appears to have established a kingdom in the lands of the Danes which stretched from Jutland to Skåne. Around the same time, he received a visit from a German missionary who, according to legend,[8] survived an ordeal by fire, which convinced Harold to convert to Christianity. The new religion, which replaced the old Norse religious practices, had many advantages for the king. Christianity brought with it some support from the Holy Roman Empire. It also allowed the king to dismiss many of his opponents who adhered to the old mythology. At this early stage there is no evidence that the Danish Church was able to create a stable administration that Harald could use to exercise more effective control over his kingdom, but it may have contributed to the development of a centralising political and religious ideology among the social elite which sustained and enhanced an increasingly powerful kingship.



Scandinavia in 1219[*citation needed*]

- Norway
- Sweden 1330s-1350s
- Denmark
- Conquered by Denmark in 1219
- Sword Brethren

England broke away from Danish control in 1035 and Denmark fell into disarray for some time. Sweyn Estridsen's son, Canute IV, raided England for the last time in 1085. He planned another invasion to take the throne of England from an aging William I. He called up a fleet of 1,000 Danish ships, 60 Norwegian long boats, with plans to meet with another 600 ships under Duke Robert of Flanders in the summer of 1086. Canute, however, was beginning to realise that the imposition of the tithe on Danish peasants and nobles to fund the expansion of monasteries and churches and a new head tax (Danish:nefgjald) had brought his people to the verge of rebellion. Canute took weeks to arrive at Struer where the fleet had assembled, but he found only the Norwegians still there. Canute's nephew Sweyn Estridson (1020–74) re-established strong royal Danish authority and built a good relationship with Archbishop Adalbert of Hamburg-Bremen — at that time the Archbishop of all of Scandinavia.

In the early 12th century Denmark became the seat of an independent church province of Scandinavia. Not long after that, Sweden and Norway established their own archbishoprics, free of Danish control. The mid-12th century proved a difficult time for the kingdom of Denmark. Violent civil wars rocked the land. Eventually, Valdemar the Great (1131–82), gained control of the kingdom, stabilizing it and reorganizing the administration. King Valdemar and Absalon (*ca* 1128–1201), the bishop of Roskilde, rebuilt the country. During Valdemar's reign construction began of a castle in the village of Havn, leading eventually to the foundation of Copenhagen, the modern capital of Denmark. Valdemar and Absalon built Denmark into a major power in the Baltic Sea, a power which later competed with the Hanseatic League, the counts of Holstein, and the Teutonic Knights for trade, territory, and influence throughout the Baltic. In 1168, Valdemar and Absalon gained a foothold on the southern

shore of the Baltic, when they subdued the Principality of Rügen.

In the 1180s, Mecklenburg and the Duchy of Pomerania came under Danish control, too. In the new southern provinces, the Danes promoted Christianity (mission of the Rani, monasteries like Eldena Abbey) and settlement (Danish participation in the *Ostsiedlung*). The Danes lost most of their southern gains after the Battle of Bornhöved (1227), but the Rugian principality stayed with Denmark until 1325.

In 1202, Valdemar II became king and launched various "crusades" to claim territories, notably modern Estonia. Legend has it that the Danish flag, the Dannebrog fell from the sky during the Battle of Lyndanisse in Estonia in 1219. A series of Danish defeats culminating in the Battle of Bornhöved on 22 July 1227 cemented the loss of Denmark's north German territories. Valdemar himself was saved only by the courageous actions of a German knight who carried Valdemar to safety on his horse.

From that time on Valdemar focused his efforts on domestic affairs. One of the changes he instituted was the feudal system where he gave properties to men with the understanding that they owed him service. This increased the power of the noble families (Danish: *højadelen*) and gave rise to the lesser nobles (Danish: *lavadelen*) who controlled most of Denmark. Free peasants lost the traditional rights and privileges they had enjoyed since Viking times.[3]

The king of Denmark had difficulty maintaining control of the kingdom in the face of opposition from the nobility and from the Church. An extended period of strained relations between the crown and the Popes of Rome took place, known as the "archiepiscopal conflicts".

By the late 13th century, royal power had waned, and the nobility forced the king to grant a charter, considered Denmark's first constitution. Following the Battle of Bornhöved in 1227, a weakened Denmark provided windows of opportunity to both the Hanseatic League and the Counts of Holstein. The Holstein Counts gained control of large portions of Denmark because the king would grant them fiefs in exchange for money to finance royal operations.

Valdemar spent the remainder of his life putting together a code of laws for Jutland, Zealand and Skåne. These codes were used as Denmark's legal code until 1683. This was a significant change from the local law making at the regional assemblies (Danish: *landting*) had been the long-standing tradition. Several methods of determining guilt or innocence were outlawed including trial by ordeal and trial by combat. The Code of Jutland (Danish: *Jyske Lov*) was approved at meeting of the nobility at Vordingborg in 1241 just prior to Valdemar's death. Because of his position as "the king of Dannebrog" and as a legislator, Valdemar enjoys a central position in Danish history. To posterity the civil wars and dissolution that followed his death made him appear to be the last king of a golden age.

The Middle Ages saw a period of close cooperation between the Crown and the Roman Catholic Church. Thousands of church buildings sprang up throughout the country during this time. The economy expanded during the 12th century, based mostly on the lucrative herring-trade, but the 13th century turned into a period of difficulty and saw the temporary collapse of royal authority.

Difficulties for the kings

During the disastrous reign of Christopher II (1319–1332), most of the country was pawned off to the counts (except Skåne, which went to Sweden) after peasant revolts and conflicts with the Church. For eight years after Christopher's death, Denmark had no king, and was instead controlled by the counts. But after one of them was assassinated in 1340, Christopher's son Valdemar was chosen as king, and gradually began to recover the pawned territories, which was completed in 1360. The Black Death, which came to Denmark during these years, also aided his campaign. His continued efforts to expand the kingdom after 1360 brought him into open conflict with

the Hanseatic League. He conquered Gotland, much to the displeasure of the League, which lost Visby, an important trading town located there.

The Hanseatic alliance with Sweden to attack Denmark initially proved a fiasco since Danish forces captured a large Hanseatic fleet, and ransomed it back for an enormous sum. Luckily for the League, the Jutland nobles revolted against the heavy taxes levied to fight the expansionist war in the Baltic; the two forces worked against the king, forcing him into exile in 1370. For several years, the Hanseatic League controlled the fortresses on "the sound" between Skåne and Zealand.

Margaret and the Kalmar Union

Main article: Kalmar Union

Margaret I, the daughter of Valdemar Atterdag, found herself married off to Håkon VI of Norway in an attempt to join the two kingdoms, along with Sweden, since Håkon had kinship ties to the Swedish royal family. The dynastic plans called for her son, Olaf II to rule the three kingdoms, but after his early death in 1387 she took on the role herself (1387–1412). During her lifetime (1353–1412) the three kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden (including the Faroe Islands, as well as Iceland, Greenland, and present-day Finland) became linked under her capable rule, in what became known as the Kalmar Union, made official in 1397.



The tomb of Margaret I in Roskilde Cathedral

Her successor, Eric of Pomerania (King of Denmark from 1396 to 1439), lacked Margaret's skill and thus directly caused the breakup of the Kalmar Union. Eric's foreign policy engulfed Denmark in a succession of wars with the Holstein counts and the city of Lubeck. When the Hanseatic League imposed a trade embargo on Scandinavia, the Swedes (who saw their mining industry adversely affected) rose up in revolt. The three countries of the Kalmar Union all declared Eric deposed in 1439. However, support for the idea of regionalism continued, so when Eric's nephew Christopher of Bavaria came to the throne in 1440, he managed to get himself elected in all three kingdoms, briefly reuniting Scandinavia (1442–1448). The Swedish nobility grew increasingly unhappy with Danish rule and the union soon became merely a legal concept with little practical application. During the subsequent reigns of Christian I (1450–1481) and Hans (1481–1513), tensions grew, and several wars between Sweden and Denmark erupted.

In the early 16th century, Christian II (reigned 1513–1523) came to power. He allegedly declared, "If the hat on my head knew what I was thinking, I would pull it off and throw it away." This quotation apparently refers to his devious and machiavellian political dealings. He conquered Sweden in an attempt to reinforce the union, and had about 100 leaders of the Swedish anti-unionist forces killed in what came to be known as the Stockholm Bloodbath of November 1520. The bloodbath destroyed any lingering hope of Scandinavian union.

In the aftermath of Sweden's definitive secession from the Kalmar Union in 1521, civil war and the Protestant Reformation followed in Denmark and Norway. When things settled down, the Privy Council of Denmark had lost some of its influence, and that of Norway no longer existed. The two kingdoms, known as Denmark–Norway, operated in a personal union under a single monarch. Norway kept its separate laws and some institutions, such as a royal chancellor, separate coinage and a separate army. As an hereditary kingdom, Norway's status as separate from Denmark remained important to the royal dynasty in its struggles to win elections as kings of Denmark. The two kingdoms remained tied until 1814.

Early Modern Denmark

The Reformation



Abraham Ortelius's 1570 map of Denmark including the eastern parts on the Scandinavian peninsula.

Main article: Reformation in Denmark–Norway and Holstein

The Reformation, which originated in the German lands in the early 16th century from the ideas of Martin Luther (1483–1546), had a considerable impact on Denmark. The Danish Reformation started in the mid-1520s. Some Danes wanted access to the Bible in their own language. In 1524 Hans Mikkelsen and Christiern Pedersen translated the New Testament into Danish; it became an instant best-seller. Those who had traveled to Wittenberg in Saxony and come under the influence of the teachings of Luther and his associates included Hans Tausen, a Danish monk in the Order of St John Hospitallers. On Good Friday in 1525, Tausen used the pulpit at Antvorskov Abbey Church to proclaim Luther's reforms. His scandalized superiors ordered him out of Zealand and held him in the priory at Viborg under close confinement until he should come to his senses.[9] Townspeople came to see the troublesome monk, and Tausen preached to them from the window of his cell. Within days Tausen's ideas swept through the town. The then radical ideas of Luther found a receptive audience. Tausen's preaching converted ordinary people, merchants, nobles, and monks and even the Prior grew to appreciate Tausen and ordered his release. Tausen preached openly: much to the consternation of Bishop Jøn Friis, who lost his ability to do anything about the Lutherans and retreated to Hald Castle. After preaching in the open air, Tausen gained the use of a small chapel, which soon proved too small for the crowds who attended services in Danish. His followers broke open a Franciscan Abbey so they could listen to Tausen, who packed the church daily for services. The town leaders protected Tausen from the Bishop of Viborg.[9] Viborg became the center for the Danish Reformation for a time. Lutheranism spread quickly to Aarhus and Aalborg.


Hans Tausen was one of the first Lutheran preachers, and later a bishop, in Denmark.

Within months King Frederick appointed Tausen as one of his personal chaplains (October 1526) in order to protect him from Catholics. Tausen's version of Luther's ideas spread throughout Denmark. Copenhagen became a hotbed of reformist activity and Tausen moved there to continue his work. His reputation preceded him and the excitement of hearing the liturgy in Danish brought thousands of people out to hear him. With the kings' permission, churches in Copenhagen opened their doors to the Lutherans and held services for Catholics and for Lutherans at different times of the day. But at Our Lady Church, the main church of Copenhagen, Bishop Ronnow refused to admit the "heretics". In December 1531 a mob stormed the Church of Our Lady in Copenhagen, encouraged by Copenhagen's fiery mayor, Ambrosius Bogbinder. They tore down statues and side-altars and destroyed artwork and reliquaries. Frederick I's policy of toleration insisted that the two competing groups share churches and pulpits peacefully, but this satisfied neither Lutherans nor Catholics.

Luther's ideas spread rapidly as a consequence of a powerful combination of popular enthusiasm for church reform and a royal eagerness to secure greater wealth through the seizure of church lands and property. In Denmark the reformation increased the crown's revenues by 300%.

Dissatisfaction with the established Catholic Church had already been widespread in Denmark. Many people viewed the tithes and fees — a constant source of irritation for farmers and merchants — as unjust. This became

apparent once word got out that King Frederick and his son, Duke Christian had no sympathy with Franciscans who persistently made the rounds of the parishes to collect food, money, and clothing in addition to the tithes. Between 1527 and 1536 many towns petitioned the king to close the Franciscan houses. Frederick obliged by sending letters authorizing the closure of the monasteries, often offering a small sum of money to help the brothers on their way. With the royal letter in hand, mobs forcibly closed Franciscan abbeys all over Denmark. They beat up monks, two of whom died.[10] The closure of Franciscan houses occurred systematically in Copenhagen, Viborg, Aalborg, Randers, Malmo and ten other cities; in all, 28 monasteries or houses closed. People literally hounded Franciscan monks out of the towns.[10] No other order faced such harsh treatment. Considering how strongly many people felt about removing all traces of Catholic traditions from Danish churches, surprisingly little violence took place. Luther's teaching had become so overwhelmingly popular that Danes systematically cleared churches of statues, paintings, wall-hangings, reliquaries and other Catholic elements without interference. The only exceptions came in individual churches where the local churchmen refused to permit reform.

Frederick I died in 1533; the Viborg Assembly (Danish:landsting) proclaimed his son, Duke Christian of Schleswig, King Christian III. The State Council (Danish: Rigsråd) on Zealand, led by the Catholic bishops took control of the country and refused to recognize the election of Christian III, a staunch Lutheran. The regents feared Christian's zeal for Luther's ideas would tip the balance and disenfranchise Catholics — both peasants and nobles. The State Council encouraged Count Christopher of Oldenburg to become Regent of Denmark. Christian III quickly raised an army to enforce his election, including mercenary troops from Germany. Count Christopher raised an army (including troops from Mecklenburg and Oldenburg and the Hanseatic League, especially Lűbeck) to restore his Catholic uncle King Christian II (deposed in 1523). This resulted in a three-year civil war called the Count's Feud (Danish: *Grevens Fejde*).

Armed rebellion by Catholic peasants led by Skipper Clement started in northern Jutland. Rebellion swept across Funen, Zealand and Skåne. Christian III's army soundly defeated an army of Catholic nobles at Svenstrup on 16 October 1534. Christian forced a truce with the Hanseatic League, which had sent troops to help Count Christopher. Christian III's army, under Johan Rantzau, chased the rebels all the way back to Aalborg and then massacred over two thousand of them inside the city in December 1534. The Protestants captured Skipper Clement (1534), and later executed him in 1536. Christian III's mercenary troops put an end to Catholic hopes on Zealand and then Funen. Skåne rebels went as far as proclaiming Christian II king again. King Gustav Vasa of Sweden sent two separate armies to ravage Halland and Skåne into submission. Besiegers finally starved the last hold-outs in the rebellion, Copenhagen and Malmø, into surrender in July 1536. By the spring of 1536 Christian III had taken firm control.

Denmark became officially Lutheran on 30 October 1536 by decree of King Christian III, and in 1537 the reconstituted State Council approved the Lutheran Ordinances which was worked out by Danish theologians and Johannes Bugenhagen, based on Luther's Augsburg Confession and Luther's Little Catechism. The government established the Danish National Church (Danish: *Folkekirken*) as the state church. All of Denmark's Catholic bishops went to prison until such time as they accepted Luther's reforms. The authorities released them when they promised to marry and to support the reforms. If they agreed, they received property and spent the rest of their lives as wealthy landowners. If they refused, they died in prison. The State confiscated Church lands to pay for the armies that had enforced Christian III's election. Priests swore allegiance to Lutheranism or found new employment. The new owners turned monks out of their monasteries and abbeys. Nuns in a few places gained permission to live out their lives in nunneries, though without governmental financial support. The Crown closed churches, abbeys, priories and cathedrals, giving their property to local nobles or selling it. The King appointed Danish superintendents (later bishops) to oversee Lutheran orthodoxy in the church. Denmark became part of a Lutheran heartland extending through Scandinavia and northern Germany. The Catholic Church everywhere in Scandinavia had sealed its fate by supporting hopeless causes: Christian II and the emperor Charles V in Denmark, Norwegian independence in that country, and in Sweden the Kalmar Union. Geographical distance

also prevented them from receiving anything more than a sympathetic ear from Rome.

The 17th century saw a period of strict Lutheran orthodoxy in Denmark, with harsh punishments visited on suspected followers of either Calvinism or Huldrych Zwingli. Lutheran authorities treated Catholics harshly — in the fear that they might undermine the king, government, and national church. In a delayed result of the Reformation, Denmark became involved in the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) on the Protestant side. As a result Denmark lost its position as a major power.

The loss of Eastern Denmark

See also: Dominium maris baltici

The Dano-Norwegian Kingdom grew wealthy during the 16th century, largely because of the increased traffic through the Øresund, which Danes could tax because Denmark controlled both sides of the Sound. The trade in grain exports from Poland to the Netherlands and to the rest of Europe grew enormously at this time, and the Danish kings did not hesitate to cash in on it. The Sound duty was only repealed in the 1840s.

The Danish economy benefited from the Eighty Years' War (1568–1648) in the Netherlands because a large number of skilled refugees from that area (the most economically advanced in Europe) came to Denmark. This helped to modernize many aspects of society and to establish trading links between Denmark and the Netherlands.

Denmark–Norway had a reputation as a relatively powerful kingdom at this time. European politics of the 16th century revolved largely around the struggle between Catholic and Protestant forces, so it seemed almost inevitable that Denmark, a strong, unified Lutheran kingdom, would get drawn into the larger war when it came. The Thirty Years' War went badly for the Protestant states in the early 1620s, and a call went out to Denmark–Norway to "save the Protestant cause". Christian IV, who was also a duke of the Holy Roman Empire for his possessions in Holstein, decided to intervene. The campaign ended in defeat and the occupation of Jutland by the imperial army of Albrecht von Wallenstein. In the Treaty of Lübeck, Christian made peace and agreed to not intervene in Germany again. The war in Germany had been very expensive and Christian IV saw no other way than to raise the Sound duty. Unfortunately, this pushed the Netherlands away from Denmark and into the arms of Sweden. In 1643, Sweden's armies, under the command of Lennart Torstenson, then suddenly invaded Denmark without declaring war, this war became known as the Torstenson War. The Netherlands, wishing to end the Danish stranglehold on the Baltic, joined the Swedes in their war against Denmark–Norway. In October 1644 a combined Dutch-Swedish fleet destroyed 80 percent of the Danish fleet in the Battle of Femern. The result of this defeat proved disastrous for Denmark–Norway: in the Second treaty of Brömsebro (1645) Denmark ceded to Sweden the Norwegian provinces Jemtland, Herjedalen and Älvdalen as well as the Danish islands of Gotland and Øsel. Halland went to Sweden for a period of 30 years and the Netherlands were exempt from paying the Sound Duty.

Nevertheless, Danes remember Christian IV as one of the great kings of Denmark. He had a very long reign, from 1588 to 1648, and has become known as "the architect on the Danish throne" because of the large number of building projects he undertook. Many of the great buildings of Denmark date from his reign.

After the death of Christian IV in 1648, his son Frederick succeeded him. In 1657, during the Second Northern War, Denmark–Norway launched a war of revenge against Sweden (then distracted in Poland) which turned into a complete disaster. The war became a disaster for two reasons: Primarily, because Denmark's new powerful ally, the Netherlands, remained neutral as Denmark was the aggressor and Sweden the defender. Secondly, the Belts froze over in a rare occurrence during the winter of 1657-1658, allowing Charles X Gustav of Sweden to lead his armies across the ice to invade Zealand. In the Treaty of Roskilde, Denmark–Norway capitulated and gave up all of Eastern Denmark (Danish: Skåne, Halland, Blekinge and Bornholm), in addition to the counties of Bahusia

(Norwegian: Båhuslen) and Trøndelag in Norway. Holstein-Gottorp was also tied to Sweden, providing a gateway for future invasions from the south. But the Second Northern War was not yet over. Three months after the peace treaty was signed, Charles X Gustav of Sweden held a council of war where he decided to simply wipe Denmark from the map and unite all of Scandinavia under his rule. Once again the Swedish army arrived outside Copenhagen. However, this time the Danes did not panic nor surrender, instead they decided to fight and prepared to defend Copenhagen. Frederick III of Denmark had stayed in his capital and now encouraged the citizens of Copenhagen to resist the Swedes, by saying he would die in his nest. Furthermore, this unprovoked declaration of war by Sweden finally triggered the alliance that Denmark–Norway had with the Netherlands. A powerful Dutch fleet was sent to Copenhagen with vital supplies and reinforcements, which saved the city from being captured during the Swedish attack. Furthermore, Brandenburg-Prussia, the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth and the Habsburg monarchy had gathered large forces to aid Denmark–Norway and fighting continued into 1659. Charles X Gustav of Sweden suddenly died of an illness in early 1660, while planning an invasion of Norway. Following his death, Sweden made peace in the Treaty of Copenhagen, returning only Trøndelag to Norway and Bornholm to Denmark, but keeping both Bahusia and Terra Scania, mainly because the Netherlands and other European powers didn't want both sides of the Sound controlled by the Danish King again. Thus establishing the boundaries between Norway, Denmark, and Sweden that still exist today.



Treaty of Roskilde, 1658.
Halland, previously occupied by Sweden for a 30-year period under the terms of the Peace of Brömsebro negotiated in 1645, was now ceded
the Scanian lands and Bohus County were ceded
Trøndelag and Bornholm provinces, which were ceded in 1658, but rebelled against Sweden and returned to Danish rule in 1660.

Absolutism

As a result of the disaster in the war against Sweden, King Frederick III (reigned 1648–1670) succeeded in convincing the nobles to give up some of their powers and their exemption from taxes, leading to the era of absolutism in Denmark. The country's main objective in the following decades was the recovery of its lost provinces from Sweden. In the 1670s Denmark–Norway had regained enough strength to start a war with Sweden to recover its lost provinces. However, in spite of Denmark's outside support, naval dominance and initial support from the population of the former eastern provinces, the war ended in a bitter stalemate. A renewed attack during the Third Northern War (1700–1721) first resulted in the unfavourable Peace of Travendal, but after Denmark's re-entrance in the war and Sweden's ultimate defeat by a large alliance, meant that Sweden no longer was a threat to Denmark. However, the great powers opposed any Danish territorial gains, which meant the Treaty of Frederiksborg did not return the former eastern provinces to Denmark. Furthermore, Denmark was even forced to return Swedish Pomerania held by Danish forces since 1715 to Sweden. Denmark now had no hope of recovering its lost provinces from Sweden. As noted earlier, the rest of Europe was simply against the Sound being controlled by a single nation again.

For most of the 18th century, Denmark was at peace. The only time when war threatened was in 1762 when the Duke of Gottorp became Tsar Peter III of Russia and declared war on Denmark. But he was soon deposed, and the threat ended.

With the suspension of the Danish diet, that body disappeared for a couple of centuries. During this time power became increasingly centralized in Copenhagen. Frederick's government reorganized itself in a much more hierarchical manner, built around the king as a focal point of administration. Crown officials dominated the administration, as well as a new group of bureaucrats, much to the dismay of the traditional aristocracy, who saw

their own influence curtailed even further. The absolutist kings of Denmark were quite weak compared to their Swedish counterparts, and non-noble landlords became the real rulers of the country. They used their influence to pass laws that favored themselves.

The administration and laws underwent "modernization" during this period. In 1683 the *Danske lov 1683* (Danish Code) standardized and collected all the old provincial laws.

Other initiatives included the standardization of all weights and measures throughout the kingdom, and an agricultural survey and registry. This survey allowed the government to begin taxing landowners directly, moving it beyond dependence on revenue from crown lands.

The population of Denmark rose steadily through this period, from 600,000 in 1660 (after the loss of territory to Sweden) to 700,000 in 1720. By 1807 it had risen to 978,000.

Attempts to diversify the economy away from agriculture failed. During this period little industry existed, except for a very small amount in Copenhagen (population: 30,000). In the late 17th century a small amount of industry did develop, catering to the military. Denmark suffered in part because of its lack of natural resources. It had nothing much to export except agricultural products. The Netherlands bought the largest share of Denmark's exports. The landlords, only about 300 in number, nevertheless owned 90% of the land in the country.

Rural administration remained primarily the preserve of the large landholders and of a few law-enforcement officials. In 1733, low crop prices caused the introduction of adscription, an effort by the landlords to obtain cheap labor. The effect of this was to turn the previously free Danish peasantry into serfs. The adscription system tied rural laborers to their place of birth and required them to rent farms on the estates. As rent, they were required to work the landlords' plots and could not negotiate contracts or demand payment for improvements made to the farm. Peasants who refused to rent a farm were subject to six years of military service. Danish agriculture was very inefficient and unproductive as a result, since the peasants had no motivation to perform anything more than the absolute minimum of work. Attempts to sell Danish grain in Norway failed because of its low quality compared to grain from the Baltic.

In the late 18th century, extensive agricultural reforms took place, involving the abolition of the old open-field system and the amalgamation of many smaller farms into larger ones. With the abolition of the adscription system, the military could now only obtain manpower through conscription. These reforms were possible because agricultural prices steadily rose in the second half of the century.

Throughout the 18th century the Danish economy did very well, largely on the basis of expanded agricultural output to meet growing demand across Europe. Danish merchant ships also traded around Europe and the North Atlantic, venturing to new Danish colonies in the Caribbean and North Atlantic.

New propriety and Enlightenment ideas became popular among the middle classes of Denmark, arousing increased interest in personal liberty. In the last 15 years of the 18th century the authorities relaxed the censorship which had existed since the beginning of the 17th century. At the same time, a sense of Danish nationalism began to develop. Hostility increased against Germans and Norwegians present at the royal court. Pride in the Danish language and culture increased, and eventually a law banned "foreigners" from holding posts in the government. Antagonism between Germans and Danes increased from the mid-18th century on. In the 1770s, during the reign of the mentally unstable Christian VII (1766–1808), the queen's lover, a German doctor named Johann Friedrich Struensee, became the real ruler of the country. Filled with the ideas of the Enlightenment, he attempted a number of radical reforms including freedom of the press and religion. But it was short-lived. The landlords feared that the reforms were a threat to their power, while the commoners believed that religious freedom was an invitation to atheism. In 1772, Struensee was arrested, tried, and convicted of crimes against the majesty, his right hand was cut off following his beheading, his remains were quartered and

put on display on top of spikes on the commons west of Copenhagen. The next 12 years were a period of unmitigated reaction until a group of reformers gained power in 1784.

Denmark became the model of enlightened despotism, partially influenced by the outbreak of the French Revolution. Between 1784 and 1815, the abolition of serfdom made the majority of the peasants into landowners. The government also introduced free trade and universal education.

Colonialism

Main articles: Danish colonization of the Americas and Danish Colonial Empire

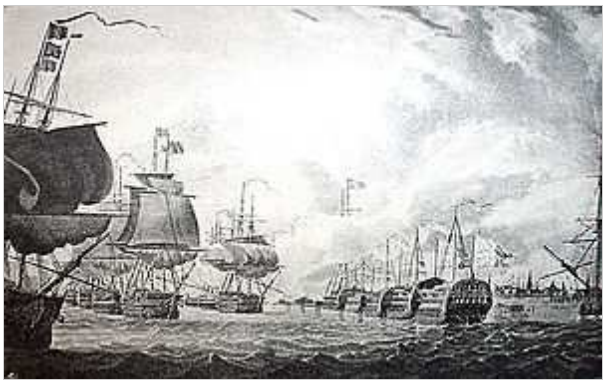


Map showing Denmark–Norway's colonial possessions c. 1800

Denmark maintained a number of colonies outside Scandinavia, starting in the 17th century and lasting until the 20th century. Denmark also controlled traditional colonies in Greenland and Iceland in the north Atlantic — held through the union with Norway. Christian IV (reigned 1588–1648) first initiated the policy of expanding Denmark's overseas trade, as part of the mercantilist trend then popular in European governing circles. Denmark established its own first colony at Tranquebar, or Trankebar, on India's south coast, in 1620. In the Caribbean Denmark started a colony on St Thomas in 1671, St John in 1718, and purchased Saint Croix from France in 1733. Denmark maintained its Indian colony, Tranquebar, as well as several other smaller colonies there, for about two hundred years. The Danish East India Company operated out of Tranquebar. During its heyday, the Danish company and the Swedish East India Company imported more tea than the British East India Company — and smuggled 90% of it into Britain, where it sold at a huge profit. Both of the Scandinavia-based East India Companies folded during the course of the Napoleonic Wars. Danes also maintained other colonies, forts, and bases in West Africa, primarily for the purpose of slave-trading.

The 19th century

The Napoleonic Wars



The Battle of Copenhagen, 1801.

The long decades of peace came to an abrupt end during the Napoleonic Wars. Britain felt threatened by the Armed Neutrality Treaty of 1794, which originally involved Denmark and Sweden, and later Prussia and Russia. The British fleet attacked Copenhagen in 1801 (Battle of Copenhagen (1801)), destroying much of Denmark's navy. Denmark nonetheless managed to remain uninvolved in the Napoleonic Wars until 1807. The British fleet bombarded Copenhagen again that year, causing considerable destruction to the city. They then captured the entire Danish fleet so that it couldn't be used by France to invade Britain (as the French had lost their own fleet at Trafalgar in 1805), leading to the Gunboat War (1807–1814). The confiscation of the Danish navy was widely criticised in Britain.

In 1809 Danish forces fighting on the French side participated in defeating the anti-Bonapartist German rebellion

led by Ferdinand von Schill, at the Battle of Stralsund. By 1813, Denmark could no longer bear the war costs, and the state was bankrupt. When in the same year the Sixth Coalition isolated Denmark by clearing Northern Germany of French forces, Frederick IV had to make peace. Accordingly, the unfavourable Treaty of Kiel was concluded in January 1814 with Sweden and Great Britain, and another peace was signed with Russia in February.

The Treaty of Kiel transferred Heligoland to Great Britain and Norway from the Danish to the Swedish crown, Denmark was to be satisfied with Swedish Pomerania. But the Norwegians revolted, declared their independence, and elected crown-prince Christian Frederick (the future Christian VIII) as their king. However, the Norwegian independence movement failed to attract any support from the European powers. After a brief war with Sweden, Christian had to abdicate in order to preserve Norwegian autonomy, established in a personal union with Sweden. In favour of the Kingdom of Prussia, Denmark renounced her claims to Swedish Pomerania at the Congress of Vienna (1815), and instead was satisfied with the Duchy of Lauenburg and a Prussian payment of 3.5 million talers, also, Prussia took over a Danish 600,000 talers debt to Sweden.

Interestingly, this period also counts as "the Golden Age" of Danish intellectual history. A sign of renewed intellectual vigor was the introduction of compulsory schooling in 1814. Literature, painting, sculpture, and philosophy all experienced an unusually vibrant period. The stories of Hans Christian Andersen (1805–1875) became popular not only in Denmark, but all over Europe and in the United States of America[*citation needed*]. The ideas of the philosopher Søren Kierkegaard (1813–1855) spread far beyond Denmark, influencing not only his own era, but proving instrumental in the development of new philosophical systems after him. The sculptures of Thorvaldsen (1770–1834) grace public buildings all over Denmark and other artists appreciated and copied his style. Grundtvig (1783–1872) tried to reinvigorate the Danish National Church and contributed to the hymns used by the church in Denmark.

Nationalism and liberalism

See also: History of Schleswig-Holstein

The Danish liberal and national movements gained momentum in the 1830s, and after the European revolutions of 1848 Denmark became a constitutional monarchy on June 5, 1849. The growing bourgeoisie had demanded a share in government, and in an attempt to avert the sort of bloody revolution occurring elsewhere in Europe, Frederick VII gave in to the demands of the citizens. A new constitution emerged, separating the powers and granting the franchise to all adult males, as well as freedom of the press, religion, and association. The king became head of the executive branch. The legislative branch consisted of two parliamentary chambers; the Folketing, comprising members elected by the general population, and the Landsting, elected by landowners. Denmark also gained an independent judiciary.



Den Grundlovgivende Rigsforsamling The Constitutional Assembly created The Danish constitution, 1860–1864 painting by Constantin Hansen

Another significant result of the revolution was the Abolition of Slavery in the Danish West Indies, the Danish colony in the Caribbean, which at an earlier parts of its history witnessed the biggest slave auctions in the world. In 1845 Denmark's other tropical colony, Tranquebar in India, had already in 1845 been sold to Britain.

The Danish king's realm still consisted of the islands, the northern half of the Jutland peninsula, and the Duchy of Schleswig in real union with the Duchy of Holstein

The islands and Jutland together constituted the kingdom, whereas the monarch held the duchies in personal



Danish Infantry regiment in a fight with regiment "Martini". Contemporary illustration of the 1864 Second Schleswig War.

union with the kingdom. The duchy of Schleswig constituted a Danish fief, while the Duchy of Holstein remained a part of the German Confederation.

Since the early 18th century, and even more so from the early 19th century, the Danes had become used to viewing the duchies and the kingdom as increasingly unified in one state. This view, however, clashed with that of the German majority in the duchies, also enthused by liberal and national trends, which lead to a movement known as Schleswig-Holsteinism. Schleswig-Holsteinists aimed for independence from Denmark. The First Schleswig War (1848–1851) broke out after constitutional change in 1849 and ended with the *status quo* only thanks to the intervention of Britain and other Great Powers.

Much debate took place in Denmark as to how to deal with the question of Schleswig-Holstein. National-Liberals demanded permanent ties between Schleswig and Denmark, but stated that Holstein could do as it pleased. However, international events overtook domestic Danish politics, and Denmark faced war against both Prussia and Austria in what became known as the Second Schleswig War (1864). The war lasted from February to October 1864. Denmark was easily beaten by Prussia and Austria, and obliged to relinquish Schleswig-Holstein.

The war caused Denmark as a nation severe trauma, forcing it to reconsider its place in the world. The loss of Schleswig-Holstein came as the latest in the long series of defeats and territorial loss that had begun in the 17th century. The Danish state had now lost some of the richest areas of the kingdom: Skåne to Sweden and Schleswig to Germany, so the nation focused on developing the poorer areas of the country. Extensive agricultural improvements took place in Jutland, and a new form of nationalism, which emphasized the "small" people, the decency of rural Denmark, and the shunning of wider aspirations, developed.

Industrialization came to Denmark in the second half of the 19th century. The nation's first railroads were constructed in the 1850s, and improved communications and overseas trade allowed industry to develop in spite of Denmark's lack of natural resources. Trade unions developed starting in the 1870s. There was a considerable migration of people from the countryside to the cities, and Danish agriculture became centered around the export of dairy and meat products.

The two concepts of internationalism and nationalism have become very much part of the history of the Danish Labour movement.

The Labour movement gathered momentum when social issues became associated with internationalism. Socialist theory and organisational contact with the First International, which linked labour movements in various countries, paved the way. Louis Pio emerged as the driving force. In 1871, following the bloody defeat of the Paris Commune, he started publishing socialist journalism. He campaigned strongly for an independent organisation of the workers under their own management, and organised a Danish branch of the First International. This became the foundation stone for the Social Democratic Party under the name of Den Internationale Arbejderforening for Danmark (The International Labour Association for Denmark). As a combination of union and political party, it adroitly brought together national and international elements.

Pio saw internationalism as vital for the success of the workers' struggle: without internationalism, no progress. He pointed out that the middle classes cooperated across national frontiers and used nationalistic rhetoric as a weapon against the workers and their liberation.

The Danish section started organising strikes and demonstrations for higher wages and social reforms. Moderate

demands, but enough to provoke the employers and the forces of law and order. Things came to a head in the Battle of Fælleden on 5 May 1872. The authorities arrested the three leaders, Louis Pio, Poul Geleff and Harald Brix, charged them and convicted them of high treason. The three left Denmark for the United States to set up the ill-starred and short-lived socialist colony near Hays City, in Ellis County, Kansas.

Back in Denmark, the emerging political situation made possible by the new constitution alarmed many of the existing elites, since it inevitably empowered the peasantry. Simple men with little education replaced professors and professionals in positions of power. The peasants, in coalition with liberal and radical elements from the cities, eventually won a majority of seats in the Folketing. Even though constitutional changes had taken place to boost the power of the Landsting, the Left *Venstre* Party demanded to form the government, but the king, still the head of the executive branch, refused. However in 1901, king Christian IX gave in and asked Johan Henrik Deuntzer, a member of Venstre, to form a government, the Cabinet of Deuntzer. This began a tradition of parliamentary government, and with the exception of the Easter Crisis of 1920, no government since 1901 has ruled against a parliamentary majority in the Folketing.

Monetary union

Main article: Scandinavian Monetary Union

The Scandinavian Monetary Union, a monetary union formed by Sweden and Denmark on May 5, 1873, fixed both their currencies against gold at par to each other. Norway, governed in union with Sweden, entered the monetary union two years later in 1875 by pegging its currency to gold at the same level as Denmark and Sweden (.403 grams).[11] The monetary union proved one of the few tangible results of the Scandinavist political movement of the 19th century.



Scandinavism; A 19th-century propaganda image of Norwegian, Danish and Swedish soldiers joining hands

The union provided fixed exchange-rates and stability in monetary terms, but the member-countries continued to issue their own separate currencies. In an outcome not initially foreseen, the perceived security led to a situation where the formally separate currencies circulated on a basis of "as good as" the legal tender virtually throughout the entire area.

The outbreak of World War I in 1914 brought an end to the monetary union. Sweden abandoned the tie to gold on August 2, 1914, and without a fixed exchange rate the free circulation came to an end.

The 20th century

1901-1939

In the early decades of the 20th century the new Radical Party and the older Venstre Party shared government. During this time women gained the right to vote (1915), and the United States of America purchased some of Denmark's colonial holdings: the three islands of St. John, St. Croix, and St. Thomas in the West Indies. The period also saw Denmark inaugurating important social and labour-market reforms, laying the basis for the present welfare state.

Denmark remained neutral during World War I, but the conflict affected the country to a considerable extent. As its economy was heavily based on exports, the unrestricted German submarine warfare was a serious problem. Denmark had no choice but to sell many of its exports to Germany instead of overseas nations. Widespread

profiteering took place, but commerce also suffered great disruption because of the conflict and because of the ensuing financial instability in Europe. Rationing was instituted, and there were food and fuel shortages. Following the defeat of Germany in the war (1918), the Treaty of Versailles (1919) mandated the Schleswig Plebiscites, which resulted in the return of Northern Schleswig (now South Jutland) to Denmark. The king and parts of the opposition grumbled that Prime Minister Carl Theodor Zahle (in office 1909-1910 and 1913–1920) did not use Germany's defeat to take back a bigger portion of the province, which Denmark had lost in the Second Schleswig War in 1864. The king and the opposition wanted to take over the city of Flensburg, while the cabinet insisted on only claiming areas where a majority of Danes lived, which led to a plebiscite in the affected areas over whether they wanted to become a part of Denmark or remain within Germany. Believing that he had the support of the people, King Christian X used his reserve power to dismiss Zahle's cabinet, sparking the Easter Crisis of 1920. As a result of the Easter Crisis, the king promised to no longer interfere in politics. Although the Danish Constitution remained un-amended, Danish monarchs have stayed out of politics since then. The end of the war also prompted the Danish government to finish negotiating with Iceland, resulting in Iceland becoming a sovereign Kingdom on December 1, 1918 while retaining the Danish monarch as Head of State.

In the 1924 Folketing election the Social Democrats, under the charismatic Thorvald Stauning, became Denmark's largest parliamentary political party, a position they maintained until 2001. Since the opposition still held a majority of the seats in the Landsting, Stauning had to co-operate with some of the right-wing parties, making the Social Democrats a more mainstream party. He succeeded in brokering an important deal in the 1930s which brought an end to the Great Depression in Denmark, and also laid the foundation for a welfare state.

World War II

Main article: Occupation of Denmark



During the German occupation, King Christian X became a powerful symbol of national sovereignty. This image dates from the King's birthday, 26 September 1940. Note the lack of a guard

Denmark declared its neutrality at the beginning of World War II and signed a non-aggression agreement with Nazi Germany. Nevertheless, Germany (so as to secure communications for its invasion of Norway) occupied Denmark on April 9, 1940, meeting limited resistance. British forces, however, occupied the Faroe Islands (12 April 1940) and invaded Iceland (10 May 1940) in pre-emptive moves to prevent German occupation. Following a plebiscite, Iceland declared its independence on June 17, 1944 and became a republic, dissolving its union with Denmark.

The Nazi occupation of Denmark unfolded in a unique manner. The conditions of occupation started off very leniently (although the authorities banned Danmarks Kommunistiske Parti (the Communist party) when the Wehrmacht invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941), and Denmark retained its own government. The new coalition government tried to protect the population from Nazi rule through compromise. The Germans allowed the Folketing to remain in session, the police remained under Danish control, and the German authorities stayed one step removed from the population. However, the Nazi demands eventually became intolerable for the Danish government, so in 1943 it resigned and Germany assumed full control of Denmark. After that point, an armed resistance movement grew against the occupying forces. Toward the end of the war, Denmark grew increasingly difficult for Germany to control, but the country remained under occupation until near the end of the war in May 1945. On 4 May 1945 German forces in Denmark, North West

Germany, and the Netherlands surrendered to the Allies. On 5 May 1945 British troops liberated Copenhagen. Three days later the war ended.

Denmark succeeded in smuggling most of its Jewish population to Sweden in 1943 when the Nazis threatened deportation; see Rescue of the Danish Jews.

Post-war

In 1948 Denmark granted home rule to the Faroe Islands. 1953 saw further political reform in Denmark, abolishing the Landsting (the elected upper house), colonial status for Greenland and allowing female rights of succession to the throne with the signing of a new constitution.

After the war, with the perceived threat posed by the USSR and the lessons of World War II still fresh in Danish minds, the country abandoned its policy of neutrality. Denmark became a charter-member of the United Nations in 1945 and one of the original members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation in 1949 (though Denmark had originally tried to form an alliance only with Norway and Sweden). A Nordic Council later emerged with the aim of co-ordinating Nordic policy. Later, in a referendum in 1972, Danes voted in favour of joining the European Community, the predecessor of the European Union, and Denmark became a member on 1 January 1973. Since then, Denmark has proven a hesitant member of the European community, opting out of many proposals, including the Euro which it rejected in a referendum in 2000. During recent years, however, traditionally eurosceptical attitudes have mellowed.

See also

- Danish Colonial Empire
- Family trees of Danish monarchs
- List of Danish chronicles
- List of Danish monarchs
- List of Prime Ministers of Denmark
- Politics of Denmark

Footnotes

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3. ^ Jensen 2003:32
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11. ^ From silver standard to gold standard (http://www.nationalbanken.dk/dnuk/hist.nsf /side/From_silver_standard_to_gold_standard) , retrieved 2008-08-05

Monarchy of Denmark

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

This article is about the history and function of the Danish monarchy as an institution. For the kingdom of Denmark itself, see Denmark.

The **monarchy in Denmark** is the constitutional monarchy of the Kingdom of Denmark, which includes Denmark, Greenland and the Faroe Islands.

As a constitutional monarch, the Queen is limited to non-partisan, ceremonial functions. The ultimate executive authority over the government of Denmark is still by and through the monarch's royal reserve powers; in practice these powers are only used according to laws enacted in Parliament or within the constraints of convention.

The Danish Royal Family can trace their lineage back to the Viking kings Gorm the Old and Harald Bluetooth from the 10th century, making the monarchy of Denmark the oldest in Europe. The current Royal House is a branch of the princely family of Glücksburg, originally from Schleswig-Holstein in Germany, the same royal house as the Norwegian and former Greek royal families.

Queen of Denmark

MONARCHY
FEDERAL



Royal coat of arms of Denmark



Incumbent:
Margrethe II

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Frederik, Crown Prince of Denmark
First monarch:	Ongendus (according to legend) Gorm the Old (attested)
Formation:	c. 935

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- 7 Greenland and the Faroe Islands
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Constitutional role

Main article: Politics of Denmark

According to the Danish Constitution the Danish Monarch, as head of state, is the source of executive and,

cojointly with the Folketing or Parliament, legislative power.[1] The Monarch retains the ability to deny giving a bill royal assent as well as choosing and dismissing the Prime Minister, although in modern times this becomes increasingly more unlikely, as it would cause a constitutional crisis. As Head of State, the monarch participates in the formation of a new government. Bills are required to be countersigned by one or more cabinet ministers to become law (Constitution, III,14) King Christian X was the last Monarch to exercise the power of dismissal on his own will, which he did on March 28, 1920 sparking the 1920 Easter Crisis. All royal powers called Royal Prerogative, such as patronage to appoint ministers and the ability to declare war and make peace, are exercised by the Prime Minister and the Cabinet, with the formal consent of the Queen. After consultation with representatives of the political parties, the Party Leader who has the support of the largest number of seats in the Danish Parliament is invited to form a government. Once it has been formed, the monarch will formally appoint it.[2]

Today the Sovereign has an essentially ceremonial role restricted in exercise of power by convention and public opinion. As a figurehead the monarch opens exhibitions, attends anniversaries, inaugurates bridges etc. However the monarch does continue to exercise three essential rights: the right to be consulted, the right to advise and the right to warn. As a consequence of these ideals, the Prime Minister and Cabinet attends the regular meeting of the Council of State. The Prime Minister and the Minister of Foreign Affairs report regularly to The Queen to advise her of the latest political developments. The Queen hosts official visits by foreign Heads of State and pays State Visits abroad.

History

Main article: List of Danish monarchs

The Danish monarchy is over 1000 years old, making it the fourth oldest continual monarchy in the world still existing today, the oldest being the Imperial House of Japan. The first monarch the monarchy can be traced back to is Gorm the Old (d. 958). Originally the monarchy was elective, but in practice the eldest son of the reigning monarch was elected. Later a Coronation Charter was signed by the king to restrict the powers of the Danish monarch. Absolutism was introduced in 1660–1661, when the elective monarchy was transformed into a hereditary monarchy. Male primogeniture succession was laid down in law in the Royal Decree of 1665. On 5 June 1849 the constitution was altered to create a constitutional monarchy for Denmark.[3] The Act of Succession of 27 March 1953 introduced the possibility of female succession, which enabled the current reigning Queen, Margrethe II, to accede the throne.

The last monarch of the ancient Danish ruling dynasty Christopher III of Denmark died in 1448. Duke Christian of Oldenborg was chosen as his successor and became the next monarch of Denmark, ruling under the name Christian I. The last Danish monarch of that royal dynasty, Frederik VII, died without issue. In accordance with the act of succession, Prince Christian of Glücksborg acceded the throne, being the first Danish monarch of the house of Glücksborg. Christian eventually became known as 'the Father-in-law of Europe' due to his family ties with most other ruling dynasties of Europe: His daughter Princess Alexandra married Edward VII of the United Kingdom, another daughter Princess Dagmar married Alexander III of Russia and Princess Thyra married Crown Prince Ernst August of Hanover, Duke of Cumberland who was also a British prince. His son Vilhelm went on to become George I of Greece. Further, his grandson Carl became Haakon VII of Norway. To this day the Danish Royal Family are related to most other reigning European dynasties.[3]

Danish Royal Family

Main article: Danish Royal Family

In the Kingdom of Denmark all members of the ruling dynasty that hold the title Prince or Princess of Denmark are said to be members of the Danish Royal Family. As with other European monarchies, distinguishing who is a member of the national Royal Family is difficult due to lack of strict legal or formal definition of who is or is not a member. The Queen and her siblings belong to the House of Glücksburg, a branch of the House of Oldenburg. The Queen's children and male-line descendants belong agnatically to the family *de Laborde de Monpezat*.[4]

Main members

The Danish Royal Family includes:



The Royal Family of Denmark during Queen Margrethe II's 70th birthday, 16 April 2010.

- The Queen
- The Prince Consort (The Queen's husband)
- The Crown Prince and Crown Princess (The Queen's son and daughter-in-law)
  - Prince Christian (The Crown Prince and Crown Princess's son)
  - Princess Isabella (The Crown Prince and Crown Princess's daughter)
  - Prince Vincent (The Crown Prince and Crown Princess's son born 8 January 2011)
  - Princess Josephine (The Crown Prince and Crown Princess's daughter born 8 January 2011)[5][6]
- Prince Joachim and Princess Marie (The Queen's son and daughter-in-law)
  - Prince Nikolai (Prince Joachim's elder son)
  - Prince Felix (Prince Joachim's middle son)
  - Prince Henrik of Denmark (Prince Joachim's and Princess Marie's son together)
- Princess Benedikte (The Queen's sister)
- The Queen of the Hellenes (The Queen's sister)
- Princess Elisabeth (The Queen's first cousin)

Extended members

The extended Danish Royal Family which includes people who do not hold the title of *Prince* or *Princess of Denmark* but have close connections to the Queen could be said to include:

- The Prince of Sayn-Wittgenstein-Berleburg (Princess Benedikte's husband)
  - The Hereditary Prince of Sayn-Wittgenstein-Berleburg (Princess Benedikte's son)
  - Princess Alexandra of Sayn-Wittgenstein-Berleburg (Princess Benedikte's elder daughter)
  - Count Jefferson von Pfeil und Klein-Ellguth (Princess Alexandra's husband)
    - Count Richard von Pfeil und Klein-Ellguth (Princess Alexandra's son)
    - Countess Ingrid von Pfeil und Klein-Ellguth (Princess Alexandra's daughter)
  - Princess Nathalie of Sayn-Wittgenstein-Berleburg (Princess Benedikte's younger daughter)
  - Alexander Johannsmann, Princess Nathalie's husband
    - Konstantin Johannsmann. Princess Nathalie's son

Greek Royal Family

With the exception of Marina, Consort of Prince Michael, and Princesses Alexandra and Olga, all members of the Greek Royal Family are members of the Danish Royal Family and bears the title of Prince or Princess of

Greece and Denmark.

- HM King Constantine II of Greece, Prince of Denmark
  - Princess Alexia of Greece and Denmark (King Constantine and Queen Anne Marie's daughter)
  - Pavlos, Crown Prince of Greece, Prince of Denmark (King Constantine and Queen Anne Marie's son)
  - Crown Princess Pavlos of Greece, Princess of Denmark (Prince Pavlos' wife)
    - Princess Maria-Olympia of Greece and Denmark (Crown prince and princess's daughter)
    - Prince Constantine Alexios of Greece and Denmark (Crown prince and princess's son)
    - Prince Achileas-Andreas of Greece and Denmark (Crown prince and princess's son)
    - Prince Odysseas-Kimon of Greece and Denmark (Crown prince and princess's son)
    - Prince Aristide Stavros of Greece and Denmark (Crown prince and princess's son)
  - Prince Nikolaos of Greece and Denmark (King Constantine and Queen Anne Marie's son)
  - Princess Tatiana of Greece and Denmark (Prince Nikolaos' wife)
  - Princess Theodora of Greece and Denmark (King Constantine and Queen Anne Marie's daughter)
  - Prince Philippos of Greece and Denmark (King Constantine and Queen Anne Marie's son)

- Princess Irene of Greece and Denmark (King Constantine's younger sister)
- Prince Michael of Greece and Denmark (King Constantine's cousin)

Succession

Main article: Line of succession to the Danish throne

Denmark has had equal primogeniture since 2009. The Danish Act of Succession[7] adopted on 27 March 1953 restricts the throne to those descended from King Christian X and his wife, Alexandrine of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, through approved marriages.


Crown Prince Frederik of Denmark

Dynasts lose their right to the throne if they marry without the permission of the monarch given in the Council of State. Individuals born to unmarried dynasts or to former dynasts that married without royal permission, and their descendants, are excluded from the throne. Further, when approving a marriage, the monarch can impose conditions that must be met in order for any resulting offspring to have succession rights. Part II, Section 9 of the Danish Constitution of 5 June 1953 (http://www.oefre.unibe.ch/law/icl/da00000_.html) provides that the parliament will elect a king and determine a new line of succession should a situation arise where there are no eligible descendants of King Christian X and Queen Alexandrine.

The monarch of Denmark must be a member of the Danish National Church, or Evangelical Lutheran Church of Denmark (Danish Constitution, II,6). The National Church is by law the State Church, though the monarch is not its head (unlike in England, where the Supreme Governor of the Church of England is the Monarch of the United Kingdom, currently Queen Elizabeth II)(Const, I,4)).[8]

Residences

Main article: List of Danish royal residences

The royal palaces of Denmark became property of the state with the introduction of the constitutional monarchy in 1849. Since then, a varying number of these has been put at the disposal of the monarchy. The agreement on which is renewed at the accesion of every new monarch.



Amalienborg Palace, the monarch's principal residence

The monarch has the use of the four palaces at Amalienborg in Copenhagen as a residence and work palace. Currently, the Queen herself resides in *Christian IX's Palace* and the Crown Prince in *Frederik VIII's Palace*. *Christian VIII's Palace* has apartments for other members of the royal family, whereas *Christian VII's Palace* is used for official events and to accomodate guests.

In addition, parts of Christiansborg Palace in Copenhagen is also at the disposal of the monarch. It is the site of official functions such as banquets, state dinners, diplomatic accreditations, public audiences, meetings of the Council of State, receptions, royal christenings, lyings-in-state and other ceremonies. The royal parts of the palace are open to the public when not in use.

Another residence is Fredensborg Palace north of Copenhagen which is used principally in Spring and Autumn. It is often the site of state visits and ceremonial events in the royal family.

In Jutland, Graasten Palace is at the disposal of the monarch. It was used as the summer residence of King Frederick IX and Queen Ingrid. Since the death of Queen Ingrid in 2000, the Queen has stayed at Graasten for a yearly vacation in summer.

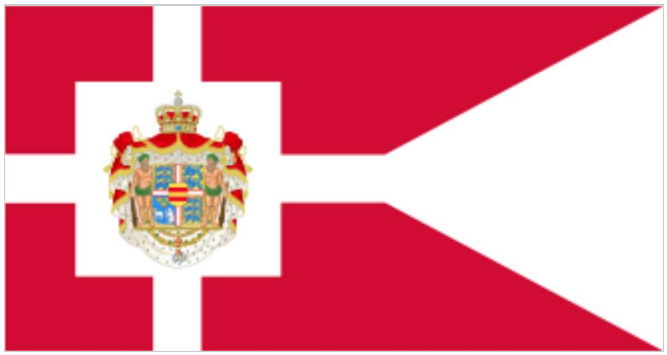
The hunting lodge the Eremitage Palace in Dyrehaven north of Copenhagen is used during royal hunts in Dyrehaven.

Finally, Sorgenfri Palace is at the disposal of the monarch. It was the residence of Hereditary Prince Knud and Hereditary Princess Caroline Mathilde and is not in official use at all at this time.

Apart from these state-owned palaces, Marselisborg Palace in Aarhus is privately owned by the Queen. It functions as the summer residence of the Queen, as well as during the Easter and Christmas holidays.

Style

The monarchs of Denmark have a long history of royal and noble titles. Historically Danish monarchs also used the titles 'King of the Wends' and 'King of the Goths'. Upon her ascension to the throne in 1972 Queen Margrethe II abandoned all titles except the title 'Queen of Denmark'. The monarch of Denmark and his or her spouse are addressed as 'Your Majesty', whereas Princes and Princesses are referred to as *His* or *Her Royal Highness* (*Hans* or *Hendes Kongelige Højhed*), or *His* or *Her Highness* (*Hans* or *Hendes Højhed*).



Royal Standard of Denmark.

- Eric of Pomerania: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the Wends and the Goths, Duke of Pomerania*.

- Christopher of Bavaria: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the Wends and the Goths, Count Palatine of the Rhine, Duke of Bavaria*.
- The full title of the Danish sovereigns from Christian I to Christian II was: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the Wends and the Goths, Duke of Schleswig, Holstein, Stormarn and Dithmarschen, Count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst*.
- The full title of the Danish sovereigns from Frederick I to Christian VII was: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark and Norway, the Wends and the Goths, Duke of Schleswig, Holstein, Stormarn and Dithmarschen, Count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst*.
- Oldenburg was elevated to a duchy during the reign of Christian VII, and the style was changed accordingly: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the Wends and the Goths, Duke of Schleswig, Holstein, Stormarn, Dithmarschen and Oldenburg*. This style was used until his son, Frederick VI, lost control of Norway by the 1814 Treaty of Kiel.
- Frederick VI gained control over Rügen 1814–1815 leading to the style: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark, the Wends and the Goths, Prince of Rügen, Duke of Schleswig, Holstein, Stormarn, Dithmarschen and Oldenburg*.
- In 1815, Frederick VI relinquished Rügen in favour of the Prussian king, and instead gained the Duchy of Lauenburg from the British-Hanoveran king leading to the style: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark, the Wends and the Goths, Duke of Schleswig, Holstein, Stormarn, Dithmarschen, Lauenburg and Oldenburg*. This style was used until 1918 when Iceland was elevated to an independent state in union with Denmark.
- The full title of Christian X from 1918 to 1944: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark, Iceland, the Wends and the Goths, Duke of Schleswig, Holstein, Stormarn, Dithmarschen, Lauenburg and Oldenburg*.
- The full title of Christian X following the 1944 dissolution of the Dano-Icelandic union: *By the Grace of God, King of Denmark, the Wends and the Goths, Duke of Schleswig, Holstein, Stormarn, Dithmarschen, Lauenburg and Oldenburg*. The same style was used by his son, Frederick IX, until his death in 1972
- When ascending the throne in 1972, Queen Margrethe II abandoned all the monarch's traditional titles except the title to Denmark, hence her style *By the Grace of God, Queen of Denmark*.

Greenland and the Faroe Islands

These two dependencies enjoy home rule and their head of state is the monarch of Denmark, in accordance with the Danish Constitution.[9]

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Margrethe II of Denmark

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Margrethe II (Danish pronunciation: [mɑˈg̊ʁæːˀd̥ə]; *Margrethe Alexandrine Þórhildur Ingrid*; sometimes anglicised as **Margaret II**) (born 16 April 1940) is the Queen regnant of the Kingdom of Denmark. She is the eldest daughter of King Frederick IX and Queen Ingrid of Denmark. In 1967, she married Henri de Laborde de Monpezat, with whom she has two sons: Crown Prince Frederik (born 1968) and Prince Joachim (born 1969). When her father, Frederick IX, died in 1972, Margrethe succeeded him as Queen of Denmark and became the first female monarch of Denmark since Margaret I, ruler of the Scandinavian countries in 1375–1412 during the Kalmar Union.

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Early life

Princess Margrethe was born on 16 April 1940 at Amalienborg Palace in Copenhagen as the first child of Crown Prince Frederick and Crown Princess Ingrid of Denmark. Her father was the eldest son of King Christian X and Queen Alexandrine of Denmark, and her mother was the only daughter of Crown Prince Gustav Adolf and Crown Princess Margaret of Sweden. Her birth took place just one week after Nazi Germany's invasion of Denmark on 9 April 1940.

Margrethe II



Margrethe in May 2010

Queen of Denmark

Reign	14 January 1972 – present
Predecessor	Frederick IX
Heir apparent	Frederik, Crown Prince of Denmark
Prime Ministers	*See list*
Spouse	Henrik, Prince Consort of Denmark (1967–present)
Issue	***Detail***
Crown Prince Frederik Prince Joachim	
Full name	
Margrethe Alexandrine Þórhildur Ingrid	
House	House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg[1]
Father	Frederick IX
Mother	Ingrid of Sweden
Born	16 April 1940 Amalienborg Palace, Denmark
Religion	Church of Denmark Lutheranism

Monarchical styles of

Queen Margrethe II of Denmark

She was baptised on 14 May 1940 in the Church of Holmen in Copenhagen. The princess's godparents were King Christian X of Denmark, Prince Knud of Denmark, Prince Axel of Denmark, King Gustaf V of Sweden, Crown Prince Gustaf Adolf of Sweden, Prince Gustaf Adolf of Sweden and Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn.

Reference style	Her Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	Ma'am

She was named Margrethe after her maternal grandmother, Princess Margaret of Connaught, Alexandrine after her paternal grandmother, Duchess Alexandrine of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Ingrid after her mother. Since her paternal grandfather, the then-reigning King Christian X, was also the King of Iceland at the time, and Margrethe until 1944 was an Icelandic princess, the Princess was as a tribute to the people of Iceland given an Icelandic name, *Þórhildur*, consisting of "Thor" and the word for "battle" or "fight". The name is spelled with the thorn letter, which is a surviving rune, and is equivalent to "th". It is sometimes anglicized as *Thorhildur*.[2]

When Margrethe was four years old, in 1944, her first sister Princess Benedikte was born. She later married Prince Richard of Sayn-Wittgenstein-Berleburg and lives in Germany. Her third sister Princess Anne Marie was born in 1946. She later married Constantine II of Greece and now lives in London.

On 20 April 1947, King Christian X died and Margrethe's father ascended the throne as King Frederick IX.

Heiress presumptive

At the time of her birth, only males could ascend the throne of Denmark, owing to the changes in succession laws enacted in the 1850s when the Glücksburg branch was chosen to succeed. As she had no brothers, it was assumed that her uncle Prince Knud would one day assume the throne.

The process of changing the constitution started in 1947, not long after her father ascended the throne and it became clear that Queen Ingrid would have no more children. The popularity of Frederik and his daughters and the more prominent role of women in Danish life started the complicated process of altering the constitution. That proposal had to be passed by two Parliaments in succession and then by a referendum, which was held on 27 March 1953. The new Act of Succession permitted female succession to the throne of Denmark, according to male-preference primogeniture, where a female can ascend to the throne only if she does not have a brother. Princess Margrethe therefore became the Heiress presumptive.

On her eighteenth birthday, 16 April 1958, the Heiress Presumptive was given a seat in the Council of State, and the Princess subsequently chaired the meetings of the Council in the absence of the King.

In mid-1960, together with the Princesses of Sweden and Norway, she traveled to the United States, which included a visit to Los Angeles, California, and to the Paramount Studios, where they were met by several celebrities, including Dean Martin, Jerry Lewis and Elvis Presley.



Princess Margrethe in 1962 with Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser in

Education

She studied prehistoric archaeology at Girton College, Cambridge during 1960–61, political science at Aarhus University between 1961–1962, at the Sorbonne in 1963, and at the London School of Economics in 1965, and is a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries of London.

Queen Margrethe is fluent in her native tongue, Danish; the native tongue of her husband, French; as well as English, Swedish and German.[3]

Abdeen Palace in Cairo.

Marriage

On 10 June 1967, Princess Margrethe married a French diplomat, Count Henri de Laborde de Monpezat, at the Church of Holmen in Copenhagen. Laborde de Monpezat received the style and title of "His Royal Highness Prince Henrik of Denmark" because of his new position as the spouse of the Heiress Presumptive to the Danish throne.

Margrethe gave birth to her first child, Prince Frederik, on 26 May 1968. A second child, Prince Joachim, was born on 7 June 1969.

Reign



Queen Margrethe II and her consort, Prince Henrik, in 2010.

Succession

Shortly after King Frederick IX had delivered his New Year's Address to the Nation at the 1971/72 turn of the year, he fell ill. At his death 14 days later on 14 January 1972, Margrethe succeeded to the throne as Queen Margrethe II of Denmark, becoming the first female Danish sovereign under the new Act of Succession. She was proclaimed Queen from the balcony of Christiansborg Palace by Prime Minister Jens Otto Krag on 15 January 1972. The Queen chose the motto: *God's help, the love of The People, Denmark's strength.*[3]

Ruby Jubilee

On 14 January 2012, Queen Margrethe II celebrated her 40th year on the throne. This was marked by a carriage procession, and numerous TV interviews.

Constitutional role

The Queen's main tasks are to represent the Kingdom abroad and to be a unifying figurehead at home. She receives foreign ambassadors and awards honours and medals. The queen performs the latter task by accepting invitations to open exhibitions, attending anniversaries, inaugurating bridges, etc.

As an unelected public official, the Queen takes no part in party politics and does not express any political opinions. Although she has the right to vote, she opts not to do so to avoid even the appearance of partisanship.

After an election where the incumbent Prime Minister does not have a majority behind him, a “Dronningerunde” (Queen's meeting) between the chairmen of each of the Danish political parties attends a meeting with the monarch.[4]

Each party has the choice of selecting a Royal Investigator to lead these

Danish Royal Family



HM The Queen
HRH The Prince Consort

- HRH The Crown Prince
  HRH The Crown Princess

negotiations or alternatively, give the incumbent Prime Minister the mandate to continue his government as is. In theory each party could choose its own leader as Royal Investigator, the globalistic party Det Radikale Venstre did so in 2006, but often only one Royal Investigator is chosen plus the Prime Minister, before each election. The leader who, at that meeting succeeds in securing a majority of the seats in the Folketing, is by royal decree charged with the task of forming a new government. (It has never happened in more modern history that any party has held a majority on its own.)

Once the government has been formed, it is formally appointed by the Queen. Officially, it is the Queen who is the head of government, and she therefore presides over the Council of State, where the acts of legislation which have been passed by the parliament are signed into law. In practice, however, nearly all of the Queen's formal powers are exercised by the Council of State, and she is required by convention to act on its advice.

In addition to her roles in her own country, the queen is also the Colonel-in-Chief of the Princess of Wales's Royal Regiment (Queen's and Royal Hampshires), an infantry regiment of the British Army, following a tradition in her family.

Personal life and interests

The official residences of the Queen and the Prince Consort are Amalienborg Palace and Fredensborg Palace in Copenhagen. Their summer residence is Gråsten Palace near Sønderborg, the former home of the Queen's mother, Queen Ingrid, who died in 2000.

The Queen is an accomplished painter, and has held many art shows over the years.[5] Her illustrations—under the pseudonym Ingahild Grathmer—were used for the Danish edition of *The Lord of the Rings* published in 1977 and the re-issue in 2002.[6] In 2000 she illustrated Henrik, the Prince Consort's poetry collection *Cantabile*.

She is also an accomplished translator and is said to have participated in the Danish translation of *The Lord of the Rings*.[5]

- HRH Prince Christian
- HRH Princess Isabella
- HRH Prince Vincent
- HRH Princess Josephine

- HRH Prince Joachim
  HRH Princess Marie
  - HH Prince Nikolai
  - HH Prince Felix
  - HH Prince Henrik
  - HH Princess (*nyn*)[1]

HRH Princess Benedikte
HM The Queen of the Hellenes

HH Princess Elisabeth

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[1]Not yet named—Danish tradition requires that naming the baby first takes place at the christening, which could be up to 3 months following the birth.

Extended royal family

- HM The King of the Hellenes
  - HRH The Crown Prince of Greece
    HRH The Crown Princess of Greece
    - HRH Princess Maria-Olympia
    - HRH Prince Constantine Alexios
    - HRH Prince Achileas-Andreas
    - HRH Prince Odysseas-Kimon
    - HRH Prince Aristide Stavros
  - HRH Princess Alexia, Mrs Morales
  - HRH Prince Nikolaos
    HRH Princess Tatiana
  - HRH Princess Theodora
  - HRH Prince Philippos
- HM The Queen of Spain
- HRH Princess Irene
- HRH Prince Michael
  Marina, Consort of Prince Michael

She is also a costume designer, having designed the costumes for the 2009 Peter Flinth film, "De vilde svaner" (the Wild Swans).[7] Margrethe also designs some of her own clothes.

She is known for her colourful and sometimes eccentric clothing choices: as well as designing some of her own clothes, Queen Margrethe wears designs by Pierre Balmain, Jorgen Bender, and Birgitte Taulow. [8]

Margrethe is a chain smoker, and she is famous for her tobacco habit.[9] However, on 23 November 2006 the Danish newspaper B.T. reported an announcement from the Royal Court stating that the Queen would never again be seen smoking in public. Still, she does continue to smoke but in the future she will do so only privately. The announcement may be due to the fact that the Danish parliament recently has decided on strict rules concerning smoking.[10]

She suffers from arthritis and has had both her knees replaced as a result.

A statement in a 2005 authorized biography about the Queen (entitled *Margrethe*) focused on her views of Islam: "We are being challenged by Islam these years. Globally as well as locally. There is something impressive about people for whom religion imbues their existence, from dusk to dawn, from cradle to grave. There are also Christians who feel this way. There is something endearing about people who give themselves up completely to their faith. But there is likewise something frightening about such a totality, which also is a feature of Islam. A counterbalance has to be found, and one has to, at times, run the risk of having unflattering labels placed on you. For there are some things for which one should display no tolerance. And when we are tolerant, we must know whether it is because of convenience or conviction."[11]

Family

Main article: Danish Royal Family



Her Majesty surrounded by her family waving to crowds on her 70th birthday in April 2010. From left to right: the Crown Princess, Prince Felix, the Crown Prince, Prince Christian, the Queen, Prince Nikolai, the Prince Consort, Prince Joachim and Princess Isabella

The Queen and The Prince Consort have two children and eight grandchildren:

- *His Royal Highness* **Frederik** André Henrik Christian, Crown Prince of Denmark, Count of Monpezat, born on 26 May 1968. He was married on 14 May 2004 to Mary Elizabeth Donaldson, who was born on 5 February 1972. They have four children:
  - *His Royal Highness* Prince **Christian** Valdemar Henri John of Denmark, Count of Monpezat, born on 15 October 2005.
  - *Her Royal Highness* Princess **Isabella** Henrietta Ingrid Margrethe of Denmark, Countess of Monpezat, born on 21 April 2007.

    - *His Royal Highness* Prince **Vincent** Frederik Minik Alexander of Denmark, Count of Monpezat, born on 8 January 2011.
    - *Her Royal Highness* Princess **Josephine** Sophia Ivalo Mathilda of Denmark, Countess of Monpezat, born on 8 January 2011.
- *His Royal Highness* Prince **Joachim** Holger Waldemar Christian of Denmark, Count of Monpezat, born on 7 June 1969. He was married on 18 November 1995 to Alexandra Christina Manley, who was born on 30 June 1964. They divorced on 8 April 2005. He was married on 24 May 2008 to Marie Agathe Odile Cavallier, who was born on 6 February 1976. He has four children:
    - *His Highness* Prince **Nikolai** William Alexander Frederik of Denmark, Count of Monpezat, born on 28 August 1999.
    - *His Highness* Prince **Felix** Henrik Valdemar Christian of Denmark, Count of Monpezat, born on 22 July 2002.
    - *His Highness* Prince **Henrik** Carl Joachim Alain of Denmark, Count of Monpezat, born on 4 May 2009.
    - *Her Highness* as yet unnamed, born on 24 January 2012.

In 2008 the Queen announced that her male-line descendants would bear the additional title of Count of Monpezat,[12] which they inherit from the Queen's husband and consort, Henri-Marie-Jean André *Count de Laborde de Monpezat*.[13]

Honours and decorations

She is the 1,188th Dame of the Order of the Golden Fleece in Spain and the 961st Knight/Lady of the Order of the Garter.

Danish decorations

Order of the Elephant
Grand Commander of the Order of the Dannebrog
One hundred anniversary Commemorative Medal of King Frederik IX's birth
One hundred anniversary Commemorative Medal of King Christian X's birth
Queen Ingrid's Commemorative Medal
Commemorative Medal for the 50-year anniversary of Her Majesty Queen Ingrid's arrival in Denmark
Home Guard fortjensttegn
Home Guard 25-year mark
Civil Defense League glory sign
Danish Reserve Officers Association Medal

Foreign decorations

- Argentina: Grand Cross of the Order of the Liberator San Martin
- Austria: Grand Cross of the Order of Merit
- Belgium: Grand Cordon of the Order of Leopold (Belgium)
- Brazil: Grand Collar of the Order of the Southern Cross
- Bulgaria: Grand Cross with Cordon of the Order of the Stara Planina
- Chile: Collar of the Order of the Merit of Chile
- Estonia: Collar of the Order of the Cross of Terra Mariana



Queen Margrethe II in Vágur, Faroe Islands, 21 June 2005

- United Arab Emirates: Collar of the Order of Al Kamal
- Egypt: Collar of the Order of the Nile
- Finland: Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of the White Rose
- France: Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour
- Germany: Grand Cross Special Class of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany
- Greece: Grand Cross of the Order of the Redeemer
- Greece: Grand Cross of the Order of Saints Olga and Sophia
- Iceland: Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of the Falcon
- Iran: Order of the Pleiades, 2nd Class
- Italy: Dame Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic
- Japan: Order of the Precious Crown, 1st Class
- Japan: Collar of the Order of the Chrysanthemum
- Jordan: Collar of the Order of the Star of Jordan
- Yugoslavia: Grand Cross of the Order of the Yugoslav Star
- Latvia: Commander Grand Cross with Chain of the Order of the Three Stars
- Lithuania: Grand Cross of the Order of Vytautas the Great
- Luxembourg: Knight of the Order of the Gold Lion of the House of Nassau
- Morocco: Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Ouissam Alaouite
- Netherlands: Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion
- Nepal: Order of Pratap Bhasker, 1st Class
- Norway: Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of St. Olav
- Poland: Knight of the Order of the White Eagle
- Poland: Grand Cordon of the Order of Merit of the Republic of Poland
- Portugal: Grand Collar of the Order of Prince Henry
- Portugal: Grand Collar of the Order of Saint James of the Sword
- Romania: Collar of the Order of the Star of Romania
- Saudi Arabia: Collar of the Order of Abdulaziz al Saud
- Slovenia: Golden Order of Freedom of the Republic of Slovenia
- Spain: Lady of the Order of the Golden Fleece
- Spain: Dame Collar of the Order of Charles III
- Sweden: Member of the Order of the Seraphim
- South Africa: Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Good Hope
- Thailand: Dame of the Order of the Royal House of Chakri
- Thailand: Dame of the Order of the Rajamitrabhorn
- United Kingdom: Lady of the Order of the Garter
- United Kingdom: Dame Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order
- United Kingdom: Recipient of the Royal Victorian Chain



Queen Margrethe II and her husband Prince Henrik of Denmark welcome President George W. Bush and his wife Laura Bush at Fredensborg Palace, July 5, 2005.

Symbols of Margrethe II



Royal Coat of Arms



Royal Standard



Royal Monogram of Margrethe II



Private Monogram of Margrethe II



Dual Monogram of Margrethe II and husband Henrik, Prince Consort of Denmark

Ancestry

See also: Danish monarchs family tree and Danish royal family tree

Patrilineal descent

Patrilineal descent
Margrethe's patriline is the line from which she is descended father to son. Patrilineal descent is the principle behind membership in royal houses, as it can be traced back through the generations—which means that if Margrethe II were to choose an historically accurate house name it would be Oldenburg. 1. Egilmar I of Lerigau, dates unknown 2. Egilmar II of Lerigau, d. 1142 3. Christian I of Oldenburg, d. 1167 4. Moritz of Oldenburg, d. 1209 5. Christian II of Oldenburg, d. 1233 6. John I, Count of Oldenburg, d. 1275 7. Christian III, Count of Oldenburg, d. 1285 8. John II, Count of Oldenburg, d. 1314 9. Conrad I, Count of Oldenburg, 1300–1347 10. Christian V, Count of Oldenburg, 1340–1423 11. Dietrich, Count of Oldenburg, 1398–1440

12. Christian I of Denmark, 1426–1481
13. Frederick I of Denmark, 1471–1533
14. Christian III of Denmark, 1503–1559
15. John II, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg, 1545–1622
16. Alexander, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg, 1573–1627
17. August Philipp, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1612–1675
18. Frederick Louis, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1653–1728
19. Peter August, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1696–1775
20. Prince Karl Anton August of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1727–1759
21. Friedrich Karl Ludwig, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1757–1816
22. Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, 1785–1831
23. Christian IX of Denmark, 1818–1906
24. Frederick VIII of Denmark, 1843–1912
25. Christian X of Denmark, 1870–1947
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See also

- List of current sovereign monarchs
- List of national leaders

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House of Glücksburg

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia
(Redirected from House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg)

The **House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg** (Danish: *Slesvig-Holsten-Sønderborg-Lyksborg*, the latter name is also spelled *Glücksborg*), known as the **House of Glücksburg** (or *House of Glücksborg*) for short, is a German ducal house, junior branches of which include the royal houses of Denmark and Norway, the deposed royal house of Greece, and the heir to the thrones of the Commonwealth realms[1][2] (although in the latter case, they are, by royal proclamation, declared to be members of the House of Windsor[3]). The family is named after Glücksburg in northernmost Germany, and is a cadet branch of the House of Oldenburg that is descended from King Christian III of Denmark. However, as the elder line of the House of Oldenburg and the line of the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg became extinct in 1863 and 1931, respectively, the House of Glücksburg is now the senior surviving branch of the House of Oldenburg.

House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

Country	Germany, Denmark, Norway, Greece and Iceland
Ancestral house	House of Oldenburg
Titles	Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, King of Denmark, King of Norway, King of the Hellenes, and King of Iceland
Founder	Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Glücksburg
Current head	Christopher, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein
Founding	1825

This particular line comes from the Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck. The last of them became Duke of Glücksburg and changed his title accordingly to Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg. He was married to Princess Louise Caroline of Hesse-Kassel, a granddaughter of King Frederick V of Denmark.



The family's ancestral castle, Glücksburg Castle, in Glücksburg, Schleswig-Holstein

Neither the Dukes of Beck nor of Glücksburg were sovereign rulers - they held their lands in fief to the sovereign dukes of Schleswig and Holstein (who were also the Kings of Denmark in personal union) and, before 1773, the Dukes of Holstein-Gottorp.

Christian IX of Denmark, the fourth son of Friedrich Wilhelm, was chosen by the childless King Frederick VII of Denmark to be his heir, as Christian was married to Frederick's first cousin, Luise of Hesse-Kassel. Wilhelm, the second son of Crown Prince Christian and Crown Princess Luise, was elected King of the Hellenes on March 30, 1863 to succeed the deposed Wittelsbach Otto of Greece and took the name George I of Greece. His father became King of Denmark as Christian IX on November 15, 1863. Prince Carl, the second son of Frederick VIII of Denmark, Christian IX's eldest son, became King of Norway on November 18, 1905 as Haakon VII of Norway. Christian IX's daughters, Alexandra of Denmark and Dagmar of Denmark (who became Maria Feodorovna), married Edward VII of the United Kingdom and Alexander III of Russia, respectively. As a result, by 1914, descendants of King Christian IX were nearly as prevalent on European thrones as those of Queen Victoria; Christian IX became known as the Father-in-law of Europe.

Contents

- 1 Male line ancestry of Duke Friedrich Wilhelm
- 2 Senior line, Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg (1825–*present*)
- 3 Junior branches
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    - 3.1.1 Kings of the Hellenes (Greece), 1863–1973
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Christoph, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, current head of the House of Glücksburg and the entire House of Oldenburg

Male line ancestry of Duke Friedrich Wilhelm

1. Elimar I, Count of Oldenburg
2. Elimar II, Count of Oldenburg
3. Christian I, Count of Oldenburg (Christian the Quarrelsome)
4. Maurice, Count of Oldenburg
5. Christian II, Count of Oldenburg
6. John I, Count of Oldenburg
7. Christian III, Count of Oldenburg
8. John II, Count of Oldenburg
9. Conrad I, Count of Oldenburg
10. Christian V, Count of Oldenburg
11. Dietrich, Count of Oldenburg
12. Christian I of Denmark
13. Frederick I of Denmark
14. Christian III of Denmark
15. John II, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg
16. Alexander, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg
17. August Philipp, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
18. Frederick Louis, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
19. Peter August, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
20. Karl Anton August, Prince of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
21. Friedrich Karl Ludwig, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
22. Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

Senior line, Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg (1825–*present*)

Ducal Family of Schleswig-Holstein

The Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg constitute the senior male line of the family, who hold the headship of both the House of Glücksburg and the entire House of Oldenburg.

- 1816–31 Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
- 1831–78 Karl, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
- 1878–85 Friedrich, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-

Glücksburg
- 1885–1934 Friedrich Ferdinand, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, from 1931 Duke of Schleswig-Holstein
- 1934–65 Wilhelm Friedrich, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein
- 1965–80 Peter, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein
- 1980 – present Christoph, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein (b. 1949)
- Heir: Friedrich Ferdinand, Hereditary Prince of Schleswig-Holstein (b. 1985)
- Present line of succession

Junior branches

Junior branches of the House of Glücksburg are descended notably from Duke Friedrich Wilhelm's younger son, who became Christian IX of Denmark.

Monarchs of Denmark, 1863–*present*

The agnatic lineage is *continued* from Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg.

- Christian IX of Denmark (1818–1906, reigned 1863–1906)
- Frederick VIII of Denmark (1843–1912, reigned 1906–12)
- Christian X of Denmark (1870–1947, reigned 1912–47), also king of Iceland 1918–1944
- Frederick IX of Denmark (1899–1972, reigned 1947–72)
- Margrethe II of Denmark (b. 1940, incumbent since 1972)



HH The Dowager Duchess

- **HH The Prince**
  HH The Princess
  - HH The Hereditary Prince
  - HH Princess Sophie
  - HH Prince Constantin
  - HH Prince Leopold
- HH Princess Marita
- HH Prince Alexander
  - HH Princess Helena
  - HH Prince Julian
- HH Princess Ingeborg

Extended family

- The Danish Royal Family
  - The Greek Royal Family
    - The British Royal Family
  - The Norwegian Royal Family
- The Oldenburger Grand Ducal Family

Kings of the Hellenes (Greece), 1863–1973

The Greek line is descended from Prince Vilhelm, a son of Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg (the later Christian IX of Denmark), who became King of the Hellenes as George I. The agnatic lineage is continued from Christian IX of Denmark.

- George I of Greece (1845–1913, reigned 1863–1913)
- Constantine I of Greece (1868–1923, reigned 1913–17, 1920–22)
- Alexander of Greece (1893–1920, reigned 1917–20)
- George II of Greece (1890–1947, reigned 1922–24, 1935–47)
- Paul of Greece (1901–1964, reigned 1947–64)
- Constantine II of Greece (b. 1940, reigned 1964–73)
- Present line of succession



Thirty-drachma coin of 1963, commemorating the centennial of

Heirs to the Commonwealth realms and their ancestors

The heirs to the Commonwealth realms are descended from Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark, a paternal grandson of George I of Greece. However, by Letters Patent of 8 February 1960, Queen Elizabeth II declared that her children with Prince Philip would belong to the House of Windsor, as would

any agnatic descendants who enjoy the style of Royal Highness, and the title of Prince or Princess. (Those who do not have that style and title would bear the surname Mountbatten-Windsor.)[3]

The agnatic lineage is *continued* from Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg.

the reign of the House of Glücksburg in Greece. Clockwise from the top: Paul, George II, Alexander, Constantine I and George I.

- Christian IX of Denmark
- George I of Greece
- Prince Andrew of Greece and Denmark
- Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark[2]
- Charles, Prince of Wales[2]
- Prince William, Duke of Cambridge[2]

Kings of Norway, 1905–*present*

The Norwegian branch is descended from Prince Carl of Glücksburg, a younger son of Frederick VIII of Denmark. He took the name Haakon as king.

- Haakon VII of Norway (1872–1957, reigned 1905–57)
- Olav V of Norway (1903–1991, reigned 1957–91)
- Harald V of Norway (b. 1937, incumbent since 1991)
- Heir: Crown Prince Haakon of Norway (b. 1973)
- Present line of succession

Other notable members

Main article: List of members of the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

- Princess Ingeborg of Denmark (1878–1958). Daughter of Frederick VIII of Denmark, wife of Prince Carl, Duke of Västergötland, mother of Princess Margaretha of Sweden, Märtha of Sweden and Astrid of Sweden and Prince Carl, Duke of Östergötland (who themselves are not members of this house, but of that of Bernadotte).
- Princess Elena of Greece and Denmark (1896–1982). Wife of Carol II of Romania and mother of Michael I of Romania.
- Princess Olga of Greece and Denmark (1903–1997). Wife of the Regent Prince Paul of Yugoslavia.
- Princess Irene of Greece and Denmark, Duchess of Aosta (1904–1974). Wife of Aimone of Savoy, Duke of Spoleto.
- Princess Marina, Duchess of Kent (1906–1968). Wife of Prince George, Duke of Kent.
- Princess Cecilie of Greece and Denmark (1911–1937). Wife of Georg Donatus, Hereditary Grand Duke of Hesse and sister of Philip, later the Duke of Edinburgh. She died with her husband and two sons in the crash of Sabena Airlines Junkers JU52 (OO-AUB) at Ostend.
- Alexandra of Greece and Denmark (1921–1993). Wife of Peter II of Yugoslavia.
- Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh (b. 1921), grandson to George I of Greece, son to Prince Andrew of Greece, consort to Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom.
- Queen Sofia of Spain (b. 1938). Wife of King Juan Carlos I of Spain, sister of King Constantine II of Greece.
- Prince Michael of Greece and Denmark (b. 1939). Son of Prince Christopher of Greece and Denmark and Princess Françoise of Orléans (1902–1953); grandson of King George I of the Hellenes.

Coat of arms



Schleswig-Holstein



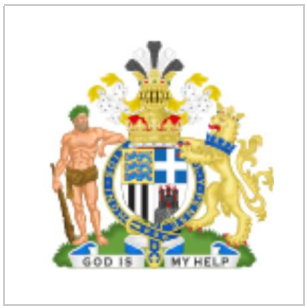
Kingdom of Denmark



Kingdom of Greece



Kingdom of Norway (note: This is the state coat of arms of Norway, as used by any ruler irrespective of family since the middle ages, not the family coat of arms of the House of Glücksburg)



Philip, Duke of Edinburgh

The coat of arms of Norway is the coat of arms of Norway as a state, in use since the 11th century and used by all ruling houses since then, and not the family coat of arms of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg.

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Categories: German noble families | House of Glücksburg | European royal families | Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

Luxembourg

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Luxembourg (/ˈlʌksəmbɜrg/ *LUKS-əm-burg*), officially the **Grand Duchy of Luxembourg** (Luxembourgish: *Groussherzogtum Lëtzebuerg*, French: *Grand-Duché de Luxembourg*, German: *Großherzogtum Luxemburg*, Dutch: *Groothertogdom Luxemburg*), is a landlocked country in western Europe, bordered by Belgium, France, and Germany. It has two principal regions: the Oesling in the North as part of the Ardennes massif, and the Gutland ("good country") in the south.[4] Luxembourg has a population of over half a million people in an area of approximately 2,586 square kilometres (998 sq mi).[5] A representative democracy with a constitutional monarch, it is ruled by a grand duke. It is now the world's only remaining sovereign grand duchy. The country has a highly developed economy, with the world's highest GDP (nominal) per capita according to the IMF. Its historic and strategic importance dates back to its founding as a Roman era fortress site and Frankish count's castle site in the Early Middle Ages. It was an important bastion along the Spanish Road when Spain was the principal European power influencing the whole western hemisphere and beyond in the 16th–17th centuries.

Luxembourg is a member of the European Union, NATO, OECD, the United Nations, and Benelux, reflecting the political consensus in favour of economic, political, and military integration. The city of Luxembourg, the largest and capital city, is the seat of several institutions and agencies of the EU.

Luxembourg culture is a mix of Romance Europe and Germanic Europe, borrowing customs from each of the distinct traditions. Luxembourg is a trilingual country; German, French and Luxembourgish are official languages. Although a secular state, Luxembourg is predominantly Roman Catholic.

Contents

- 1 History
- 2 Politics
  - 2.1 Administrative divisions
  - 2.2 Foreign relations
  - 2.3 Military
- 3 Geography

Grand Duchy of Luxembourg
Groussherzogtum Lëtzebuerg **(Luxembourgish)**
Grand-Duché de Luxembourg **(French)**
Großherzogtum Luxemburg **(German)**



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: *"Mir wëlle bleiwe wat mir sinn"* (Luxembourgish)
"We want to remain what we are"

Anthem: *Ons Heemecht*
"Our Homeland"
[1] (http://www.luxembourg.public.lu/fr/politique/symboles/hymne/multimedia/Instrumental.mp3)

Royal anthem: *De Wilhelmus* [1]



Location of **Luxembourg** (dark green)
– in Europe (green & dark grey)
– in the European Union (green) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Luxembourg 49°36′N 6°7′E
Official language(s)	Luxembourgish (*de jure* since 1984) French German

- 3.1 Climate
- 4 Economy
  - 4.1 Transport
  - 4.2 Communications
  - 4.3 Datacenters
- 5 Demographics
  - 5.1 Ethnicity
  - 5.2 Language
  - 5.3 Religion
  - 5.4 Education
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- 6 Culture
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- 7 See also
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History

Main article: History of Luxembourg



Charles IV, the 14th century Holy Roman Emperor and king of Bohemia from the House of Luxembourg.[6]

The recorded history of Luxembourg begins with the acquisition of Lucilinburhuc [7] (today Luxembourg Castle) situated on the Bock rock by Siegfried, Count of Ardennes in 963 through an exchange act with the abbey of St Maximin in Trier.[8] Around this fort, a town gradually developed, which became the centre of a small state of great strategic value. In the 14th and early 15th centuries three members of the House of Luxembourg reigned as Holy Roman Emperors. In 1437, the House of Luxembourg suffered a succession crisis, precipitated by the lack of a male heir to assume the throne, which led to the territory being sold by Duchess Elisabeth to Philip

Demonym	Luxembourgers
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy
- Grand Duke	Henri (List)
- Prime Minister	Jean-Claude Juncker (List)
Independence	
- From French empire *(Treaty of Paris)*	9 June 1815
- 1st Treaty of London	19 April 1839
- 2nd Treaty of London	11 May 1867
- End of personal union	23 November 1890
Area	
- Total	2,586.4 km^2 (175th) 998.6 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.60%
Population	
- 2011 estimate	511,840[1] (170th)
- 2001 census	439,539
- Density	194.1/km^2 (67th) 501.3/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$42.796 billion[2] (94th)
- Per capita	$83,438[2] (2nd)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$61.580 billion[2] (69th)
- Per capita	$120,560[2] (1st)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.867[3] (very high) (25th)
Currency	Euro (€)[2] (EUR)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	LU
Internet TLD	.lu[3]
Calling code	352

1 Not the same as the *Het Wilhelmus* of the Netherlands.



The three Partitions of Luxembourg have greatly reduced Luxembourg's territory.

2 Before 1999: Luxembourgish franc.
3 The .eu domain is also used, as it is shared with other European Union member states.

the Good of Burgundy.[9]

In the following centuries, Luxembourg's fortress was steadily enlarged and strengthened by its successive occupants, the Bourbons, Habsburgs, Hohenzollerns, and the French, among others. After the defeat of Napoleon in 1815, Luxembourg was disputed between Prussia and the Netherlands. The Congress of Vienna formed Luxembourg as a Grand Duchy in personal union with the Netherlands. Luxembourg also became a member of the German Confederation, with a Confederate fortress manned by Prussian troops.[10]

The Belgian Revolution of 1830–1839 reduced Luxembourg's territory by more than half, as the predominantly francophone western part of the country was transferred to Belgium. Luxembourg's independence was reaffirmed by the 1839 First Treaty of London. In the same year, Luxembourg joined the Zollverein.[11] Luxembourg's independence and neutrality were again affirmed by the 1867 Second Treaty of London, after the Luxembourg Crisis nearly led to war between Prussia and France.[12] After the latter conflict, the Confederate fortress was dismantled.[13]

The King of the Netherlands remained Head of State as Grand Duke of Luxembourg, maintaining personal union between the two countries until 1890. At the death of William III, the Dutch throne passed to his daughter Wilhelmina, while Luxembourg (at that time restricted to male heirs by the Nassau Family Pact) passed to Adolph of Nassau-Weilburg.[14]

During World War I Luxembourg was invaded and occupied by Germany, but was allowed to maintain its independence and political mechanisms.

During World War II, Luxembourg was unable to maintain its policy of neutrality when in 1940 Nazi Germany invaded and occupied the country, due to its strategic location on the invasion route into France. In contrast to the First World War experience, Luxembourg was treated as a Germanic territory and informally annexed to an adjacent province of the Third Reich in 1940. A government in exile based in London fought alongside the Allies, sending a small group of volunteers who participated in the Normandy invasion. Luxembourg was liberated in September 1944. It became a founding member of the United Nations in 1946, and of NATO in 1949.

In 1957, Luxembourg became one of the six founding countries of the European Economic Community (later the European Union), and, in 1999, it joined the euro currency era. In 2005, a referendum on the EU treaty establishing a constitution for Europe was held in Luxembourg.[15]

Politics

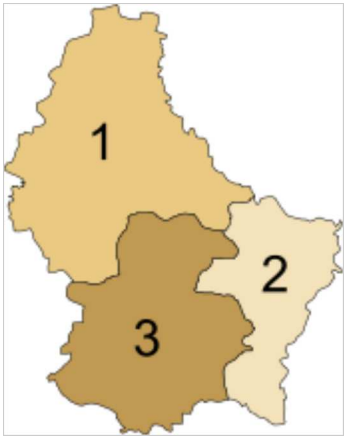
Main article: Politics of Luxembourg

Luxembourg is a parliamentary democracy headed by a constitutional monarch. Under the constitution of 1868, executive power is exercised by the Grand Duke and the cabinet, which consists of several other ministers.[16] The Governor has the power to dissolve the legislature and reinstate a new one, as long as the Grand Duke has judicial approval. However, since 1919, sovereignty has resided with the Supreme Court.[17]

Legislative power is vested in the Chamber of Deputies, a unicameral legislature of sixty members, who are

directly elected to five-year terms from four constituencies. A second body, the Council of State (*Conseil d'État*), composed of twenty-one ordinary citizens appointed by the Grand Duke, advises the Chamber of Deputies in the drafting of legislation.[18]

The Grand Duchy has three lower tribunals (*justices de paix*; in Esch-sur-Alzette, the city of Luxembourg, and Diekirch), two district tribunals (Luxembourg and Diekirch) and a Superior Court of Justice (Luxembourg), which includes the Court of Appeal and the Court of Cassation. There is also an Administrative Tribunal and an Administrative Court, as well as a Constitutional Court, all of which are located in the capital.



Districts of Luxembourg

Administrative divisions

Main articles: Districts of Luxembourg, Cantons of Luxembourg, and Communes of Luxembourg

Further information: Administrative divisions of Luxembourg

Luxembourg is divided into 3 districts, which are further divided into 12 cantons and then 116 communes. Twelve of the communes have city status, of which the city of Luxembourg is the largest.

The districts are Diekirch, Grevenmacher, and Luxembourg.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Luxembourg


Signing of the Rome Treaty on 25 March 1957. Luxembourg is a founding member of the EEC and the European Union in 1993.

Luxembourg has long been a prominent supporter of European political and economic integration. In efforts foreshadowing European integration, Luxembourg and Belgium in 1921 formed the Belgium-Luxembourg Economic Union (BLEU) to create an inter-exchangeable currency and a common customs regime. Luxembourg is a member of the Benelux Economic Union and was one of the founding members of the European Economic Community (now the European Union). It also participates in the Schengen Group (named after the Luxembourg village of Schengen where the agreements were signed), whose goal is the free movement of citizens among member states. At the same time, the majority of Luxembourgers have consistently believed that European unity makes sense only in the context of a dynamic transatlantic relationship, and thus have traditionally pursued a pro-NATO, pro-US foreign policy.

Luxembourg is the site of the European Court of Justice, the European Court of Auditors, the Statistical Office of the European Communities ("Eurostat") and other vital EU organs. The Secretariat of the European Parliament is located in Luxembourg, but the Parliament usually meets in nearby Strasbourg.

Military

Main article: Military of Luxembourg

The contribution Luxembourg makes to its defense and to NATO consists of a small army (currently consisting

of around 800 people). As a landlocked country, it has no navy.

Luxembourg also lacks an air force, though the seventeen NATO AWACS aeroplanes are for convenience registered as aircraft of Luxembourg.[19] In accordance with a joint agreement with Belgium, both countries have put forth funding for one A400M military cargo plane, currently on order. Luxembourg still jointly maintains three NATO Boeing 707 model TCAs (for cargo and training purposes) based at NATO Air Base Geilenkirchen.[19]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Luxembourg

Luxembourg is one of the smallest countries in Europe, and ranked 170th in size of all the 194 independent countries of the world; the country is about 2,586 square kilometres (998 sq mi) in size, and measures 82 km (51 mi) long and 57 km (35 mi) wide. It lies between latitudes 49° and 51° N, and longitudes 5° and 7° E.



The largest towns are Luxembourg, Esch-sur-Alzette, Dudelange, and Differdange.

To the east, Luxembourg borders the German *Bundesländer* of Rhineland-Palatinate and Saarland, and, to the south, it borders the French *région* of Lorraine. The Grand Duchy borders the Belgian Walloon Region, in particular the latter's provinces of Luxembourg and Liège, part of which comprises the German-speaking Community of Belgium, to the west and to the north respectively.

The northern third of the country is known as the 'Oesling', and forms part of the Ardennes. It is dominated by hills and low mountains, including the Kneiff near Wilwerdange,[20] which is the highest point, at 560 metres (1,837 ft). Other mountains are the 'Buurgplaaz' at 559 metres near Huldange and the 'Napoléonsgaard' at 548 metres near Rambrouch. The region is sparsely populated, with only one town (Wiltz) with a population of more than four thousand people.


Countryside of Alscheid.

The southern two-thirds of the country is called the "Gutland", and is more densely populated than the Oesling. It is also more diverse, and can be divided into five geographic sub-regions. The Luxembourg plateau, in south-central Luxembourg, is a large, flat, sandstone formation, and the site of the city of Luxembourg. Little Switzerland, in the east of Luxembourg, has craggy terrain and thick forests. The Moselle valley is the lowest-lying region, running along the southeastern border. The Red Lands, in the far south and southwest, are Luxembourg's industrial heartland and home to many of Luxembourg's largest towns.

The border between Luxembourg and Germany is formed by three rivers: the Moselle, the Sauer, and the Our. Other major rivers are the Alzette, the Attert, the Clerve, and the Wiltz. The valleys of the mid-Sauer and Attert form the border between the Gutland and the Oesling.

Climate

Luxembourg has an oceanic climate (Köppen: Cfb), marked by high precipitation, particularly in late

summer.[21]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Luxembourg


Luxembourg has been part of the eurozone since 1999.

Luxembourg's stable, high-income economy features moderate growth, low inflation, and low unemployment. It is ranked second richest country in the world with a per capita GDP on a purchasing-power parity (PPP) basis of $81,466 (in a new list compiled by US-based *Forbes* magazine). [*citation needed*]

The industrial sector, which was dominated until the 1960s by steel, has diversified to include chemicals, rubber, and other products. During the past decades, growth in the financial sector has more than compensated for the decline in steel. Services, especially banking and other financial exports, account for the majority of economic output. Luxembourg is the world's second largest investment fund center (after the United States), the most important private banking center in the Eurozone and Europe's leading center for reinsurance companies. Moreover, the Luxembourgish government has tried to attract internet start-ups. Skype and Amazon are two of the many internet companies that have shifted their regional headquarters to Luxembourg.

Concern about Luxembourg's banking secrecy laws, and its reputation as a tax haven, led in April 2009 to it being added to a "grey list" of nations with questionable banking arrangements by the G20. Luxembourg adapted some months later the OECD standards on exchange of information and moved into the category of 'Jurisdictions that have substantially implemented the internationally agreed tax standard.'[22][23] In March 2010, the *Sunday Telegraph* reported that most of Kim Jong-Il's $4bn in secret accounts is in Luxembourg banks.[24]

Agriculture is based on small, family-owned farms.

Luxembourg has especially close trade and financial ties to Belgium and the Netherlands (see *Benelux*), and as a member of the EU it enjoys the advantages of the open European market.

Luxembourg possesses the highest GDP per capita in the world (US$87,995 as of 2006),[25] the 24th highest Human Development Index, and the 4th highest rated in the quality of life index.[26]

As of March 2006, unemployment is 4.8% of the labor force.[27]

In the fiscal year of 2005 and 2006, Luxembourg ran a budget deficit for the first time in many years, mostly because of slower international economic growth.[28]

With $80 billion (November 2010), the country ranks twelfth in the world in holdings of U.S. Treasury securities.[29] The ranking is however imperfect as some foreign owners entrust the safekeeping of their securities to institutions that are neither in the United States nor in the owner's country of residence.[30]

Luxembourg is promoting economic relations with foreign firms and countries.[31][32][33]

The Economist forecasts negligible GDP growth for 2012.[34]

Transport

Main article: Transport in Luxembourg

Luxembourg has efficient road, rail and air transport facilities and services. The road network has been significantly modernized in recent years with 147 km of motorways connecting the capital to adjacent countries. The advent of the high-speed TGV link to Paris has led to renovation of the city's railway station while a new passenger terminal at Luxembourg Airport has opened some years ago. There are plans to introduce trams in the capital and light-rail lines in adjacent areas within the next few years.

The number of cars per 1000 persons amount to 680.1 in Luxembourg — only British overseas territory Gibraltar and the Principality of Monaco scoring higher.[35]

Communications

The telecommunications industry in Luxembourg is liberalized and the electronic communications networks are significantly developed. Competition between the different operators is guaranteed by the legislative framework Paquet Telecom[36] of the Government of 2005 which transposes the European Telecom Directives into Luxembourgean law. This encourages the investment in networks and services. The regulator ILR – Institut Luxembourgeois de Régulation[37] ensures the compliance to these legal rules

Luxembourg has modern and widely deployed optical fibre and cable networks throughout the country. With its central position in Europe, stable economy and low taxes, Luxembourg is an ideal gateway to the European telecommunication markets.[38][39][40]

It ranks 2nd in the world in the development of the Information and Communication Technologies in the ITU ICT Development Index and 8th in the Global Broadband Quality Study 2009 by the University of Oxford and the University of Oviedo.[41][42][43][44]

Luxembourg is connected to all major European Internet Exchanges (AMS-IX Amsterdam (http://www.ams-ix.net/) , DE-CIX Frankfurt (http://www.de-cix.net/) , LINX London (https://www.linx.net/)), datacenters and POPs through redundant optical networks.[45][46][47][48][49] In addition, the country is connected to the virtual meetme room services (vmmr)[50] of the international data hub operator Ancotel.[51] This enables Luxembourg to interconnect with all major telecommunication operators[52] and data carriers worldwide. The interconnection points are in Frankfurt, London, New York and Hong Kong.[53]

Several providers interconnect Luxembourg to the major European data hubs

- Teralink[54] (P&TLuxembourg, also called EPT Luxembourg: incumbent operator)[55]
- LuxConnect[56] (shareholder : Government) LuxConnect tested in June 2011 the 100G coherent transmission of data signals between Luxembourg and Amsterdam.[57]
- Artelis/Cegecom[58] (alternative telecommunications provider in Luxembourg and Saarland)
- Satellite connectivity – Teleports (SES),[59] Broadcasting Center Europe[60] and P&T Luxembourg Teleport.[61] [62] [63]

Luxembourg is connected through an optical DWDM network, called Teralink[64] to several Tier 1 upstream providers like Level3 and Global Crossing. Teralink offers connectivities up to 100 Gbit/s. P&TLuxembourg has established in 2011 a coherent 100Gbit/s IP connection between Frankfurt and Luxembourg with live traffic.[65][66][67][68]

The Internet IPV6 protocol has been introduced to the country by Restena and P&T Luxembourg.[69]

Luxembourg has two Internet exchange points and one Carrier Ethernet Exchange points.

- LIX is a neutral Internet exchange operated by the RESTENA Foundation. Its aim is to easily interconnect the different Internet Service Providers (ISPs) within Luxembourg.[70]
- LUX-CIX is Luxembourg's neutral and commercial Internet Exchange Point which was founded in 2009 by Cegecom, Datacenter Luxembourg, Global Media Systems, INEXIO, LuxConnect, P&T Luxemboug and Root eSolutions. It offers a short, fast and efficient route to the major European Internet networks. [71][72]
- LEX is the Luxembourg Ethernet Exchange located in the Tier IV certified ebrc datacenter [73]

The online portal De Guichet[74] of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg is a single one-stop online shop for citizens and companies to realize different sorts of administrative steps (procedures, online forms, downloadable forms and advices) by Internet.[75]

PSA Peugeot Citroën, with P&T Luxembourg as its partner, has introduced an integrated mobile telecommunication solution for the development of its telematic services in Europe.[76][77]

Datacenters

More than 17 data centers[78][79][80] are operating in Luxembourg. The number is constantly growing. Two of the ebrc data centers are Tier IV classified & certificated.[81]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Luxembourg

Ethnicity

The people of Luxembourg are called Luxembourgers.[82] The immigrant population increased in the 20th century due to the arrival of immigrants from Belgium, France, Italy, Germany, and Portugal, with the majority coming from this latter. In the 2001 census, there were 58,657 inhabitants with Portuguese nationality.[83]

Since the beginning of the Yugoslav wars, Luxembourg has seen many immigrants from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, and Serbia. Annually, over 10,000 new immigrants arrive in Luxembourg, mostly from the EU states, as well and Eastern Europe. As of 2000, there were 162,000 immigrants in Luxembourg, accounting for 37% of the total population. There were an estimated 5,000 illegal immigrants, including asylum seekers, in Luxembourg as of 1999.[84]

Language

Main articles: Languages of Luxembourg and Literature of Luxembourg

Three languages are recognised as official in Luxembourg: French, German, and Luxembourgish, a Franconian language of the Moselle region that is also spoken in neighbouring parts of France and Germany. Though Luxembourgish is part of the West Central German group of High German languages, more than 5,000 words in the Luxembourgish have their origin in the French language.[85][86] The first printed sentences in

Luxembourgish were released by the weekly journal the 'Luxemburger Wochenblatt' in the second edition of the 14. April 1821.

Apart from being one of the three official languages, Luxembourgish is also considered the national language of the Grand Duchy; it is the mother tongue or "language of the heart" for nearly all Luxembourgers.[*citation needed*]

Each of the three languages is used as the primary language in certain spheres. Luxembourgish is the language that Luxembourgers generally use to speak to each other, but it is not often used as the written language. Since the 1980s, an increasing number of novels have however been written in Luxembourgish. Most official (written) business is carried out in French. German is usually the first language taught in school and is the language of much of the media and of the church.[87]

Luxembourg's education system is trilingual: the first years of primary school are in Luxembourgish, before changing to German, while in secondary school, the language of instruction changes to French.[88] Proficiency in all three languages is required for graduation from secondary school, but half the students leave school without a certified qualification, with the children of immigrants being particularly disadvantaged.[89]

In addition to the three official languages, English is taught in the compulsory schooling and much of the population of Luxembourg can speak English, at any rate in Luxembourg City. Portuguese, the language of the largest immigrant community, is also spoken by large parts of the population, but by relatively few from outside their community.[90]

Religion

Main article: Religion in Luxembourg



Notre-Dame Cathedral, Luxembourg.

Luxembourg is a secular state, but the state recognises certain religions as officially mandated religions. This gives the state a hand in religious administration and appointment of clergy, in exchange for which the state pays certain running costs and wages. Currently, religions covered by such arrangements are Roman Catholicism, Judaism, Greek Orthodoxy, Anglicanism, Russian Orthodoxy, Lutheranism, Mennonitism and Islam.[91]

Since 1980 it has been illegal for the government to collect statistics on religious beliefs or practices.[92] An estimation by the CIA Factbook for the year 2000 is that 87% of Luxembourgers are Catholics, including the royal family, the remaining 13% being made up of Muslims, Protestants, Orthodox Christians, Jews, and those of other or no religion.[25]

According to a 2005 Eurobarometer poll,[93] 44% of Luxembourg citizens responded that "they believe there is a God", whereas 28% answered that "they believe there is some sort of spirit or life force" and 22% that "they do not believe there is any sort of spirit, god, or life force".

Education

The University of Luxembourg is the only university in Luxembourg.

Health

Luxembourg sells the most alcohol in Europe per capita.[94] However, the large proportion of alcohol purchased by customers from neighbouring countries contributes to the statistically high level of alcohol sales per capita; this level of alcohol sales is thus not representative of the actual alcohol consumption of the Luxembourg population.[95]

Culture

Main articles: Culture of Luxembourg, Sport in Luxembourg, and Cuisine of Luxembourg

Luxembourg has been overshadowed by the culture of its neighbours, although, having been for much of its history a profoundly rural country, it retains a number of folk traditions. There are several notable museums, mostly located in the capital; these include the National Museum of History and Art (MNHA), the Luxembourg City History Museum, and the new Grand Duke Jean Museum of Modern Art (Mudam). The National Museum of Military History (MNHM) in Diekirch is especially known for its representations of the Battle of the Bulge. The city of Luxembourg itself is on the UNESCO World Heritage List, on account of the historical importance of its fortifications.[96]



Edward Steichen, Luxembourgish photographer and painter

The country has produced some internationally known artists, including the painters Théo Kerg, Joseph Kutter and Michel Majerus, as well as the photographer Edward Steichen. Steichen's *The Family of Man* exhibition is now permanently housed in Clervaux, and it has been placed on UNESCO's Memory of the World register. Movie star Loretta Young was of Luxembourgish descent.

Luxembourg was the first city to be named European Capital of Culture twice. The first time was in 1995. In 2007, the European Capital of Culture[97] was to be a cross-border area consisting of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, the Rheinland-Pfalz and Saarland in Germany, the Walloon Region and the German-speaking part of Belgium, and the Lorraine area in France. The event was an attempt to promote mobility and the exchange of ideas, crossing borders in all areas, physical, psychological, artistic and emotional.

Luxembourg was represented at the World Expo 2010 in Shanghai, China from 1 May to 31 October 2010 with its own pavilion.[98][99] The pavilion was based on the translation of the word Luxembourg into Chinese, which means ‘Lu Sen Bao’: Forest and Fortress. It represented Luxembourg as the ‘Green Heart in Europe'.[100]

Sport in Luxembourg

Unlike in most countries in Europe, **sport in Luxembourg** is not concentrated upon a particular national sport, but encompasses a number of sports, both team and individual. Despite the lack of a central sporting focus, over 100,000 people in Luxembourg, which has a total population of only 460,000, are licensed members of one sports federation or another.[101] The largest sports venue in the country is d'Coque, an indoor arena and Olympic swimming pool in Kirchberg, north-eastern Luxembourg City, which has a capacity of 8,300. The arena is used for basketball, handball, gymnastics, and volleyball, including the final of the 2007 Women's European Volleyball Championship. The largest, and national, stadium is the Stade Josy Barthel, in western Luxembourg City; named after the country's only official Olympic gold medallist, the stadium has a capacity of 8,054.

Andy Schleck and Frank Schleck are two famous professional cyclists for RadioShack-Nissan-Trek. They are

best known as climbers who excel in the mountain stages of Grand Tours like the Tour de France.

Gilles Müller is a professional tennis player, Ranked No. 42 as of (3 October 2011), competing in the fourth round of the 2011 US Open.

Mandy Minella is a professional tennis player.

Luxembourg cuisine

Luxembourg cuisine reflects Luxembourg's position on the border between the Latin and Germanic worlds, being heavily influenced by the cuisines of neighbouring France and Germany. More recently, it has had influence from its many Italian and Portuguese immigrants.



Judd mat Gaardebounen served with boiled potatoes and Diekirch beer

Most particularly native Luxembourgish dishes, consumed as the traditional daily fare, share roots in the Luxembourgish peasantry, similarly to German cuisine and in marked contrast to more sophisticated French.

Media

Luxembourg is known in Europe for its radio and television stations (Radio Luxembourg, RTL Group). It is also the uplink home of SES, carrier of major European satellite services for Germany and Britain. An English language news service is also available from the Luxemburger Wort on the website: wort.lu (http://www.wort.lu/en)

Due to the audiovisual law of 1988, which established a special tax regime for audiovisual investment, the film and co-production in Luxembourg has grown steadily.[102] There exists approximately 30 by agreed production companies in Luxembourg.[103]

See also

- Outline of Luxembourg

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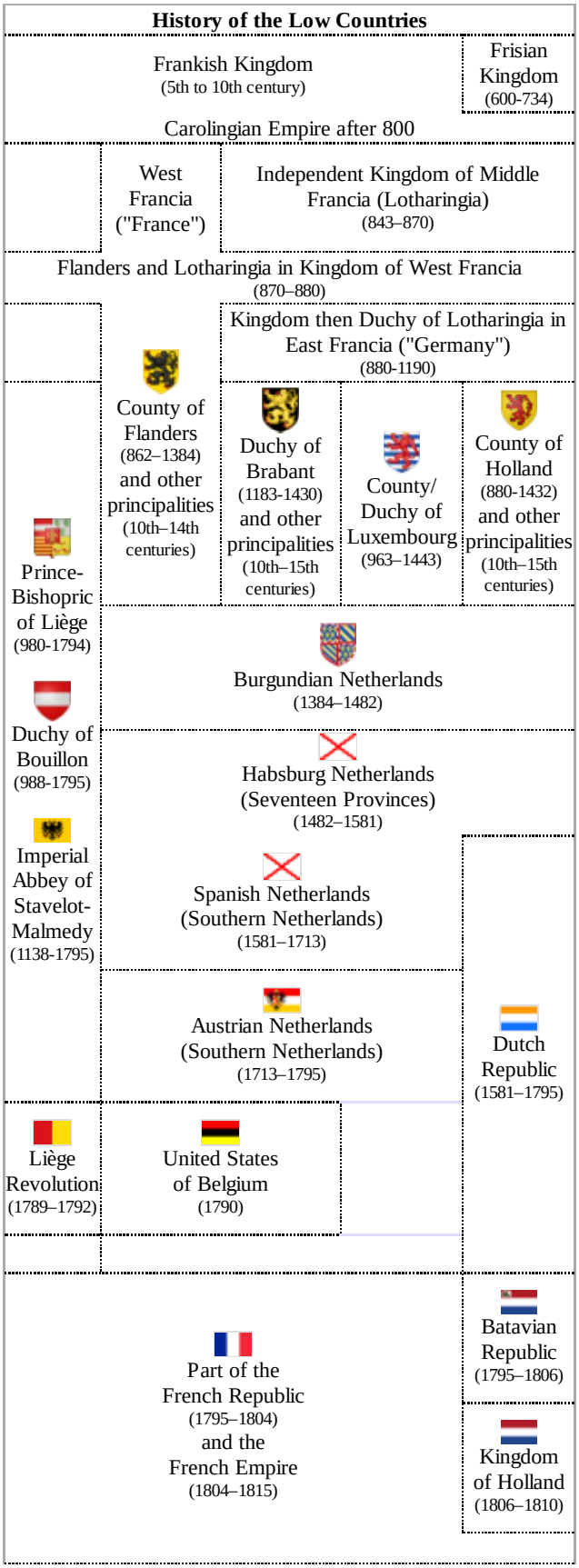
History of Luxembourg

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of Luxembourg** is inherently entwined with the histories of surrounding countries, peoples, and ruling dynasties. Over time, the territory of Luxembourg has been eroded, whilst its ownership has changed repeatedly, and its political independence has grown "'***gradually.***' Although recorded Luxembourgian history dates back to Roman times, the history of Luxembourg proper is considered to begin in 963. Over the following five centuries, the powerful House of Luxembourg emerged. Its extinction put an end to Luxembourgian independence. After a brief spell of Burgundian rule, Luxembourg fell into the hands of the Habsburgs in 1477.

After the Eighty Years' War, Luxembourg became a part of the Southern Netherlands, which passed to the Austrian line of the Habsburg dynasty in 1713. After occupation by Revolutionary France, the 1815 Treaty of Paris transformed Luxembourg into a Grand Duchy in personal union with the Netherlands. The treaty also resulted in the second partition of Luxembourg, the first being in 1659 and the third in 1839. Although these treaties greatly reduced Luxembourg's territory, they increased Luxembourg's independence, which was confirmed after the Luxembourg Crisis in 1867.

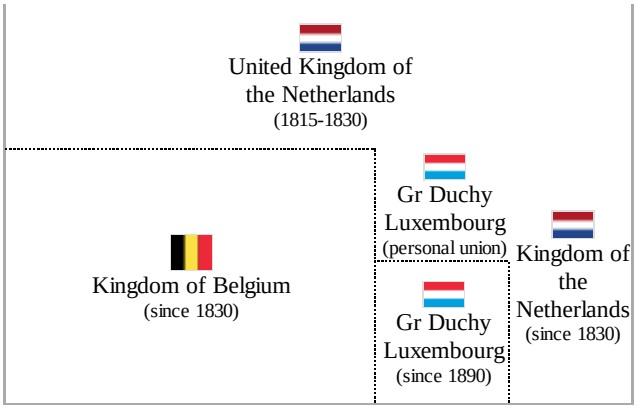
In the following decades, Luxembourg fell further into Germany's sphere of influence, particularly after the creation of a separate ruling house in 1890. Luxembourg was occupied by Germany from 1914 until 1918 and again from 1940 until 1944. Since the Second World War, Luxembourg has become one of the world's richest countries, buoyed by a booming financial services sector, political stability, and European integration.



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Ancient Luxembourg (before 963)

See also: Celtic Luxembourg

In the territory now covered by the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, there is evidence of primitive inhabitants right back to the Paleolithic or old stone age over 35,000 years ago. The oldest artifacts from this period are decorated bones found at Oetrange.[2]

However, the first real evidence of civilization is from the Neolithic or 5th millennium BC when houses began to appear. Traces have been found in the south of Luxembourg at Grevenmacher, Diekirch, Aspelt and Weiler-la-Tour. The dwellings were made of a combination of tree trunks for the basic structure, mud-clad wickerwork walls, and roofs of thatched reeds or straw.[3] Pottery from this period has been found near Remerschen.[4]

While there is not much evidence of communities in Luxembourg at the beginning of the Bronze Age, a number of sites dating back to the period between the 13th and the 8th century BC provide evidence of dwellings and reveal artifacts such as pottery, knives and jewelry. These include Nospelt, Dalheim, Mompach and Remerschen.

The Celts inhabited what is now Luxembourg from roughly 600 BC until 100 AD. The Celts inhabited large areas of Europe from the Danube to the Rhine and Rhône during this time. It was around 100 BC that the Treveri, one of the Celtic tribes, entered a period of prosperity. They constructed a number of fortified settlements or oppida near the Moselle valley in what is now southern Luxembourg, western Germany and eastern France.[1]

The Celtic civilization reached its height in the 1st century BC, prior to the Roman conquest in 54 BC. Most of the evidence from that period has been discovered in tombs, many closely associated with Titelberg, a 50 ha site which reveals much about the dwellings and handicrafts of the period.

The first known reference to the territory in modern Luxembourg was by Julius Caesar in his *Commentaries on the Gallic War*.[1]

The Celtic tribe in what is now Luxembourg during and after the La Tène period was known as the Treveri. By and large, the Treveri were more co-operative with the Romans, who completed their occupation in 53 BC under Julius Caesar, than most Gallic tribes. Two 1st-century AD revolts did not permanently damage their cordial relations with Rome, and the Treveri adapted readily to Roman civilization.

Medieval Luxembourg (963 – 1477)

The history of Luxembourg properly began with the construction of Luxembourg Castle in the Middle Ages. It was Siegfried I, Count of Ardennes who traded some of his ancestral lands with the monks of the Abbey of St. Maximin in Trier in 963 for an ancient, supposedly Roman, fort named *Lucilinburhuc*. Modern historians explain the etymology of the word with *Letze*, meaning fortification which might have referred to either the remains of a Roman watchtower or to a primitive refuge of the early Middle Ages.

Around this fort a town gradually developed, which became the centre of a small but important state of great strategic value to France, Germany and the Netherlands. Luxembourg's fortress, located on a rocky outcrop known as the Bock, was steadily enlarged and strengthened over the years by successive owners, among others the Bourbons, Habsburgs and Hohenzollerns, which made it one of the strongest fortresses on the European continent. Its formidable defences and strategic location caused it to become known as the 'Gibraltar of the North'.



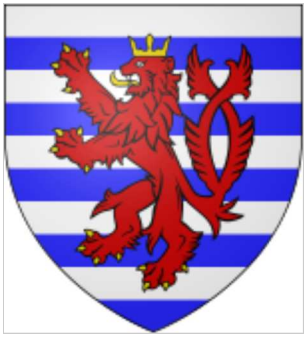
Early settlements in the area of present-day Luxembourg City before the 10th century with the church Saint-Saveur, today St.Micheal, built in 987

The Luxembourgish dynasty provided several Holy Roman Emperors, Kings of Bohemia, and Archbishops of Trier and Mainz. From the Early Middle Ages to the Renaissance, Luxembourg bore multiple names, depending on the author. These include *Lucilinburhuc*, *Lutzburg*, *Lützelburg*, *Luccelemburc*, *Lichtburg*, among others.

Luxembourg remained an independent fief (county) of the Holy Roman Empire until 1354, when the emperor Charles IV elevated it to the status of a duchy. At that time the Luxembourg family held the Crown of Bohemia, but the duchy was usually possessed as appanage by a separate branch of the family. In 1437 the imperial Luxembourg family became extinct in the male line. At that time, the duchy and castle were held by the Bohemian princess Elisabeth of Gorlitz, Duchess of Luxembourg, a cadet granddaughter of emperor Charles IV. Elisabeth was childless, and in 1440 made a treaty with her powerful neighbour Philip III, Duke of Burgundy that Philip would administer the duchy and inherit it after the Duchess Elisabeth's death. Elisabeth died in 1451, but Philip accelerated things by expelling Elisabeth in 1443. The heirs of the main Luxembourg dynasty were not happy with the arrangement the Burgundians had made, and managed at times to wrest the possession from Burgundy. The Habsburg prince Ladislas the Posthumous, king of Bohemia and Hungary (d. 1457), held the title in the 1450s. After his death, his brother-in-law William of Thuringia (1425 to 1482) held (or at least claimed) it from 1457 to 1469. In 1467, Elisabeth, Queen of Poland, the last surviving sister of Ladislas, renounced her right in favour of Burgundy by treaty and some concessions, since the possession was next to impossible to hold against Burgundian actions. After being captured by Philip of Burgundy in 1443 and ultimately from 1467 to 1469, the duchy became one of the Seventeen Provinces of the Netherlands. With the marriage of Mary of Burgundy in 1477 all the Netherlands provinces, including Luxembourg, came under Habsburg rule in the person of her husband Maximilian, and later their son Philip the Handsome.

Habsburg rule (1477–1815)

In these centuries the electors of Brandenburg, later kings of Prussia (Borussia), advanced their claim to the Luxembourg patrimony as heirs-general to William of Thuringia and his wife Anna of Bohemia, the disputed dukes of Luxembourg of the 1460s – Anna was the eldest daughter of the last Luxembourg heiress. From 1609 onwards, they had a territorial base in the vicinity, the Duchy of Cleves, the starting-point of the future Prussian Rhineland. This Brandenburger claim ultimately produced some results when some districts of Luxembourg were united with Prussia in 1813.


Coat of arms of the Counts, Dukes and Grand

The first Hohenzollern claimant to descend from both Anna and her younger sister Elisabeth, was John George, Elector of Brandenburg (1525–98), his maternal grandmother having been Barbara Jagiellon. In the late 18th century, the younger

line of Orange-Nassau (the princes who held sway in the neighbouring Dutch oligarchy) also became related to the Brandenburgers.

Dukes of Luxembourg

In 1598, the then possessor, Philip II of Spain, bequeathed Luxembourg and the other Low Countries to his daughter the Infanta Isabella Clara Eugenia and her husband Albert VII, Archduke of Austria. Albert was an heir and descendant of Elisabeth of Austria (d. 1505), queen of Poland, the youngest granddaughter of Sigismund of Luxembourg, the Holy Roman Emperor. Thus, Luxembourg returned to the heirs of the old Luxembourg dynasty – at least those of the line of Elisabeth. The Low Countries were a separate political entity during the couple's reign. After Albert's childless death in 1621, Luxembourg passed to his great-nephew and heir Philip IV of Spain, who through his paternal grandmother Anna of Austria, queen of Spain, Albert's sister, was the primogenitural heir to the Queen Elisabeth of Poland.

Luxembourg was invaded by Louis XIV of France (husband of Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV) in 1684, an action that caused alarm among France's neighbours and resulted in the formation of the League of Augsburg in 1686. In the ensuing War of the Grand Alliance, France was forced to give up the duchy, which was returned to the Habsburgs by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697. During this period of French rule, the defences of the fortress were strengthened by the famous siege engineer Vauban. The French king's great-grandson Louis (1710–74) was, from 1712, the first heir-general of Albert VII. Albert VII was a descendant of Anna of Bohemia and William of Thuringia, having that blood through his mother's Danish great-great-grandmother, but was not the heir-general of that line. Louis was the first real claimant of Luxembourg to descend from both sisters, the daughters of Elisabeth of Bohemia, the last Luxembourg empress.

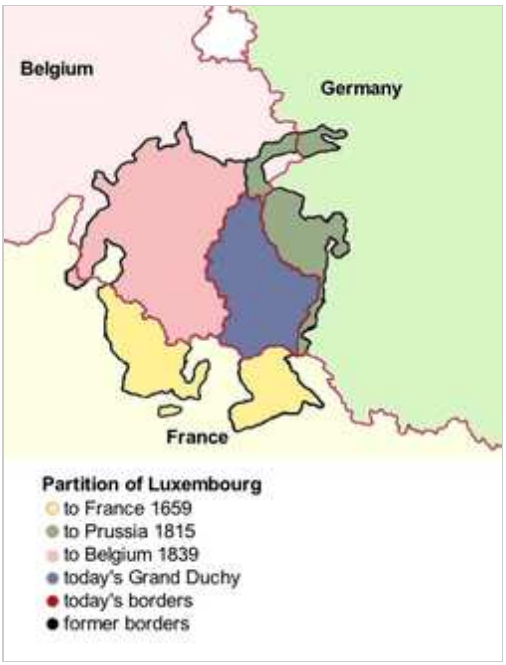
Habsburg rule was confirmed in 1715 by the Treaty of Utrecht, and Luxembourg was integrated into the Austrian Netherlands. Emperor Joseph and his successor Emperor Charles VI were descendants of Spanish kings who were heirs of Albert VII. Joseph and Charles VI were also descendants of Anna of Bohemia and William of Thuringia, having that blood through their mother, although they were heirs-general of neither line. Charles was the first ruler of Luxembourg to descend from both sisters, daughters of Elisabeth of Bohemia, the last Luxembourg empress.

Austrian rulers were more or less ready to exchange Luxembourg and other territories in the Low Countries. Their purpose was to round out and enlarge their power base, which in geographical terms was centered around Vienna. Thus, Bavarian candidate(s) emerged to take over the Duchy of Luxembourg, but this plan led to nothing permanent. Emperor Joseph II however made a preliminary pact to make a neighbour of Luxembourg, Charles Theodore, Elector Palatine, as Duke of Luxembourg and king in the Low Countries, in exchange of his possessions in Bavaria and Franconia. However, this scheme was aborted. Charles Theodore, who would thus have become Duke of Luxembourg, was genealogically a junior descendant of both Anna and Elisabeth, but main heir of neither.

During the War of the First Coalition, Luxembourg was conquered and annexed by Revolutionary France, becoming part of the *département* of the Forêts[2] in 1795. The annexation was formalised at Campo Formio in 1797. In 1798 Luxembourgish peasants rebelled against the French but the Rebellion was rapidly oppressed.This short Rebellion is called the Peasant's War.

Developing independence (1815–1890)

Luxembourg remained more or less under French rule until the defeat of Napoleon in 1815, when the Congress of Vienna gave formal autonomy to Luxembourg. The Prussians had already in 1813 managed to wrest lands from Luxembourg, to strengthen the Prussian-possessed Duchy of Julich. The Bourbons of France held a strong claim to Luxembourg, the Emperor of Austria on the other hand had controlled the duchy until the revolutionary forces had joined it to the French republic (he reportedly was not enthusiastic about regaining Luxembourg and



The three Partitions of Luxembourg

the Low Countries, being more interested in the Balkans). The King of Prussia held the claim of the senior heiress, Anna. An additional claimant emerged, William VI, Prince of Orange who now ruled the Netherlands, and whose mother and wife were descendants of the Prussian royal family and thus also descendants of both daughters of the last Luxembourg heiress. Prussia and Orange-Nassau made the following exchange deal: Prussia received the Principality of Orange-Nassau, which included the ancestral lands of Nassau in Central Germany; the Prince of Orange in turn received Luxembourg.

Luxembourg, somewhat diminished in size (as the medieval lands had been slightly reduced by the French and Prussian heirs), was augmented in another way through the elevation to the status of grand duchy and placed under the rule of William I of the Netherlands. This was the first time that the duchy had a monarch who had no claim to inheritance of the medieval patrimony (as lineages through his mother and wife had a better entitled claimant, the Prussian king himself). However, Luxembourg's military value to Prussia prevented it from becoming a part of the Dutch kingdom. The fortress, ancestral seat of the medieval Luxembourgers, was taken over by Prussian forces, following Napoleon's defeat, and Luxembourg became a member of the German Confederation with Prussia responsible for its defense.

In July 1819 a contemporary from Britain visited Luxembourg: his journal offers some insights. Norwich Duff writes that "Luxembourg is considered one of the strongest fortifications in Europe, and … it appears so. It is situated in Holland (then as now used by English speakers as shorthand for the Netherlands) but by treaty is garrisoned by Prussians and 5,000 of their troops occupy it under a Prince of Hesse. The civil government is under the Dutch and the duties collected by them. The town is not very large but the streets are broader than [in] the French towns and clean ands the houses are good.... [I] got the cheapest of hot baths here at the principal house I ever had in my life: one franc."

Much of the Luxembourgish population joined the Belgian revolution against Dutch rule. Except for the fortress and its immediate vicinity Luxembourg was considered a province of the new Belgian state from 1830 to 1839. By the Treaty of London in 1839 the status of the grand duchy was confirmed as sovereign and in personal union to the king of the Netherlands. In turn, the predominantly French speaking part of the duchy was ceded to Belgium as the province de Luxembourg. This loss left the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg a predominantly German state, although French cultural influence remained strong. The loss of Belgian markets also caused painful economic problems for the state. Recognizing this, the grand duke integrated it into the German *Zollverein* in 1842. Nevertheless, Luxembourg remained an underdeveloped agrarian country for most of the century. As a result of this about one in five of the inhabitants emigrated to the United States between 1841 and 1891.

Crisis of 1867

It was not until 1867 that Luxembourg's independence was formally ratified, after a turbulent period which even included a brief time of civil unrest against plans to annex Luxembourg to Belgium, Germany or France. The crisis of 1867 almost resulted in war between France and Prussia over the status of Luxembourg. It involved competition between France and Prussia over control of Luxembourg, which had become free of German control when the German Confederation was abolished at the end of the Seven Weeks War in 1866.

William III, king of the Netherlands, which still had sovereignty over Luxembourg, was willing to sell the grand duchy to France's Emperor Napoleon III in order to retain Limbourg but backed out when Prussian chancellor Otto von Bismarck expressed opposition. The growing tension brought about a conference in London from March to May 1867 in which the British served as mediators between the two rivals. Bismarck manipulated public opinion, resulting in the denial of sale to France and the continued suzerainty of Holland, a member of the customs union with close ties to Prussia. The issue was resolved by the second Treaty of London which guaranteed the perpetual independence and neutrality of the state. The fortress walls were pulled down and the Prussian garrison was withdrawn.[3][4]

Famous visitors to Luxembourg in the 18th and 19th centuries included the German poet Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, the French writers Emile Zola and Victor Hugo, the composer Franz Liszt, and the English painter Joseph Mallord William Turner.

Separation and the World Wars (1890–1945)

Luxembourg remained a possession of the kings of the Netherlands until the death of William III in 1890, when the grand duchy passed to the House of Nassau-Weilburg due to a Nassau inheritance pact of 1783.

First World War

World War I affected Luxembourg at a time when the nation-building process was far from complete. The small grand duchy (about 260,000 inhabitants in 1914) opted for an ambiguous policy between 1914 and 1918. With the country occupied by Germans troops, the government, led by Paul Eyschen, chose to remain neutral. This strategy had been elaborated with the approval of Marie-Adélaïde, Grand Duchess of Luxembourg. Although continuity prevailed on the political level, the war caused social upheaval, which laid the foundation for the first trades union in Luxembourg.

Interwar period

The end of the occupation in November 1918 squared with a time of uncertainty on the international and national levels. The victorious Allies disapproved of the choices made by the local élites, and some Belgian politicians even demanded the integration of the country into a greater Belgium. Within Luxembourg a strong minority asked for the creation of a republic. In the end, the grand duchy remained a monarchy but was led by a new head of state, Charlotte. In 1921 it entered into an economic and monetary union with Belgium, the Union Économique Belgo-Luxembourgeoise (UEBL). During most of the 20th century, however, Germany remained its most important economic partner.

The introduction of universal suffrage for men and women favored the Rechtspartei (party of the Right), which played the dominant role in the government throughout the 20th century, with the exception of 1925–26 and 1974–79, when the two other important parties, the Liberal and the Social-Democratic parties, formed a coalition. The success of the resulting party was due partly to the support of the church — the population was more than 90 percent Catholic — and of its newspaper, the *Luxemburger Wort*.

On the international level, the interwar period was characterized by an attempt to put Luxembourg on the map. Especially under Joseph Bech, head of the Department of Foreign Affairs, the country participated more actively in several international organizations, in order to ensure its autonomy. On December 16, 1920, Luxemburg became a member of the League of Nations. On the economic level in the 1920s and the 1930s, the agricultural sector declined in favor of industry, but even more so for the service sector. The proportion of the active population in this last sector rose from 18 percent in 1907 to 31 percent in 1935.

In the 1930s the internal situation deteriorated, as Luxembourgish politics were influenced by European left- and right-wing politics. The government tried to counter communist-led unrest in the industrial areas and continued friendly policies towards Nazi Germany, which led to much criticism. The attempts to quell unrest peaked with the *Maulkuerfgesetz*, the "muzzle" Law, which was an attempt to outlaw the Communist Party. The law was turned down in a 1937 referendum.

Second World War

Upon the outbreak of the Second World War in September 1939, the government of Luxembourg observed its neutrality and issued an official proclamation to that effect on September 6, 1939.[5] On May 10, 1940, the Luxembourgish government and monarchy was swept away into exile by the German invasion of that date. The German invasion, made up of the 1st, 2nd, and 10th Panzer Divisions began at 04:35. They did not encounter any significant resistance save for some bridges destroyed and some land mines, since the majority of the Luxembourgish Volunteer Corps stayed in their barracks. Luxembourgish police resisted the German troops, however, to little avail; the capital city was occupied before noon. Total Luxembourgish casualties amounted to 75 police and soldiers captured, six police wounded, and one soldier wounded.[6] Throughout the war, Grand Duchess Charlotte broadcast via on BBC to Luxembourg to give hope to the people.

The state was placed under military occupation until August 1942, when it was formally annexed by the Third Reich as part of the *Gau Moselland*. Luxembourgers were declared to be German citizens and 13,000 were called up for military service. 2,848 Luxembourgers eventually died fighting in the German army.

Luxembourgish opposition to this annexation took the form of passive resistance at first, as in the *Spéngelskrich* (lit. "War of the Pins"), and by the refusal to speak German. As French was forbidden, many Luxembourgers resorted to resuscitating old Luxembourgish words, which led to a renaissance of the language. Other measures included deportation, forced labour, forced conscription and, more drastically, internment, deportation to concentration camps and execution.

The latter measure was applied after the so-called general strike from 1 September to 3 September 1942, which paralyzed the administration, agriculture, industry and education as response to the declaration of forced conscription by the German administration on 30 August 1942. It was violently suppressed: 21 strikers were executed and hundreds more deported to concentration camps. The then civilian administrator of Luxembourg, Gauleiter Gustav Simon had declared conscription necessary to support the German war effort. It was to remain one of the few mass strikes against the German war machinery in Western Europe.

U.S. forces liberated most of the country in September 1944, they entered the capital city on 10 September 1944. During the Ardennes Offensive (Battle of the Bulge) German troops took back most of northern Luxembourg for a few weeks. The Germans were finally expelled in January 1945. Altogether, of a pre-war population of 293,000, 5,259 Luxembourgers lost their lives during the hostilities.

Modern history (since 1945)

After World War II Luxembourg abandoned its politics of neutrality, when it became a founding member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (1949) and the United Nations. It is a signatory of the Treaty of Rome, and constituted a monetary union with Belgium (Benelux Customs Union in 1948), and an economic union with Belgium and the Netherlands, the so-called BeNeLux.

Between 1945 and 2005, the economic structure of Luxembourg changed significantly. The crisis of the metallurgy sector, which began in the mid-1970s and lasted till the late 1980s, nearly pushed the country into economic recession, given the monolithic dominance of that sector. The Tripartite Coordination Committee,

consisting of members of the government, management representatives, and trade union leaders, succeeded in preventing major social unrest during those years, thus creating the myth of a “Luxembourg model” characterized by social peace. Although in the early years of the 21st century Luxembourg enjoyed one of the highest GNP per capita in the world, this was mainly due to the strength of its financial sector, which gained importance at the end of the 1960s. Thirty-five years later, one-third of the tax proceeds originated from that sector. The harmonization of the tax system across Europe could, however, seriously undermine the financial situation of the grand duchy.

Luxembourg has been one of the strongest advocates of the European Union in the tradition of Robert Schuman. In 1957, Luxembourg became one of the six founding countries of the European Economic Community (later the European Union) and in 1999 it joined the euro currency area.

Encouraged by the contacts established with the Dutch and Belgian governments in exile, Luxembourg pursued a policy of presence in international organizations. It was one of the six founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) in 1952 and of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957. In the context of the Cold War, Luxembourg clearly opted for the West by joining the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in 1949, thus renouncing its traditional neutrality, which had determined its international policy since the founding of the state. Engagement in European construction was rarely questioned subsequently, either by politicians or by the greater population. Despite its small proportions, Luxembourg often played an intermediary role between larger countries. This role of mediator, especially between the two large and often bellicose nations of Germany and France, was considered one of the main characteristics of national identity, allowing the Luxembourger not to have to choose between one of these two neighbours. The country also hosted a large number of European institutions such as the European Court of Justice. Luxembourg’s small size no longer seemed to be a challenge to the existence of the country, and the creation of the Banque Centrale du Luxembourg (1998) and of the University of Luxembourg (2003) was evidence of the continuing desire to become a “real” nation. The decision in 1985 to declare Lëtzebuergesch (Luxembourgian) the national language was also a step in the affirmation of the country’s independence. In fact, the linguistic situation in Luxembourg was characterized by trilinguilism: Lëtzebuergesch was the spoken vernacular language, German the written language, in which Luxembourgers were most fluent, and French the language of official letters and law.

In 1985, the country became victim to a mysterious bombing spree, which was targeted mostly at electrical masts and other installations.

In 1995 Luxembourg provided the President of the European Commission, former Prime Minister Jacques Santer who later had to resign over corruption accusations against other commission members.

The current Prime Minister, Jean-Claude Juncker follows this European tradition. On 10 September 2004, Mr Juncker became the semi-permanent President of the group of finance ministers from the 12 countries that share the euro, a role dubbed "Mr Euro".

The present sovereign is Grand Duke Henri. Henri's father, Jean, succeeded his mother, Charlotte, on 12 November 1964. Jean's eldest son, Prince Henri, was appointed "Lieutenant Représentant" (Hereditary Grand Duke) on 4 March 1998. On 24 December 1999, Prime Minister Juncker announced Grand Duke Jean's decision to abdicate the throne on 7 October 2000, in favour of Prince Henri who assumed the title and constitutional duties of Grand Duke.

On 10 July 2005, after threats of resignation by Prime Minister Juncker, the proposed European Constitution was approved by 56.52% of voters.

See also

Grand Duke of Luxembourg

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Grand Duke of Luxembourg** is the sovereign monarch and head of state of Luxembourg. Luxembourg has been a grand duchy since 15 March 1815, when it was elevated from a duchy when placed in personal union with the United Kingdom of the Netherlands. Since then, there have been nine monarchs of Luxembourg, including the current incumbent, Henri.

Grand Duke of Luxembourg

MONARCHY



Arms of His Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Luxembourg



Incumbent:
Henri

Style:	His Royal Highness
Heir apparent:	Guillaume, Hereditary Grand Duke of Luxembourg
First monarch:	William I of the Netherlands
Formation:	15 March 1815 (197 years, 6 days)

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Constitutional role

The Constitution of Luxembourg defines the Grand Duke's position:

> “The Grand Duke is the head of state, symbol of its unity, and guarantor of national independence. He exercises executive power in accordance with the Constitution and the laws of the country.[1]”



Car Flag

After a constitutional change in December 2008 resulting from Henri's refusal to sign a law legalizing euthanasia, laws now take effect without the grand duke's approval[2] As a result, the grand duke is no longer even the *nominal* chief executive.

Succession

Main article: Line of succession to the throne of Luxembourg

Succession to the throne is governed by Salic law, as dictated by the Nassau Family Pact, first adopted on 30 June 1783.[1] A change in the succession laws introduced equal primogeniture beginning with the descendants of

Grand Duke Henri. The right to reign over Luxembourg was until June 2011 passed by agnatic-cognatic primogeniture within the House of Nassau, as stipulated under the 1815 Final Act of the Congress of Vienna and as confirmed by the 1867 Treaty of London.[1] The Nassau Family Pact itself can be amended by the usual legislative process, having been so on 10 July 1907 to exclude the Count of Merenberg branch of the House, which was descended from a morganatic marriage.[3]

If there is a male heir apparent, he may be granted the style 'Hereditary Grand Duke'. The current heir is Hereditary Grand Duke Guillaume. In June 2011, the agnatic-cognatic primogeniture was dropped in favor of equal primogeniture, allowing any legitimate female descendants within the House of Nassau to be included in the line of succession.[4]

Full titles

The current Grand Duke, Henri, bears the full style "*His Royal Highness by the Grace of God, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, Duke of Nassau, Count Palatine of the Rhine, Count of Sayn, Königstein, Katzenelnbogen and Diez, Burgrave of Hammerstein, Lord of Mahlberg, Wiesbaden, Idstein, Merenberg, Limburg and Eppstein*." It should, however, be noted that many of the titles are held without regard to the strict rules of Salic inheritance.



The Grand Ducal Standard is the official flag of the Sovereign.

List of Grand Dukes

Main article: List of monarchs of Luxembourg

Since 1815, there have been seven Grand Dukes of Luxembourg and two Grand Duchesses regnant of Luxembourg:

- William I (1815–1840)
- William II (1840–1849)
- William III (1849–1890)
- Adolphe (1890–1905)
- William IV (1905–1912)
- Marie-Adélaïde (1912–1919)
- Charlotte (1919–1964)
- Jean (1964–2000)
- Henri (2000–present)

See also

- Grand Ducal Family of Luxembourg

Henri, Grand Duke of Luxembourg

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Henri, Grand Duke of Luxembourg OIH (given names: *Henri Albert Gabriel Félix Marie Guillaume*; born at Betzdorf Castle in Betzdorf, Luxembourg, 16 April 1955) is the head of state of Luxembourg. He is the eldest son of Jean, Grand Duke of Luxembourg and Princess Joséphine-Charlotte of Belgium. His maternal grandparents were King Leopold III of Belgium and Astrid of Sweden. He is a nephew of the current King of the Belgians, Albert II.

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Childhood and education

Grand Duke Henri has four siblings: Archduchess Marie Astrid of Austria (b. 1954), Prince Jean of Luxembourg (b. 1957), Princess Margaretha of Liechtenstein (b. 1957) and Prince Guillaume of Luxembourg (b. 1963).

Henri became Hereditary Grand Duke of Luxembourg on 12 November 1964 and was educated in Luxembourg and in France, where he obtained his baccalaureate in 1974. He then studied political sciences at University of Geneva, graduating in 1980. The Grand Duke also undertook military officer training at the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, England.

Marriage and family

Henri



Grand Duke of Luxembourg

Reign	7 October 2000 – present
Predecessor	Jean
Heir apparent	Guillaume, Hereditary Grand Duke of Luxembourg
Prime Ministers	*See list*
Spouse	Maria Teresa Mestre y Batista-Falla
Issue	***Detail***
Prince Guillaume Prince Felix Prince Louis Princess Alexandra Prince Sébastien	
Full name	
Henri Albert Gabriel Félix Marie Guillaume	
House	House of Bourbon-Parma
Father	Jean, Grand Duke of Luxembourg
Mother	Princess Joséphine Charlotte of Belgium
Born	16 April 1955 Betzdorf Castle, Luxembourg
Religion	Roman Catholicism

While studying in Geneva, Henri met the former María Teresa Mestre y Batista, who was also a political sciences student. They married in Luxembourg on 4 February/14 February 1981 with the previous consent of the Grand Duke, dated 7 November 1980.

The couple has five children:

1. Prince **Guillaume** Jean Joseph Marie, Hereditary Grand Duke of Luxembourg (b. 11 November 1981)
2. Prince **Félix** Léopold Marie Guillaume (b. 3 June 1984)
3. Prince **Louis** Xavier Marie Guillaume (b. 3 August 1986), married to Princess Tessy
4. Princess **Alexandra** Joséphine Teresa Charlotte Marie Wilhelmine (b. 16 February 1991)
5. Prince **Sébastien** Henri Marie Guillaume (b. 16 April 1992)

and two grandsons:

1. Prince **Gabriel** Michael Louis Ronny of Nassau (born 12 March 2006), son of Prince Louis and Princess Tessy
2. Prince **Noah** Guillaume of Nassau (born 21 September 2007), son of Prince Louis and Princess Tessy

Constitutional position

Prince Henri became heir apparent to the Luxembourg throne on the abdication of his paternal grandmother, Grand Duchess Charlotte of Luxembourg, on 12 November 1964. From 1980 to 1998, he was a member of the Council of State.



Royal Standard

On 4 March 1998, Prince Henri was appointed as Lieutenant Representative by his father, Grand Duke Jean, meaning that he assumed most of his father's constitutional powers. On 7 October 2000, immediately following the abdication of his father, Henri acceded as Grand Duke of Luxembourg and took the constitutional oath before the Chamber of Deputies later that day.

Henri's full name, style and title is: *His Royal Highness Henri, by the Grace of God, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, Duke of Nassau, Count Palatine of the Rhine, Count of Sayn, Königstein, Katzenelnbogen and Diez, Burgrave of Hammerstein, Lord of Mahlberg, Wiesbaden, Idstein, Merenberg, Limburg and Eppstein*.

However, on ascending the throne, Grand Duke Henri relinquished the styling "by the Grace of God", and in the laws, decrees, and official documents his name and title is: "Henri, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, Duke of Nassau".

Monarchical styles of

Grand Duke Henri I of Luxembourg



Reference style	His Royal Highness
Spoken style	Your Royal Highness
Alternative style	Sir

Euthanasia controversy

On 2 December 2008 it was announced that Grand Duke Henri had stated he would refuse to sign into law the act on euthanasia that had been voted on earlier in the year by the Chamber of Deputies. A second and final vote has yet to take place, at which point signature of the Grand Duke would be necessary to approve and enact the law. Whilst the long-term implications for the constitutional position of the Grand Duke are unclear, it was announced by Minister of State Jean-Claude Juncker that a Constitutional Amendment would be proposed, whereby the signature of the Monarch would no longer be necessary for a law to take effect. This would remove one of the

legislative roles of the Grand Duke, namely approving new legislation. The Luxembourg royal house has tried to block a decision by parliament only once before, when the Grand Duchess Marie-Adelaide refused to sign an education bill in 1912.

Role and interests

As the head of a constitutional monarchy, Grand Duke Henri's duties are primarily representative. However, he retains the constitutional power to appoint the Prime Minister and Government, to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, to promulgate laws and to accredit ambassadors.



The Grand Duke Henri, his wife Maria Teresa and his son Guillaume, hereditary Grand Duke

Grand Duke Henri is Commander-in-Chief of the Luxembourg Army, in which he holds the rank of General. He is also an Honorary Major in the British Parachute Regiment.

One of the Grand Duke's main functions is to represent Luxembourg in the field of foreign affairs. In May 2001, Grand Duke Henri and Grand Duchess Maria Teresa undertook their first foreign state visit to Spain, at the invitation of King Juan Carlos and Queen Sofia.

Grand Duke Henri is a member of the International Olympic Committee, a member of The Mentor Foundation (established by the World Health Organisation) and a Director of the Charles Darwin Trust for the Galapagos Islands.

The Grand Duke lives with his family at Berg Castle in Luxembourg. He also has a holiday home at Cabasson, near Bormes-les-Mimosas in the south of France.

Media and publicity

Since the accession of Henri to the Grand Ducal Throne in 2000, the Court's approach to media and publicity has varied markedly. In 2002, Grand Duke Henri expressly identified himself with a press conference called by Grand Duchess Maria Teresa with a view to discussing with journalists the shortcomings of her personal relations with her mother-in-law, the former Grand Duchess Joséphine-Charlotte of Belgium.

In contrast, when the Grand Ducal Couple's first grandchild was born in 2006, the Court Circular pointedly omitted to mention the event, probably as the father Prince Louis was not married at the time. However, the pregnancy was announced on 2005, so the country was informed that the prince and his girlfriend were going to be parents. The press also had access to the child's baptism.

The Grand Ducal Family's approach to media and publicity issues has itself given rise to media comment regarding the quality of communications advice which has been sought and followed. As well as the public airing of the difficulties between the Grand Duchess and her mother-in-law, several other events have resulted in adverse publicity, most notably: in 2004, the opening

Luxembourgish Grand Ducal Family



- **HRH The Grand Duke**
  HRH The Grand Duchess
  - HRH The Hereditary Grand Duke
  - HRH Prince Félix
  - HRH Prince Louis
    HRH Princess Tessy
    - HRH Prince Noah
    - HRH Prince Gabriel

of Parliament by the Grand Duke in person, the first time in over 100 years the Monarch had done so; in 2005, the Grand Duke announced he intended to vote in favour of the European Constitution in the impending referendum, only to be reminded by senior politicians that he had no such right; the proposed sale of large tracts of the Gruenewald in the summer of 2006 shortly followed by the proposed sale (cancelled shortly afterwards) at Sotheby's of recently-deceased Grand Duchess Joséphine-Charlotte's effects.[1]

Health

On February 3, 2011, Henri was admitted to the Centre Hospitalier de Luxembourg after becoming ill. Shortly after, the Grand Ducal Court issued a statement saying that he was to undergo an angioplasty. The day after, the Communications Chief announced that the surgery had been a success. “The state of His Royal Highness’ health is not disturbing,” the statement read, before stating the Grand Duke may leave hospital within the next few days. Although the reason has not formally been disclosed, it is reported that the Grand Duke felt ill after waking on the third, and the Court Physician noticed circulation problems. It was then that he was rushed to hospital, to the cardiac unit, and was discharged the following day. As of February 5, he is currently believed to be spending time at Berg Castle in Colmar-Berg.

Titles, styles and honours

Titles and styles

- **16 April 1955 – 12 November 1964:** *His Royal Highness* Prince Henri of Luxembourg
- **12 November 1964 – 7 October 2000:** *His Royal Highness* The Hereditary Grand Duke of Luxembourg
- **7 October 2000 – present:** *His Royal Highness* The Grand Duke of Luxembourg

Luxembourg honours

- Grand Master of the Order of the Golden Lion of Nassau
- Grand Master of the military and civil Order of Adolphe of Nassau
- Grand Master of the Order of the Oak Crown
- Grand Master of the Order of Merit of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg

Foreign honours

- Commonwealth realms: Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order
- Belgium: Grand Cordon of the Order of Leopold
- Denmark: Knight of the Order of the Elephant
- Estonia : Collar of the Order of the Cross of Terra Mariana
- Italy : Knight Grand Cross decorated with Grand Cordon of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic
- Latvia: Commander Grand Cross with Chain of the Order of Three Stars
- Norway : Knight Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of St. Olav

- HRH Princess Alexandra
- HRH Prince Sébastien

HRH Grand Duke Jean

- HI&RH Archduchess Marie-Astrid
- HRH Prince Jean
  - HRH Princess Marie-Gabrielle
  - HRH Prince Constantin
  - HRH Prince Wenceslas
  - HRH Prince Carl-Johan
- HRH Princess Margaretha
- HRH Prince Guillaume
  HRH Princess Sibilla
  - HRH Prince Paul Louis
  - HRH Prince Léopold
  - HRH Princess Charlotte
  - HRH Prince Jean

- HRH Princess Marie Gabriele
- HRH Princess Joan
  - HRH Princess Charlotte
  - HRH Prince Robert
    HRH Princess Julie
    - HRH Princess Charlotte
    - HRH Prince Alexandre
    - HRH Prince Frederik
- HRH The Dowager Princess of Ligne

- Portugal Grand Collar of the Order of Prince Henry
- Portugal Grand Collar of the Order of Saint James of the Sword
- Romania : Collar of the Order of the Star of Romania
- Spain : Knight of the Order of the Golden Fleece
- Sweden : Knight of the Order of the Seraphim

International sovereign organisations

- : Bailiff Grand Cross of Honour and Devotion of the Sovereign Military Order of Malta

Former Sovereign families

- Italy : Supreme Knight of the Order of the Most Holy Annunciation (House of Savoy)

Ancestors

Patrilineal descent

Patrilineal descent
Henri's patriline is the line from which he is descended father to son. Patrilineal descent is the principle behind membership in royal houses, as it can be traced back through the generations - which means that if Duke Henri were to choose an historically accurate house name it would be Robert, as all his male-line ancestors have been of that house. Henri is a member of the House of Bourbon-Parma, a sub-branch of the House of Bourbon-Spain, itself originally a branch of the House of Bourbon, and thus of the Capetian dynasty and of the Robertians. Henri's patriline is the line from which he is descended father to son. It follows the Dukes of Parma as well as the Kings of Spain, France, and Navarre. The line can be traced back more than 1,400 years and is one of the oldest in Europe. 1. Robert or Radon, Mayor of the Palace of Austrasia in 613 2. Robert, Referendary in 629 and Duke in 631 3. Erlebert, Noble of Therouanne 4. Robert, Mayor of the Palace of Neustria in 653, Referendary in 658 and Count in Alsace in 673 5. Robert I of Worms and Rheingau, d. 764 6. Thuringbert of Worms and Rheingau 7. Robert II of Worms and Rheingau (Robert of Hesbaye), 770 - 807 8. Robert III of Worms and Rheingau, 808 - 834 9. Robert IV the Strong, 820 - 866 10. Robert I of France, 866 - 923 11. Hugh the Great, 895 - 956 12. Hugh Capet, 941 - 996 13. Robert II of France, 972 - 1031 14. Henry I of France, 1008–1060 15. Philip I of France, 1053–1108 16. Louis VI of France, 1081–1137

17. Louis VII of France, 1120–1180
18. Philip II of France, 1165–1223
19. Louis VIII of France, 1187–1226
20. Louis IX of France, 1215–1270
21. Robert, Count of Clermont, 1256–1317
22. Louis I, Duke of Bourbon, 1279–1342
23. James I, Count of La Marche, 1319–1362
24. John I, Count of La Marche, 1344–1393
25. Louis, Count of Vendôme, 1376–1446
26. Jean VIII, Count of Vendôme, 1428–1478
27. François, Count of Vendôme, 1470–1495
28. Charles de Bourbon, Duke of Vendôme, 1489–1537
29. Antoine of Navarre, 1518–1562
30. Henry IV of France, 1553–1610
31. Louis XIII of France, 1601–1643
32. Louis XIV of France, 1638–1715
33. Louis, Dauphin of France (1661-1711), 1661–1711
34. Philip V of Spain, 1683–1746
35. Philip, Duke of Parma, 1720–1765
36. Ferdinand, Duke of Parma, 1751–1802
37. Louis of Etruria, 1773–1803
38. Charles II, Duke of Parma, 1799–1883
39. Charles III, Duke of Parma, 1823–1854
40. Robert I, Duke of Parma, 1848–1907
41. Felix of Bourbon-Parma, 1893–1970
42. Jean, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, 1921 -
43. Henri, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, 1955 -

The descent before Robert of Worms is taken from [1] (http://fabpedigree.com/s024/f560650.htm) and may be partially fabricated.

See also

- Grand Ducal Family of Luxembourg

References

1. ^ Revue 10 December 2008, Editions Revue S.A., Luxembourg

External links

- Grand-Ducal House of Luxembourg (http://pages.prodigy.net/ptheroff/gotha/luxemburg.html)
- Ancestry of Maria Teresa Mestre (b. 1956), Grand Duchess of Luxembourg (http://www.wargs.com/royal/mestre.html)
- Geocities site on Henri of Luxembourg (http://web.archive.org/web/20091027141554/http://www.geocities.com/luxroyalty/henri1.html)
- The Mentor Foundation charity website (http://www.mentorfoundation.org/)
- The Official Site of the Ducal Family (http://www.monarchie.lu/fr/index.html)
- Henri, Grand Duke of Luxembourg (http://genealogics.org/getperson.php?personID=I00012752&tree=LEO)

at Genealogics

Henri, Grand Duke of Luxembourg **House of Nassau-Weilburg** Cadet branch of the **House of Bourbon-Parma** **Born:** 16 April 1955		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Jean**	**Grand Duke of Luxembourg** 2000–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Guillaume*
Royal titles		
Preceded by **Jean**	**Heir to the Luxembourgish Throne** 1964–2000	Succeeded by **Guillaume**
Titles in pretence		
Preceded by **Jean**	**— TITULAR —** ***Duke of Nassau*** 2000–present Reason for succession failure: Duchy annexed by Prussia in 1866	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Guillaume*
	Line of Succession to the French Throne (Legitimist)	Succeeded by **Guillaume**

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House of Bourbon-Parma

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Bourbon-Parma** (Italian: *Casa di Borbone di Parma*) is an Italian cadet branch of the House of Bourbon. It is thus descended from the Capetian dynasty in male line. The name of Bourbon-Parma comes from the main name (Bourbon) and the other (Parma) from the title of Duke of Parma. The title was held by the Spanish Bourbons as the founder was the great-grandson of Duke Ranuccio II Farnese, Duke of Parma.

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House of Bourbon-Parma



Country	Etruria Lucca Parma
Ancestral house	House of Bourbon
Titles	Duke of Parma Duke of Guastalla Duke of Lucca King of Etruria Count of Bardi Grand Duke of Luxembourg
Founder	Philip
Final sovereign	Robert I
Current head	Carlos
Founding	18 October 1748
Deposition	9 June 1859

Duchy of Parma

The **Duchy of Parma** was created in 1545 from that part of the Duchy of Milan south of the Po River, as a fief for Pope Paul III's illegitimate son, Pier Luigi Farnese, centered on the city of Parma. In 1556, the second Duke, Ottavio Farnese, was given the city of Piacenza, becoming thus also **Duke of Piacenza**, and so the state was thereafter properly known as the **Duchies of Parma and Piacenza**.

The Farnese family continued to rule until their extinction in 1731, at which point the duchy was inherited by the young son of the King of Spain, Charles, whose mother Elisabeth was a member of the Farnese family. He ruled until the end of the War of the Polish Succession in 1735, when Parma was ceded to Emperor Charles VI in exchange for the Two Sicilies.

Temporary Habsburg rule

The Habsburgs only ruled until the conclusion of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, when it was ceded back to the Bourbons in the person of Philip, Charles's younger brother. As duke Philip, he became the founder of the House of Bourbon-Parma.

In 1796, the duchy was occupied by French troops under Napoleon Bonaparte. In the Treaty of Aranjuez of 1801, duke Ferdinand formally agreed to cede the duchy to Napoleon. The territories were integrated into the Cisalpine Republic until 1802, the Italian Republic, from 1802 until 1805, and the Kingdom of Italy, from 1805 until 1808, until in 1808 the French Empire annexed them and formed out of them the *Département* of Taro.

In 1814, the duchies were restored under Napoleon's Habsburg wife, Marie Louise, who was to rule them for her lifetime. The duchy was renamed **duchy of Parma, Piacenza and Guastalla**, the name that it retained until the end.



Charles III of Spain, the first Bourbon Duke of Parma. It was his younger brother who founded the house properly

Return to the Bourbons

After Marie Louise's death in 1847, the Duchy was restored to the Bourbon-Parma line, which had been ruling the tiny duchy of Lucca. The Bourbons ruled until 1859, when they were driven out by a revolution following the Sardinian victory in their war against Austria.

The duchies of Parma, Piacenza and Guastalla and the duchy of Lucca joined with the Grand Duchy of Tuscany and the duchy of Modena to form the United Provinces of Central Italy in December 1859, and were annexed to the Kingdom of Sardinia in March 1860. The House of Bourbon continues to claim the title of duke of Parma to this day. Carlos-Hugo (Carlist pretender to the Spanish throne in the 1970s) has held the title since 1977.

Since 1964, the House of Bourbon-Parma has reigned agnatically in Luxembourg when Jean, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, son of Prince Felix of Bourbon-Parma and Charlotte, Grand Duchess of Luxembourg, ascended the throne, followed by Felix's grandson Henri, Grand Duke of Luxembourg.

The Dukes

House of Bourbon-Parma 1731–1735

See also: Bourbon family tree

Duke	Portrait	Birth	Marriages	Death
Charles, Duke of Parma 1731–1735		20 January 1716 Madrid son of Philip V of Spain and Elizabeth of Parma	Maria Amalia of Saxony 1738 13 children	14 December 1788 Madrid aged 72

House of Bourbon-Parma 1748–1803

Duke	Portrait	Birth	Marriages	Death
Philip, Duke of Parma 1748–1765		15 March 1720 Madrid son of Philip V of Spain and Elizabeth of Parma	Louise-Elisabeth de Bourbon 25 October 1739 3 children	18 July 1765 Alessandria aged 45
Ferdinand, Duke of Parma 1765–1802 *nominal since 1796*		20 January 1751 Parma son of Philip, Duke of Parma and Louise-Elisabeth de Bourbon	Archduchess Marie Amalie of Austria 19 July 1769 7 children	9 October 1802 Fontevivo aged 51

During the French ownership of the Duchy of Parma, the title of *Duke of Parma* was used as an honorary form and style. From 1808, the title was used by Jean Jacques Régis de Cambacérès. He kept the style of **Duc de Parme** till 1814. Only in 1847 the actual title was restored to the Bourbons after a period of being held by Marie Louise of Austria, wife of Napoleon I who was a Habsburg.

House of Bourbon-Parma, 1847–1859

Duke	Portrait	Birth	Marriages	Death
Charles II, Duke of Parma 1847–1848		22 December 1799 Madrid son of Louis of Etruria and Maria Louisa, Duchess of Lucca	Maria Teresa of Savoy 5 September 1820 2 children	16 April 1883 Nice aged 84
Charles III, Duke of Parma 1848–1854		14 January 1823 Lucca son of Charles II, Duke of Parma and Princess Maria Teresa of Savoy	Princess Louise Marie Thérèse of France 10 November 1845 4 children	27 March 1854 Parma aged 31
Robert I, Duke of Parma 1854–1859		20 January 1848 Florence son of Charles III, Duke of Parma and Princess Louise Marie Thérèse of France	Princess Maria Pia of Bourbon-Two Sicilies 5 April 1869 12 children Infanta Maria Antonia of Portugal 15 October 1884 12 children	16 November 1907 Pianore aged 59

Nominal Dukes of Parma (since 1859)

Duke	Portrait	Birth	Marriages	Death
Robert I, Duke of Parma 1859–1907 *titular*		9 July 1848 Florence son of Charles III, Duke of Parma and Louise Marie Thérèse of France	Maria Pia of the Two Sicilies 1869 12 children Maria Antonia of Portugal 1884 12 children	16 November 1907 Viareggio aged 63
Henry, Duke of Parma 1907–1939 *titular*		13 June 1873 Wartegg son of Robert I, Duke of Parma and Maria Pia of the Two Sicilies	never married	16 November 1939 Pianore aged 66
Joseph, Duke of Parma 1939–1950 *titular*		30 June 1875 Biarritz son of Robert I, Duke of Parma and Maria Pia of the Two Sicilies	never married	7 January 1950 Pianore aged 75
Elias, Duke of Parma 1950–1959 *titular*		23 July 1880 Biarritz son of Robert I, Duke of Parma and Maria Pia of the Two Sicilies	Maria Anna of Austria 25 May 1903 Vienna 8 children	27 June 1959 Friedberg aged 79
Robert II, Duke of Parma 1959–1974 *titular*		7 August 1909 Weilburg son of Elias, Duke of Parma and Maria Anna of Austria	never married	25 November 1974 Vienna aged 65
Xavier, Duke of Parma 1974–1977 *titular*	-	25 May 1889 Viareggio son of Robert I, Duke of Parma and Infanta Maria Antonia of Portugal	Madeleine de Bourbon-Busset 12 November 1927 Lignières 6 children	7 May 1977 Zizers aged 87
Carlos Hugo, Duke of Parma 1977–2010 *titular*	-	8 April 1930 Paris son of Xavier, Duke of Parma and Madeleine de	Princess Irene of the Netherlands 29 April 1964 Rome 4 children	18 August 2010 Barcelona aged 80

		Bourbon-Busset		
Carlos, Duke of Parma since 2010 *titular*	-	27 January 1970 Nijmegen son of Carlos Hugo, Duke of Parma and Princess Irene of the Netherlands	Annemarie Gualthérie van Weezel 12 June 2010 Wijk bij Duurstede (civil)	incumbent

Family

- Carlos, Duke of Parma, born on 27 January 1970
  Annemarie, Duchess of Parma, born on 18 December 1977
  - Carlos Klynstra
- Princess Margarita of Bourbon-Parma, born on 13 October 1972
  Tajlling ten Cate, born on 23 December 1975
  - Julia ten Cate, born on 3 September 2008
- Prince Jaime, Count of Bardi, born on 13 October 1972
- Princess Carolina, Marchioness of Sala, born on 23 June 1974

See also

- List of Dukes of Parma
- Pretenders to the throne of Parma
- Descendants of Louis XIV of France which includes them

External links

- Official website of the House of Bourbon-Parma (http://www.borbonparma.org/) (language: *Italian* and *Spanish*)
- Website of the Royal and Ducal House of Bourbon-Parma (http://www.borboneparma.it/index.php) (language: *Italian*)

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Categories: House of Bourbon-Parma | History of Austria | House of Farnese | Italian noble families | Italian nobility

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Netherlands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Netherlands** (/ˈnɛðərləndz/; Dutch: *Nederland* [ˈneːdə(r)lɑnt] or [ˈneɪ̯də(r)lɑnt] (listen); West Frisian: *Nederlân*; Papiamento: *Hulanda*) is a constituent country of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, located mainly in North-West Europe and with several islands in the Caribbean. Mainland Netherlands borders the North Sea to the north and west, Belgium to the south, and Germany to the east, and shares maritime borders[7] with Belgium, Germany and the United Kingdom. It is a parliamentary democracy organised as a unitary state. The country capital is Amsterdam and the seat of government is The Hague.[8] The *Netherlands* in its entirety is often referred to as Holland, although North and South Holland are actually only two of its twelve provinces (a case of *pars pro toto*; see terminology of "the Netherlands").

The Netherlands is a geographically low-lying country, with about 25% of its area and 21% of its population located below sea level,[9] and 50% of its land lying less than one metre above sea level.[10] This distinct feature contributes to the country's name: in Dutch (*Nederland*), English, and in many other European languages (e.g. German: *Niederlande*, Croatian: *Nizozemska*, French: *Les Pays-Bas*, Italian: *Paesi Bassi* and Spanish: *Países Bajos*), its name literally means "(The) Low Countries" or "Low Country". Significant land area has been gained through land reclamation and preserved through an elaborate system of polders and dikes. Much of the Netherlands is formed by the estuary of three important European rivers, which together with their distributaries form the Rhine-Meuse-Scheldt delta. Most of the country is very flat, with the exception of foothills in the far southeast and several low-hill ranges in the central parts.

The Netherlands was one of the first countries to have an elected parliament. Among other affiliations the country is a founding member of the EU, NATO, OECD and WTO. With Belgium and Luxembourg it forms the Benelux economic union. The country is host to the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons and five international courts: the Permanent Court of Arbitration, the International Court of Justice, the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia, the International Criminal Court and the Special Tribunal for Lebanon. The first four are situated in The Hague as is the EU's criminal intelligence agency Europol and judicial co-operation agency Eurojust. This has led to the city being dubbed "the world's legal capital".[11] The

Netherlands
Nederland



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: *Je maintiendrai* (French)[1]
(*Ik zal handhaven*) (Dutch)
(*I will maintain*) (English)[1]

Anthem: *Het Wilhelmus*



Location of the **Netherlands** (dark green)
– in Europe (light green & dark grey)
– in the European Union (light green) — [Legend]



Special municipalities of the **Netherlands** (green)
in the Caribbean

Capital (and largest city)	Amsterdam[2] 52°19′N 05°33′E

Netherlands has a capitalist market-based economy, ranking 13th of 157 countries according to the Index of Economic Freedom.[12] In May 2011, the Netherlands was ranked as the "happiest" country according to results published by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.[13]

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Official language(s)	Dutch
Recognised regional languages	Frisian (in Friesland), Papiamento (in Bonaire), English (in Sint Eustatius and Saba)[3]
Ethnic groups (2008)	80.7% Dutch, 5% EU varieties, 2.4% Indonesians, 2.2% Turks, 2% Surinamese, 2% Moroccans, 0.8% Caribbean 4.8% others[2]
Demonym	Dutch
Government	Constitutional monarchy, Unitary parliamentary representative democracy
- Monarch	Beatrix der Nederlanden
- Prime Minister	Mark Rutte (VVD)
- Deputy Prime Minister	Maxime Verhagen (CDA)
- Current coalition	VVD-CDA coalition with support from the PVV
Legislature	States-General
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	House of Representatives
Independence	As result of the Eighty Years' War from the Habsburg Empire
- Declared	26 July 1581
- Recognised	30 January 1648[4]
Area	
- Total	41,543 km^2 (135th) 16,039 sq mi
- Water (%)	18.41
Population	
- 2012 estimate	16,847,007[2] (61st)
- Density	403.7/km^2 (30th) 1,045.6/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$694.574 billion[3] (21st)
- Per capita	$41,691[3] (9th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$832.160 billion[3] (16th)

History

Habsburg Netherlands 1519–1581

Main article: History of the Netherlands

Under Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor and King of Spain,



Daily life during the Dutch Golden Age captured in a painting by Jan Steen.



William I, Prince of Orange also called Willem de Zwijger (*William the Silent*), leader of the Netherlands during the Dutch Revolt.



the Netherlands region was part of the Seventeen Provinces, which also included most of present-day Belgium, Luxembourg, and some land in France and Germany.

The Eighty Years' War between the provinces and Spain began in 1568. In 1579, the northern half of the Seventeen Provinces formed the Union of Utrecht, a treaty in which they promised to support each other in their defence against the Spanish army.[14] The Union of Utrecht is seen as the foundation of the modern Netherlands. In 1581 the northern provinces adopted the Act of Abjuration, the declaration of independence in which the provinces officially deposed Philip II of Spain as reigning monarch in the northern provinces.[15]

- Per capita	$49,950[3] (9th)
Gini (2006)	30.9 (medium)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.910[4] (very high) (3rd)
Currency	Euro (€): Netherlands[5], United States dollar ($): Caribbean Netherlands[6]
Time zone	CET and AST (UTC+1 and −4)
- Summer (DST)	CEST and AST (UTC+2 and −4)
Drives on the	right
Internet TLD	.nl[7]
Calling code	+31, +599[8]

1 ^ The official motto is French; the literal translation to English is "I will maintain" (namely, the integrity and independence of the territory)[*citation needed*]

2 ^ While Amsterdam is the constitutional capital, The Hague is the seat of the government.

3 ^ Frisian (Friesland),[5] Papiamento (Bonaire)[6] and English (Sint Eustatius and Saba)[6] have a formal status in certain parts of the country. Yiddish and the Romani language are recognised as non-territorial languages.[*citation needed*] Dutch Low Saxon and Limburgish are recognised as regional languages by the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages.

4 ^ Peace of Westphalia

5 ^ Before 2002: Dutch guilder.

6 ^ The United States dollar is the sole legal tender within the Caribbean Netherlands. Before 2011: Netherlands Antillean guilder.

7 ^ The .eu domain is also used, as it is shared with other European Union member states.

8 ^ 599 was the country code designated for the now dissolved Netherlands Antilles. The Caribbean Netherlands still use 599-7 (Bonaire), 599-3 (Sint Eustatius) and 599-4 (Saba).

Queen Elizabeth I of England sympathised with the Dutch struggle against the Spanish, and in 1585 she concluded a treaty with the Dutch whereby she promised to send an English army to the Netherlands to aid the Dutch in their war with the Spanish.[16] In December 1585, 7,600 soldiers were sent to the Netherlands from England under the command of Robert Dudley, 1st Earl of Leicester. However, the English army was of no real benefit to the Dutch rebellion.[17]

Although Robert Dudley returned to the Netherlands in November 1586 with another army, the army still had little effect in the rebellion.[18] Philip II, the son of Charles V, was not prepared to let them go easily, and

Dutch Batavia built in what is now Jakarta, painting by Andries Beeckman ca. 1656



The Four Days' Battle, 1 –4 June 1666, during the Second Anglo–Dutch War.



After William II of the Netherlands the monarchs had lost most of their political power



New Amsterdam as it appeared in 1664, before it was exchanged with

war continued until 1648, when Spain under King Philip IV finally recognised the independence of the seven northwestern provinces in the Peace of Münster. Parts of the southern provinces became *de facto* colonies of the new republican-mercantile empire.

Dutch Republic 1581–1795

Main article: Dutch Republic

After independence, the provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Groningen, Friesland, Utrecht, Overijssel, and Gelre formed a confederation known as the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands. All these provinces were autonomous and had their own government, the "States of the Province". The States-General, the confederal government, were seated in The Hague and consisted of representatives from each of the seven provinces. The sparsely populated region of Drenthe, mainly consisting of poor peatland, was part of the republic too, although Drenthe was not considered one of the provinces; it had its own States, but the landdrost of Drenthe was appointed by the States-General. Moreover, the Republic had come to occupy during the Eighty Years' War a number of so-called Generality Lands (*Generaliteitslanden* in Dutch). These territories were governed directly by the States-General. They did not have a government of their own and did not have representatives in the States-General. Their population was mainly Roman Catholic, and these areas were used as a buffer zone between the Republic and the Southern Netherlands. [*citation needed*]

The Dutch Empire grew to become one of the major seafaring and economic powers of the 17th century. In the Dutch Golden Age ("Gouden Eeuw"), colonies and trading posts were established all over the world. Dutch settlement in North America began with the founding of New Amsterdam, on the southern tip of Manhattan in 1614. In South Africa, the Dutch settled the Cape Colony in 1652. By 1650, the Dutch owned 16,000 merchant ships.[19] During the 17th century, the Dutch population increased from an estimated 1.5 million to almost 2 million.[20]

Many economic historians regard the Netherlands as the first thoroughly capitalist country in the world. In early modern Europe it featured the wealthiest trading city (Amsterdam) and the first full-time stock exchange. The inventiveness of the traders led to insurance and retirement funds as well as phenomena such as the boom-bust cycle, the world's first



An anachronous map of the Dutch colonial Empire. Light green: territories administered by or originating from territories administered by the Dutch East India Company; dark green: the

Great Britain for Suriname. Under British rule it became known as New York.

Dutch West India Company.

asset-inflation bubble, the tulip mania of 1636–1637, and, according to Murray Sayle, the world's first bear raider, Isaac le Maire, who forced prices down by dumping stock and then buying it back at a discount.[21] The republic went into a state of general decline in the later 18th century, with economic competition from England and long standing rivalries between the two main factions in Dutch society, the *Staatsgezinden* (Republicans) and the *Prinsgezinden* (Royalists or Orangists) as main factors.[*citation needed*]

In the 17th century, plantation colonies were established by the Dutch and English along the many rivers in the fertile Guyana plains. The earliest documented colony in Guiana was along the Suriname River and called Marshall's Creek. The area was named after an Englishman.[22] Disputes arose between the Dutch and the English. In 1667, the Dutch decided to keep the nascent plantation colony of Suriname conquered from the English, resulting from the Treaty of Breda. The English were left with New Amsterdam, a small trading post in North America, which is now known as New York City.[*citation needed*]

French domination 1795–1814

Further information: Batavian Republic and Kingdom of Holland

On 19 January 1795, one day after stadtholder William V of Orange fled to England, the *Bataafse Republiek* (Batavian Republic) was proclaimed, rendering the Netherlands a unitary state. From 1795 to 1806, the Batavian Republic designated the Netherlands as a republic modelled after the French Republic.

From 1806 to 1810, the *Koninkrijk Holland* (Kingdom of Holland) was set up by Napoleon Bonaparte as a puppet kingdom governed by his brother Louis Bonaparte in order to control the Netherlands more effectively. The name of the leading province, Holland, was used for the whole country. The Kingdom of Holland covered the area of the present day Netherlands, with the exception of Limburg and parts of Zeeland, which were French territory. In 1807, Prussian East Frisia and Jever were added to the kingdom. In 1809, however, after a failed British invasion, Holland had to give over all territories south of the Rhine to France.

King Louis Bonaparte did not meet Napoleon's expectations – he tried to serve Dutch interests instead of his brother's, allowed trade with the British in spite of the Continental System and even tried to learn Dutch – and he was forced to abdicate on 1 July 1810. He was succeeded by his five-year-old son Napoleon Louis Bonaparte. Napoleon Louis reigned as Louis II for just ten days as Napoleon ignored his young nephew’s accession to the throne. The Emperor sent in an army to invade the country and dissolved the Kingdom of Holland. The Netherlands then became part of the French Empire.

The Netherlands remained part of the French Empire until the autumn of 1813, when Napoleon was defeated in the Battle of Leipzig and forced to withdraw his troops from the country.

Kingdom of the Netherlands 1815–1940

Main articles: United Kingdom of the Netherlands and Kingdom of the Netherlands

William I of the Netherlands, son of the last stadtholder William V van Oranje, returned to the Netherlands in 1813 and became Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands. On 16 March 1815, the Sovereign Prince became King of the Netherlands.

In 1815, the Congress of Vienna formed the United Kingdom of the Netherlands by expanding the Netherlands

with Belgium in order to create a strong country on the northern border of France. In addition, William became hereditary Grand Duke of Luxembourg. The Congress of Vienna gave Luxembourg to William as personal property in exchange for his German possessions, Nassau-Dillenburg, Siegen, Hadamar, and Diez.

Belgium rebelled and gained independence in 1830, while the personal union between Luxembourg and the Netherlands was severed in 1890, when King William III of the Netherlands died with no surviving male heirs. Ascendancy laws prevented his daughter Queen Wilhelmina from becoming the next Grand Duchess. Therefore the throne of Luxembourg passed over from the House of Orange-Nassau to the House of Nassau-Weilburg, a junior branch of the House of Nassau.

The largest Dutch settlement abroad was the Cape Colony. It was established by Jan van Riebeeck on behalf of the Dutch East India Company at Cape Town (Dutch: *Kaapstad*) in 1652. The Prince of Orange acquiesced to British occupation and control of the Cape Colony in 1788. The Netherlands also possessed several other colonies, but Dutch settlement in these lands was limited. Most notable were the vast Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia) and Dutch Guiana (now Suriname). These 'colonies' were first administered by the Dutch East India Company and the Dutch West India Company, both collective private enterprises. Three centuries later these companies got into financial trouble, and the territories in which they operated were taken over by the Dutch government (in 1815 and 1791 respectively). Only then did they become official colonies.

During its colonial period the Netherlands was heavily involved in the slave trade. The Dutch planters relied heavily on African slaves to cultivate the coffee, cocoa, sugar cane and cotton plantations along the rivers. Treatment of the slaves by their owners was notoriously bad, and many slaves escaped the plantations. Slavery was abolished by the Netherlands in Dutch Guiana in 1863, but the slaves were not fully released until 1873, after a mandatory 10 year transition period during which time they were required to work on the plantations for minimal pay and without state sanctioned torture. As soon as they became truly free, the slaves largely abandoned the plantations where they had suffered for several generations in favor of the city Paramaribo. Every year this is remembered during Keti Koti, 1 July, Emancipation Day (end of slavery).

During the 19th century, the Netherlands was slow to industrialize compared to neighbouring countries, mainly because of the great complexity involved in modernizing the infrastructure, consisting largely of waterways, and the great reliance its industry had on windpower.

Although the Netherlands remained neutral during World War I, it was heavily involved in the war.[23] German general Count Schlieffen, who was Chief of the Imperial German General Staff had originally planned to invade the Netherlands while advancing into France in the original Schlieffen Plan. This was changed by Schlieffen's successor Helmuth von Moltke the Younger in order to maintain Dutch neutrality. Later during the war Dutch neutrality proved essential to German survival until the blockade by Great Britain in 1916, when the import of goods through the Netherlands was no longer possible. However, the Dutch were able to continue to remain neutral during the war using their diplomacy and their ability to trade.[23]

Second World War 1940–1945

Main article: History of the Netherlands (1939–1945)

The Netherlands intended to remain neutral during the Second World War, although contingency plans involving the armies of Belgium, France and the United Kingdom were drawn up in case of German aggression. Despite this neutrality, Nazi Germany invaded the Netherlands on 10 May 1940 as part of their campaign against the Allied forces. French forces in the south and British ships in the west came to help but turned around quickly, evacuating many civilians and several thousand German prisoners of war from the German elite airborne divisions.

The country was overrun in five days. Only after (but not because of) the bombing of Rotterdam, the main element of the Dutch army surrendered on 14 May 1940, although a Dutch and French force held the western part of Zeeland for some time after the surrender. The Kingdom as such, continued the war from the colonial empire; the government in exile resided in London.



Rotterdam after German air raids in 1940.

During the occupation, over 100,000 Dutch Jews[24] were rounded up to be transported to Nazi German concentration camps in Germany, German-occupied Poland and German-occupied Czechoslovakia. By the time these camps were liberated, only 876 Dutch Jews survived. Dutch workers were conscripted for forced labour in German factories, civilians were killed in reprisal for attacks on German soldiers, and the countryside was plundered for food for German soldiers in the Netherlands and for shipment to Germany. Although there were thousands of Dutch who risked their lives by hiding Jews from the Germans, as recounted in *The Hiding Place* by Corrie ten Boom and *The Heart Has Reasons* by Mark Klempner,[25] there were also Dutch who collaborated with the occupying force in hunting down hiding Jews.[26] Local fascists and anti-Bolsheviks joined the Waffen-SS in the 4th SS Volunteer Panzergrenadier Brigade Netherlands, fighting on the Eastern Front as well as other units. Racial restrictions were relaxed to the extent that even Asians from Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) units were recruited.[27]



Dutch resistance members with troops of the US 101st Airborne in Eindhoven during Operation Market Garden in September 1944.

On 8 December 1941, the Netherlands declared war on Japan.[28] The government-in-exile then lost control of its major colonial stronghold, the Netherlands East Indies (Indonesia), to Japanese forces in March 1942. "American-British-Dutch-Australian" (ABDA) forces fought hard in some instances but were overwhelmed. During the Japanese occupation of Indonesia, the Japanese interned Dutch civilians and used Dutch and Indos (Eurasians of Dutch and Indonesian descent) alike as forced labour, both in the Netherlands East Indies and in neighbouring countries.[29] This included forcing women to work as "comfort women" (sex slaves) for Japanese personnel.

The Dutch Red Cross reported the deaths in Japanese custody of 14,800 European civilians out of 80,000 interned and 12,500 of the 34,000 POW captured.[30] A later UN report stated that 4 million people died in Indonesia as a result of famine and forced labour (known as romusha) during the Japanese occupation.[31] Some military personnel escaped to Australia and other Allied countries from where they carried on the fight against Japan. The Japanese furthered the cause of independence for the colony, so that after VE day many young Dutchmen found themselves fighting a colonial war against the new republic of Indonesia.



Liberation of Eindhoven, September 1944.

Princess Juliana of the Netherlands, the only child of Queen Wilhelmina and heir to the throne, sought refuge in Ottawa, Canada, with her two daughters, Beatrix and Irene, during the war. During Princess Juliana’s stay in Canada, preparations were made for the birth of her third child. To ensure the Dutch citizenship of this royal baby, the Canadian Parliament passed a special law declaring Princess Juliana's suite at the Ottawa Civic

Hospital “extraterritorial”.

On 19 January 1943, Princess Margriet was born. The day after Princess Margriet's birth, the Dutch flag was flown on the Peace Tower. This was the only time in history a foreign flag has waved above Canada’s Parliament Buildings. In 1944–45, the First Canadian Army, which included Canadian, British and Polish troops, was responsible for liberating much of the Netherlands[32] from German occupation. The joyous "Canadian summer" that ensued after the liberation, forged deep and long-lasting bonds of friendship between the Netherlands and Canada[33] (See Canada–Netherlands relations). In 1949, Dutch troops occupied an area of 69 km^2 (27 sq mi) of the British zone of occupied Germany and annexed it. At that time, these areas were inhabited by almost 10,000 people.[*citation needed*]

Recent history 1945–present

After the war, the Dutch economy prospered by leaving behind an era of neutrality and gaining closer ties with neighbouring states. The Netherlands was one of the founding members of the Benelux (**Be**lgium, the **Ne**therlands and **Lux**embourg) grouping, was among the twelve founding members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), and was among the six founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community, which would later evolve, via the EEC (Common Market), into the European Union.



The Netherlands became a founding member of the EEC in 1957 and the European Union in 1993.

The 1960s and 1970s were a time of great social and cultural change, such as rapid *ontzuiling* (literally: depillarisation), a term that describes the decay of the old divisions along class and religious lines. Youths, and students in particular, rejected traditional mores and pushed for change in matters like women's rights, sexuality, disarmament and environmental issues.

Today, the Netherlands is regarded as a liberal country, considering its drugs policy and its legalisation of euthanasia. On 1 April 2001, the Netherlands became the first nation to recognize same-sex marriage.

On 10 October 2010 the Netherlands Antilles—a former country of the Kingdom of the Netherlands in the Caribbean—was dissolved. Referendums were held on each island of the Netherlands Antilles between June 2000 and April 2005 to determine their future status. As a result the islands of Bonaire, Sint Eustatius and Saba (the BES islands) were to obtain closer ties with the Netherlands. This led to the incorporation of these three islands into the country of the Netherlands as *special municipalities* upon the dissolution of the Netherlands Antilles. The special municipalities are collectively known as the Caribbean Netherlands.

Geography

Main article: Geography of the Netherlands

The European area of the Netherlands lies between latitudes 50° and 54° N, and longitudes 3° and 8° E.

The country is divided into two main parts by three large rivers, the Rhine (*Rijn*) and its main distributaries, the Waal and the Meuse (*Maas*). These rivers functioned as a natural barrier between earlier fiefdoms and hence created traditionally a cultural divide, as is evident in some phonetic traits that are recognizable north and south of these "Large Rivers" (*de Grote Rivieren*).

The southwestern part of the Netherlands is a river delta and two tributaries of the Scheldt (*Westerschelde and*

Oosterschelde). Only one significant branch of the Rhine flows northeastward, the IJssel river, discharging into the IJsselmeer, the former Zuiderzee ('southern sea'). This river also forms a linguistic divide: people to the east of this river speak Dutch Low Saxon dialects (except for the province of Friesland, which has its own language).[34]


Satellite overview of the Netherlands

Floods

Main articles: Flood control in the Netherlands, Floods in the Netherlands, and Storm tides of the North Sea

Over the centuries, the Dutch coastline has changed considerably as a result of human intervention and natural disasters. Most notable in terms of land loss is the 1134 storm, which created the archipelago of Zeeland in the southwest.

On 14 December 1287, St. Lucia's flood affected the Netherlands and Germany killing more than 50,000 people in one of the most destructive floods in recorded history.[35] The St. Elizabeth flood of 1421 and the mismanagement in its aftermath destroyed a newly reclaimed polder, replacing it with the 72-square-kilometre (28 sq mi) *Biesbosch* tidal floodplains in the south-centre. The last major flood in the Netherlands took place in early February 1953, when a huge storm caused the collapse of several dikes in the southwest of the Netherlands. More than 1,800 people drowned in the ensuing inundations. The Dutch government subsequently decided on a large-scale program of public works (the "Delta Works") to protect the country against future flooding. The project took more than thirty years to complete.

The disasters were partially increased in severity through human influence. People had drained relatively high lying swampland to use it as farmland. This drainage caused the fertile peat to compress and the ground level to drop, whereby they would lower the water level to compensate for the drop in ground level, causing the underlying peat to compress even more. Due to the flooding, farming was difficult, which encouraged foreign trade, the result of which was that the Dutch were involved in world affairs since the early 14th/15th century.[36] The flooding problem remains unsolvable to this day. Also, up until the 19th century peat was mined, dried, and used for fuel, further adding to the problem.

To guard against floods, a series of defences against the water were contrived. In the first millennium AD, villages and farmhouses were built on man-made hills called *terps*. Later, these terps were connected by dikes. In the 12th century, local government agencies called *"waterschappen"* (English "water bodies") or *"hoogheemraadschappen"* ("high home councils") started to appear, whose job it was to maintain the water level and to protect a region from floods. (These agencies exist to this day, performing the same function.) As the ground level dropped, the dikes by necessity grew and merged into an integrated system. By the 13th century, windmills had come into use in order to pump water out of areas below sea level. The windmills were later used to drain lakes, creating the famous polders.[*citation needed*]

In 1932, the *Afsluitdijk* (English "Closure Dike") was completed, blocking the former *Zuiderzee* (Southern Sea) from the North Sea and thus creating the IJsselmeer (IJssel Lake). It became part of the larger Zuiderzee Works in which four polders totalling 2,500 square kilometres (965 sq mi) were reclaimed from the sea.[37][38]

Additionally, the Netherlands is one of the countries that may suffer most from climate change. Not only is the rising sea a problem, but also erratic weather patterns may cause the rivers to overflow.[39][40][41]

Delta Works

Main article: Delta Works

After the 1953 disaster, the Delta Works were constructed, a comprehensive set of civil works throughout the Dutch coast. The project started in 1958 and was largely completed in 1997 with the completion of the Maeslantkering. A main goal of the Delta project was to reduce the risk of flooding in South Holland and Zeeland to once per 10,000 years (compared to1 per 4000 years for the rest of the country). This was achieved by raising 3,000 kilometers (1,864 mi) of outer sea-dykes and 10,000 kilometers (6,214 mi) of inner, canal, and river dikes, and by closing off the sea estuaries of the Zeeland province. New risk assessments occasionally show problems requiring additional Delta project dyke reinforcements. The Delta project is one of the largest construction efforts in human history[*citation needed*] and is considered by the American Society of Civil Engineers as one of the seven wonders of the modern world.[42]



The Delta Works are located in the provinces of South Holland and Zeeland.

Climate

The predominant wind direction in the Netherlands is southwest, which causes a moderate maritime climate, with cool summers and mild winters. This is especially the case with places within direct proximity of the Dutch coastline, which sometimes are over 10 °C (18 °F) warmer (in winter) or cooler (in summer) than places in the (south)east of the country.

The following tables are based on mean measurements by the KNMI weather station in De Bilt between 1981 and 2010:

Climate data for De Bilt (1981–2010 averages), all KNMI locations (1901–2011 extremes).													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Record high °C (°F)	17.2 (63.0)	20.4 (68.7)	25.6 (78.1)	32.2 (90.0)	35.6 (96.1)	38.4 (101.1)	37.1 (98.8)	38.6 (101.5)	35.2 (95.4)	30.1 (86.2)	21.1 (70.0)	17.8 (64.0)	38.6 (101.5)
Average high °C (°F)	5.7 (42.3)	6.5 (43.7)	10.0 (50.0)	14.0 (57.2)	18.0 (64.4)	20.4 (68.7)	22.8 (73.0)	22.7 (72.9)	19.1 (66.4)	14.7 (58.5)	9.6 (49.3)	6.2 (43.2)	14.1 (57.4)
Daily mean °C (°F)	3.1 (37.6)	3.4 (38.1)	6.1 (43.0)	9.2 (48.6)	13.1 (55.6)	15.7 (60.3)	17.9 (64.2)	17.5 (63.5)	14.5 (58.1)	10.8 (51.4)	6.7 (44.1)	3.7 (38.7)	10.1 (50.2)
Average low °C (°F)	0.3 (32.5)	0.2 (32.4)	2.3 (36.1)	4.1 (39.4)	7.8 (46.0)	10.5 (50.9)	12.8 (55.0)	12.4 (54.3)	9.9 (49.8)	6.9 (44.4)	3.7 (38.7)	1.0 (33.8)	6.0 (42.8)
Record low °C (°F)	−27.4 (−17.3)	−26.8 (−16.2)	−20.7 (−5.3)	−9.4 (15.1)	−5.4 (22.3)	−1.2 (29.8)	0.7 (33.3)	1.3 (34.3)	−3.7 (25.3)	−8.5 (16.7)	−14.4 (6.1)	−22.3 (−8.1)	−27.4 (−17.3)
Precipitation mm (inches)	67 (2.64)	48 (1.89)	67 (2.64)	42 (1.65)	62 (2.44)	66 (2.6)	81 (3.19)	73 (2.87)	78 (3.07)	83 (3.27)	80 (3.15)	71 (2.8)	818 (32.2)
Sunshine hours	52	79	122	174	207	194	206	188	138	103	63	49	1,565
Source: Knmi.nl[43]													

Ice days (maximum temperature below 0 °C) usually occur from December until February, with the occasional rare ice day prior to or after that period. Freezing days (minimum temperature below 0 °C) occur much more often, usually ranging from mid November to late March, but not rarely measured as early as mid October and as

late as mid May. If one chooses the height of measurement to be 10 cm. above ground instead of 150 cm., one may even find such temperatures in the middle of the summer.

Warm days (maximum temperature above 20 °C) in De Bilt are usually measured in the time span of April until September, but in some parts of the country such temperatures can also occur in March and October (this is usually not in De Bilt, however). Summer days (maximum temperature above 25 °C) are usually measured in De Bilt from May until August, tropical days (maximum temperature above 30 °C) are rare and usually occur only from June until August.

Precipitation throughout the year is relatively equally shared by each month. Summer and autumn months tend to gather a little bit more precipitation than other months, mainly because of the intensity of the rainfall rather than the frequency of rain days (this is especially the case in summer, when lightning too is much more frequent than otherwise).

The number of sunshine hours is affected by the fact that due to the geographical latitude the length of the days varies between barely eight hours in December and nearly 17 hours in June.

Environment

Further information: List of national parks of the Netherlands and List of extinct animals of the Netherlands

The Netherlands has 20 national parks and hundreds of other nature reserves. Most are owned by Staatsbosbeheer and Natuurmonumenten and include lakes, heathland, woods, dunes and other habitats.

Phytogeographically, the Netherlands is shared between the Atlantic European and Central European provinces of the Circumboreal Region within the Boreal Kingdom. According to the World Wide Fund for Nature, the territory of the Netherlands belongs to the ecoregion of Atlantic mixed forests.

In 1871 the last old original natural woods (Beekbergerwoud) were cut down, and most woods today are planted monocultures of trees like Scots Pine and trees that are not native to the Netherlands.[*citation needed*] These woods were planted on anthropogenic heaths and sand-drifts (overgrazed heaths) (Veluwe).

Politics

Main article: Politics of the Netherlands

The Netherlands has been a constitutional monarchy since 1815 and a parliamentary democracy since 1848. The Netherlands is described as a consociational state. Dutch politics and governance are characterised by an effort to achieve broad consensus on important issues, within both the political community and society as a whole. In 2010, *The Economist* ranked the Netherlands as the 10th most democratic country in the world.


Beatrix of the Netherlands.

The monarch is the head of state, at present Queen Beatrix. Constitutionally, the position is equipped with limited powers. The monarch can exert some influence during the formation of a new cabinet, where they serve as neutral arbiter between the political parties. Additionally, the king (the title queen has no constitutional significance) has the right to be informed and consulted. Depending on the personality

and qualities of the king and the ministers, the king might have *influence* beyond the *power* granted by the constitution.



The Binnenhof, where the lower and upper houses of the States-General meet.

In practice, the executive power is formed by the ministerraad, the deliberative council of the Dutch cabinet. The cabinet consists usually of 13 to 16 ministers and a varying number of state secretaries. One to three ministers are ministers without portfolio. The head of government is the Prime Minister of the Netherlands, who often is the leader of the largest party of the coalition. In fact, this has been continuously the case since 1973. The Prime Minister is a *primus inter pares*, meaning he has no explicit powers beyond those of the other ministers. Currently, the Prime Minister is Mark Rutte.

The cabinet is responsible to the bicameral parliament, the States-General, which also has legislative powers. The 150 members of the House of Representatives, the Lower House, are elected in direct elections, which are held every four years or after the fall of the cabinet (by example: when one of the chambers carries a motion of no-confidence, the cabinet offers its resignation to the monarch). The States-Provincial are directly elected every four years as well. The members of the provincial assemblies elect the 75 members of the Senate, the upper house, which has less legislative powers, as it can merely reject laws, not propose or amend them.



Mark Rutte of the VVD has been the Prime Minister of the Netherlands since October 2010.

Both trade unions and employers organisations are consulted beforehand in policymaking in the financial, economic and social areas. They meet regularly with government in the Social-Economic Council. This body advises government and its advice cannot be put aside easily.

The Netherlands has a long tradition of social tolerance. In the 18th century, while the Dutch Reformed Church was the state religion, Catholicism, other forms of Protestantism, such as Baptists and Lutherans, and Judaism were tolerated. In the late 19th century this Dutch tradition of religious tolerance transformed into a system of pillarisation, in which religious groups coexisted separately and only interacted at the level of government. This tradition of tolerance is linked to Dutch criminal justice policies on recreational drugs, prostitution, LGBT rights, euthanasia, and abortion, which are among the most liberal in the world.

Political parties

Main article: Political parties of the Netherlands

Due to the multi-party system, no single party has held a majority in parliament since the 19th century, and coalition cabinets had to be formed. Since suffrage became universal in 1919, the Dutch political system has been dominated by three families of political parties: the strongest family were the Christian democrats, currently represented by the Christian Democratic Appeal (CDA), second were the social democrats, of which the Labour Party (PvdA), and third were the liberals, of which the People's Party for Freedom and Democracy (VVD) is the main representative.

These parties cooperated in coalition cabinets in which the Christian democrats had always been a partner: so

either a centre left coalition of the Christian democrats and social democrats was ruling or a centre right coalition of Christian democrats and liberals. In the 1970s, the party system became more volatile: the Christian democratic parties lost seats, while new parties became successful, such as the radical democrat and progressive liberal D66.

In the 1994 election, the CDA lost its dominant position. A "purple" cabinet was formed by VVD, D66, and PvdA. In the 2002 elections, this cabinet lost its majority, due to an increased support for the CDA and the rise of the LPF, a new political party around Pim Fortuyn, who was assassinated a week before the elections. A short-lived cabinet was formed by CDA, VVD, and LPF, which was led by CDA leader Jan Peter Balkenende. After the 2003 elections in which the LPF lost most of its seats, a cabinet was formed by CDA, VVD, and D66. The cabinet initiated an ambitious program of reforming the welfare state, the health care system, and the immigration policies.

In June 2006, the cabinet fell after D66 voted in favour of a motion of no confidence against minister of immigration and integration Rita Verdonk, who had instigated an investigation of the asylum procedure of VVD MP Ayaan Hirsi Ali. A caretaker cabinet was formed by CDA and VVD, and general elections were held on 22 November 2006. In these elections, the CDA remained the largest party and the SP made the largest gains. The formation of a new cabinet took three months, resulting in a coalition of CDA, PvdA, and ChristianUnion.

On 20 February 2010, the cabinet fell when the PvdA refused to prolong the involvement of the Dutch Army in Uruzgan, Afghanistan.[44] Snap elections were held on 9 June 2010, with devastating results for the previously largest party, the CDA, which lost about half of its seats, resulting in 21 seats. The VVD became the largest party with 31 seats, closely followed by the PvdA with 30 seats. The big winner of the 2010 elections was Geert Wilders whose PVV more than doubled in number of seats.[45] Negotiation talks for a new government have resulted in a VVD-led minority government in coalition with CDA as of 14 October 2010. This minority government is supported by PVV.[46]

Administrative divisions

Main articles: Provinces of the Netherlands, Municipalities of the Netherlands, Water board (Netherlands), Public body (Netherlands), and Caribbean Netherlands

The Netherlands is divided into twelve administrative regions, called provinces, each under a Governor, who is called *Commissaris van de Koningin* (Commissioner of the Queen), except for the province Limburg where the commissioner is called Gouverneur (Governor). All provinces are divided into municipalities (*gemeenten*), 430 in total (13 March 2010).



Provinces and special municipalities of the Netherlands.

The country is also subdivided in water districts, governed by a water board (*waterschap* or *hoogheemraadschap*), each having authority in matters concerning water management. As of 1 January 2005 there are 27. The creation of water boards actually pre-dates that of the nation itself, the first appearing in 1196. In fact, the Dutch water boards are one of the oldest democratic entities in the world still in existence.

The administrative structure on the 3 BES islands, also known as the Caribbean Netherlands, is different. These islands have the status of *openbare lichamen (public bodies)* and are generally referred to as *special municipalities*. They are not part of a province.[47]

Provinces of the Netherlands

Flag	Province	Capital	Largest city	Area[48] (km²)	Population[49] 1-1-2010	Density (per km²)
	Drenthe	Assen	Assen	2,641	490,981	186
	Flevoland	Lelystad	Almere	1,417	387,881	274
	Friesland	Leeuwarden	Leeuwarden	3,341	646,305	193
	Gelderland	Arnhem	Nijmegen	4,971	1,998,936	402
	Groningen	Groningen	Groningen	2,333	576,668	247
	Limburg	Maastricht	Maastricht	2,150	1,122,701	522
	North Brabant	's-Hertogenbosch	Eindhoven	4,916	2,444,158	497
	North Holland	Haarlem	Amsterdam	2,671	2,669,084	999
	Overijssel	Zwolle	Enschede	3,325	1,130,345	340
	Utrecht	Utrecht	Utrecht	1,385	1,220,910	882
	Zeeland	Middelburg	Middelburg	1,787	381,409	213
	South Holland	The Hague	Rotterdam	2,814	3,505,611	1,246
			Total	**33,751**	**16,574,989**	**491**

Special municipalities of the Netherlands

Flag	Name	Capital	Largest city	Area[50] (km²)	Population[51] 31-12-2010	Density (per km²)
	Bonaire	Kralendijk	Kralendijk	294	15,666	53
	Sint Eustatius	Oranjestad	Oranjestad	21	3,543	169
	Saba	The Bottom	The Bottom	13	1,824	140
			Total	**328**	**21,133**	**64**

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of the Netherlands

Historically the Dutch foreign policy was characterised by neutrality, since the Second World War the Netherlands became a member of a large number of international organisations, most prominently the UN, NATO and the EU. The Dutch economy is very open and relies on international trade.

The foreign policy of the Netherlands is based on four basic commitments: to the atlantic cooperation, to European integration, to



The Peace Palace (*Vredespaleis*), The

international development and to international law. One of the more controversial international issues surrounding the Netherlands is its liberal policy towards soft drugs.

Hague.

During and after its golden age, the Dutch built up a commercial and colonial empire, which fell apart quickly after the Second World War; the historical ties inherited from its colonial past still influence the foreign relations of the Netherlands.

Military

Main article: Military of the Netherlands

The Netherlands has one of the oldest standing armies in Europe; it was first established as such by Maurice of Nassau. The Dutch army was used throughout the Dutch Empire. After the defeat of Napoleon, the Dutch army was transformed into a conscription army. The army was unsuccessfully deployed during the Belgian revolution in 1830. After 1830, it was deployed mainly in the Dutch colonies, as the Netherlands remained neutral in European wars (including WWI), until the Netherlands was invaded in WWII and quickly defeated by the Wehrmacht in May 1940.

After WWII, the Netherlands dropped their neutrality, and the Dutch army became part of the NATO army strength in Cold War Europe; holding several bases in Germany. In 1996 conscription was suspended, and the Dutch army was once again transformed into a professional army. Since the 1990s the Dutch army has been involved in the Bosnian War, the Kosovo War, has been holding a province in Iraq after the defeat of Saddam Hussein, and was engaged in Afghanistan.



HNLMS *Evertsen*, a Royal Dutch Navy frigate

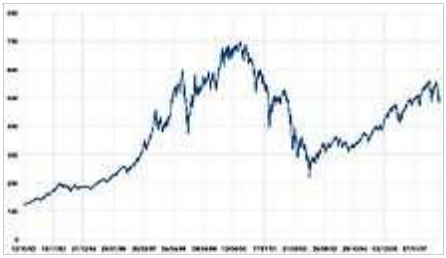
The military is composed of four branches, all of which carry the prefix *Koninklijke* (Royal):

- *Koninklijke Landmacht* (KL), the Royal Netherlands Army
- *Koninklijke Marine* (KM), the Royal Netherlands Navy, including the Naval Air Service and Marine Corps
- *Koninklijke Luchtmacht* (KLu), the Royal Netherlands Air Force
- *Koninklijke Marechaussee* (KMar), the Royal Military Police, tasks include military police and border control

General Peter van Uhm is the current Commander of the Netherlands armed forces. All military specialities except the submarine service and the Royal Netherlands Marine Corps (*Korps Mariniers*) are open to women. The Korps Commandotroepen, the Special Operations Force of the Netherlands Army, is open to women, but because of the extremely high physical demands for initial training, it is almost impossible for women to become a commando.[52] The Dutch Ministry of Defence employs more than 70,000 personnel, including over 20,000 civilian and over 50,000 military personnel.[53] In April 2011 the government decided to decrease the amount of top officials and vehicles considerably, including all tanks, due to a cutback in governmental expenses. These cutbacks held in that the tanks are no longer used for training, but are only on standby.[54]

Economy

Main articles: Economy of the Netherlands and List of Dutch companies



Amsterdam Stock Exchange performance

The Netherlands has a very strong economy and has been playing a special role in the European economy for many centuries. Since the 16th century, shipping, fishing, trade, and banking have been leading sectors of the Dutch economy. The Netherlands is one of the world's 10 leading exporting countries. Foodstuffs form the largest industrial sector. Other major industries include chemicals, metallurgy, machinery, electrical goods, and tourism. Examples include Unilever, Heineken, financial services (ING), chemicals (DSM), petroleum refining (Shell), electronical machinery (Philips, ASML) and car navigation TomTom.

The Netherlands has the 16th largest economy in the world, and ranks 7th in GDP (nominal) per capita. Between 1997 and 2000 annual economic growth (GDP) averaged nearly 4%, well above the European average. Growth slowed considerably from 2001 to 2005 with the global economic slowdown, but accelerated to 4.1% in the third quarter of 2007. Inflation is 1.3%, and unemployment is at 4.0% of the labour force. By Eurostat standards, unemployment in the Netherlands is at 4.1% (April 2010) – the lowest rate of all European Union member states.[55] But in Q3 and Q4 2011, the Dutch economy contracted 0.4 percent and 0.7 percent, respectively due to European Debt Crisis, while in Q4 the Eurozone economy shrunk by 0.3 percent.[56] The Netherlands also has a relatively low GINI coefficient of 0.326. Despite ranking only 7th in GDP per capita, UNICEF ranked the Netherlands 1st in child well-being.[57] On the Index of Economic Freedom Netherlands is the 13th most free market capitalist economy out of 157 surveyed countries.

Amsterdam is the financial and business capital of the Netherlands.[58] The Amsterdam Stock Exchange (AEX), part of Euronext, is the world's oldest stock exchange and is one of Europe's largest bourses. It is situated near Dam Square in the city's centre. As a founding member of the euro, the Netherlands replaced (for accounting purposes) its former currency, the "Gulden" (guilder), on 1 January 1999, along with 15 other adopters of the Euro. Actual euro coins and banknotes followed on 1 January 2002. One euro was equivalent to 2.20371 Dutch guilders.



The Netherlands introduced the euro in 2002. It is one of 17 countries that make up the Eurozone.

The Netherlands' location gives it prime access to markets in the UK and Germany, with the port of Rotterdam being the largest port in Europe. Other important parts of the economy are international trade (Dutch colonialism started with cooperative private enterprises such as the VOC), banking and transport. The Netherlands successfully addressed the issue of public finances and stagnating job growth long before its European partners. Amsterdam is the 5th busiest tourist destination in Europe with more than 4.2 million international visitors.[59] Since the enlargement of the EU large numbers of migrant workers have arrived in the Netherlands from central and eastern Europe.[60]

The country continues to be one of the leading European nations for attracting foreign direct investment and is one of the five largest investors in the United States. The economy experienced a slowdown in 2005, but in 2006 recovered to the fastest pace in six years on the back of increased exports and strong investment. The pace of job growth reached 10-year highs in 2007. The Netherlands moved up from the 11th position in the Global Competitiveness Index[61] to the 9th position in 2007.

One of the largest natural gas fields in the world is situated near Slochteren. Exploitation of this field resulted in a total revenue of €159 billion since the mid 1970s. With just over half of the reserves used up and an expected continued rise in oil prices, the revenues over the next few decades are expected to be at least that much.[62]

Agriculture

A highly mechanised agricultural sector employs 4% of the labour force but provides large surpluses for the food-processing industry and for exports. The Dutch rank third worldwide in value of agricultural exports, behind the United States and France, with exports earning $55 billion annually. A significant portion of Dutch agricultural exports are derived from fresh-cut plants, flowers, and bulbs, with the Netherlands exporting two-thirds of the world's total. The Netherlands also exports a quarter of all world tomatoes, and trade of one-third of the world's exports of chilis, tomatoes and cucumbers goes through the country. The Netherlands also exports one-fifteenth of the world's apples.[63]

Transport

See also: Transport in the Netherlands and Rail transport in the Netherlands

Rotterdam has the largest port in Europe, with the rivers Meuse and Rhine providing excellent access to the hinterland upstream reaching to Basel, Switzerland, and into France. In 2006, Rotterdam was the world's seventh largest container port in terms of Twenty-foot equivalent units (TEU) handled.[64] The port's main activities are petrochemical industries and general cargo handling and transshipment. The harbour functions as an important transit point for bulk materials and between the European continent and overseas. From Rotterdam goods are transported by ship, river barge, train or road. In 2007, the *Betuweroute*, a new fast freight railway from Rotterdam to Germany, was completed.

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of the Netherlands



Dutch people in orange celebrating Queen's Day in Amsterdam.

The Netherlands has an estimated population of 16,735,100 (as of 5 November 2011).[65] It is the 11th most populous country in Europe and the 61st most populous country in the world. Between 1900 and 1950, the country's population almost doubled from 5.1 to 10.0 million people. From 1950 to 2000, the population further increased from 10.0 to 15.9 million people, but the population growth decreased compared to the previous fifty years.[66] The estimated growth rate is currently 0.436% (as of 2008).[2]

The fertility rate in the Netherlands is 1.82 children per woman (as of 2011),[2] which is high compared to many other European countries, but below the 2.1-rate required for natural population replacement. Life expectancy is high in the Netherlands: 79 years for newborn girls and 78 for boys (2007). The country has a migration rate of 2.55 migrants per 1,000 inhabitants.

The majority of the population of the Netherlands are ethnically Dutch. A 2005 estimate counted: 80.9% Dutch, 2.4% Indonesian, 2.4% German, 2.2% Turkish, 2.0% Surinamese, 2.0% Moroccan, 0.8% Antillean and Aruban, and 6.0% others.[67] The Dutch are the tallest people in the world, with an average height of 1.81 metres (5 ft 11 in) for adult males and 1.67 metres (5 ft 6 in) for adult females. People in the south are on average about 2 cm shorter than those in the north.[68]

Dutch people, or descendants of Dutch people, are also found in migrant communities worldwide, notably in Canada, Australia, South Africa and the United States. According to the 2006 US Census, more than 5 million

Americans claim total or partial Dutch ancestry.[69] There are close to 3 million Dutch-descended Afrikaners living in South Africa.[70] In 1940, there were 290,000 Europeans and Eurasians in Indonesia,[71] but most have since left the country.[72] According to Eurostat, in 2010 there were 1.8 million foreign-born residents in the Netherlands, corresponding to 11.1% of the total population. Of these, 1.4 million (8.5%) were born outside the EU and 0.428 million (2.6%) were born in another EU Member State.[73]

The Netherlands is the 30th most densely populated country in the world, with 395 inhabitants per square kilometre (1,023 /sq mi)—or 484 inhabitants per square kilometre (1,254 /sq mi) if only the land area is counted. It is the 8th most densely populated country in Europe with a population density of 393/km^2. The Randstad is the country's largest conurbation located in the west of the country and contains the four largest cities: Amsterdam in the province North Holland, Rotterdam and The Hague in the province South Holland, and Utrecht in the province Utrecht. The Randstad has a population of 7 million inhabitants and is the 6th largest metropolitan area in Europe.

Cities by population



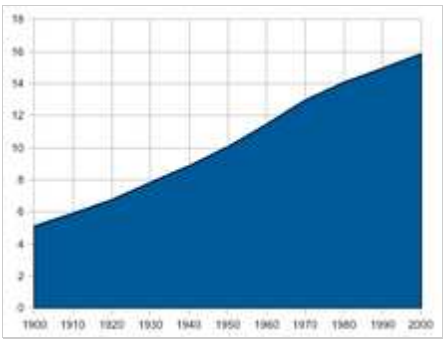
Population density in the Netherlands by neighbourhood as of 2007[74]

Rank	City	Province	Population (Urban Area)
1	**Amsterdam**	North Holland	2,788,276 (2,871,870)
2	**Rotterdam**	South Holland	1,854,645 (1,904,051)
3	**Den Haag**	South Holland	850,373 (940,631)
4	**Utrecht**	Utrecht	622,684 (670,484)
5	**Eindhoven**	North Brabant	612,265 (730,480)
6	**Tilburg**	North Brabant	278,065 (229,019)
7	**Almere**	Flevoland	199,709 (-)
8	**Groningen**	Groningen	197,338 (208,847)
9	**Breda**	North Brabant	192,219 (194,708)
10	**Nijmegen**	Gelderland	174,634 (-)
11	**Apeldoorn**	Gelderland	156,415 (-)
12	**Enschede**	Overijssel	156,109 (-)

2008 estimate[75][76]

Language

Main article: Languages of the Netherlands



Population of the Netherlands from 1900 to 2000

The official language is Dutch, which is spoken by the vast majority of the inhabitants. Another official language is Frisian, which is spoken in the northern province of Friesland, called *Fryslân* in that language. A dialect of Frisian and Dutch is spoken in most villages in the west of the province of Groningen.[77] Frisian is co-official only in the province of Friesland, although with a few restrictions. Several dialects of Low Saxon (*Nedersaksisch* in Dutch) are spoken in much of the north and east, like the Twents in the Twente region, and Drents in the province Drenthe. They are recognised by the Netherlands as *regional languages* according to the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, as well as the Meuse-Rhenish Franconian varieties in the southeastern province of Limburg, here called Limburgish language.[34] English is an official language in the special municipalities of Saba and Sint Eustatius. It is widely spoken on these islands. Papiamento is an official language in the special municipality of Bonaire. The three islands are known as the BES islands. Yiddish and the Romani language were recognised in 1996 as non-territorial languages.[78]

There is a tradition of learning foreign languages in the Netherlands: about 70% of the total population have good knowledge of conversational English, 55– 59% of German, and 19% of French. The children start with English courses at primary schools when they are about nine years old. English is a mandatory course in all secondary schools.[79] In most lower level secondary school educations (*vmbo*), one additional modern foreign language is mandatory during the first two years. In higher level secondary schools(*havo* and *vwo*), two additional modern foreign languages are mandatory during the first three years. Only during the last three years in *vwo* one foreign language is mandatory. The standard modern languages are French and German, although schools can change one of these modern languages with Spanish, Turkish, Arabic, or Russian.[80] Additionally, schools in the Frisia region teach and have exams in Frisian, and schools across the country teach and have exams in classical Greek and Latin for vwo.

Religion

Main article: Religion in the Netherlands



The Netherlands is one of the most secular countries in Western Europe, with only 39% being religiously affiliated (31% for those aged under 35), and fewer than 20% visiting church regularly.[81] According to the most recent Eurobarometer poll 2005,[82] 34% of the Dutch citizens responded that "they believe there is a God", whereas 37% answered that "they believe there is some sort of spirit or life force", and 27% that "they do not believe there is any sort of spirit, god, or life force".

Currently, Roman Catholicism is the single largest religion of the Netherlands, forming the religious home of some 28% of the Dutch population in 2011.[83] The Protestant Church of the Netherlands follows with 16% of the population.[83] It was formed in 2004 as a merger of the two major strands of Calvinism: the Dutch Reformed Church (which represented roughly 8.5% of the population), the Reformed Churches in the Netherlands (3.7% of the population), and a smaller Lutheran Church. Other Protestant churches, mostly orthodox Calvinist splits, represent 6% of the population. In 1947, 44.3% belonged to Protestant denominations, 38.7% belonged to the Roman Catholic Church, and

17.1% were unaffiliated.[84]

Dom Tower of Utrecht.

In 2006, there were 850,000 Muslims (5% of the total Dutch population).[85] The Netherlands has an estimated 250,000 Buddhists or people who feel strongly attracted by this religion, largely ethnic Dutch people. There are approximately 200,000 Hindus, most of them are of Surinamese origin. Sikhs are another religious minority numbering around 12,000, mainly located in or around Amsterdam. There are five gurudwaras in the Netherlands. The Association of Religion Data Archives (relying on World Christian Encyclopedia) estimated some 6,400 Bahá'ís in 2005.[86]

Although the Holocaust deeply affected the Jewish community (killing about 75% of its 140,000 members at the time[87]), it has managed to rebuild a vibrant and lively Jewish life for its approximately 45,000 current members. Before World War II, 10% of the Amsterdam population was Jewish.[88]

Freedom of education has been guaranteed by the Dutch constitution since 1917, and schools run by religious groups (especially Catholic and Protestant) are funded by the government. All schools must meet strict quality criteria.

Three political parties in the Dutch parliament (CDA, ChristianUnion, and SGP) base their policy on Christian belief in varying degrees. Although the Netherlands is a secular state, in some municipalities where the Christian parties have the majority, the council meetings are opened by prayer.

Municipalities in general also give civil servants a day off on Christian religious holidays, such as Easter and the Ascension of Jesus.[89]

Education

Main article: Education in the Netherlands

Education in the Netherlands is compulsory between the ages of 4 and 16, and partially compulsory between the ages of 16 and 18.

All children in the Netherlands usually attend elementary school from (on average) ages 4 to 12. It comprises eight grades, the first of which is facultative. Based on an aptitude test, the 8th grade teacher's recommendation and the opinion of the pupil's parents or caretakers, a choice is made for one of the three main streams of secondary education (after completing a particular stream, a pupil may still continue in the penultimate year of the next stream):

- The vmbo has 4 grades and is subdivided over several levels. Successfully completing the vmbo results in a low-level vocational degree that grants access to the mbo ("middle-level applied education"). This form of education primarily focuses on teaching a practical trade. With the mbo certification, a student can apply for the hbo.
- The havo has 5 grades and allows for admission to the hbo ("higher professional education"), which are universities of professional education (or applied sciences) that award professional bachelor degrees that gives access to the university system.
- The vwo (including atheneum and gymnasium) has 6 grades and prepares for studying at a research university. The university consists of a three year bachelor's degree, followed by a one, two or three year master's degree, and finally a four year doctoral degree. Doctoral candidates in the Netherlands are temporary employees of a university.

Culture

Main article: Culture of the Netherlands


Symbols and icons of Dutch culture

The Netherlands has had many well-known painters. The 17th century, when the Dutch republic was prosperous, was the age of the "Dutch Masters", such as Rembrandt van Rijn, Johannes Vermeer, Jan Steen, Jacob van Ruysdael and many others. Famous Dutch painters of the 19th and 20th century were Vincent van Gogh and Piet Mondriaan. M. C. Escher is a well-known graphics artist. Willem de Kooning was born and trained in Rotterdam, although he is considered to have reached acclaim as an American artist. The Netherlands is the country of philosophers Erasmus of Rotterdam and Spinoza. All of Descartes' major work was done in the Netherlands. The Dutch scientist Christiaan Huygens (1629–1695) discovered Saturn's moon Titan and invented the pendulum clock. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek was the first to observe and describe single-celled organisms with a microscope.

In the Dutch Golden Age, literature flourished as well, with Joost van den Vondel and P.C. Hooft as the two most famous writers. In the 19th century, Multatuli wrote about the poor treatment of the natives in Dutch colonies. Important 20th century authors include Harry Mulisch, Jan Wolkers, Simon Vestdijk, Hella S. Haasse, Cees Nooteboom, Gerard (van het) Reve and Willem Frederik Hermans. Anne Frank's *Diary of a Young Girl* was published after she died in the Holocaust and translated from Dutch to all major languages.

Replicas of Dutch buildings can be found in Huis Ten Bosch, Nagasaki, Japan. A similar Holland Village is being built in Shenyang, China. Windmills, tulips, wooden shoes, cheese, Delftware pottery, and cannabis are among the items associated with the Netherlands by tourists.

Sport

Main article: Sport in the Netherlands


Johan Cruyff with Roberto Perfumo at the 1974 World Cup

Approximately 4.5 million of the 16 million people in the Netherlands are registered to one of the 35,000 sports clubs in the country. About two thirds of the population older than 15 years participates in sports weekly.[90]

In the Netherlands, football, speed skating, korfball, handball, swimming, rowing, cycling, field hockey, volleyball, equestrian sports, sailing, and tennis are popular sports. A lot of amateurs practice them, and the Netherlands is a strong competitor in international tournaments for these sports. In the Dutch Caribbean, baseball is a popular sport, with the islands frequently sending teams to the annual Little League World Series.

Organization of sports began at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century. Federations for sports were established (such as the speed skating federation in 1882), rules were unified and sports clubs came into existence. A Dutch National Olympic Committee was established in 1912. Thus far, the nation has won 246 medals at the Summer Olympic Games and another 86 medals at the Winter Olympic Games.

Cuisine

Main article: Dutch Cuisine

Traditional Dutch cuisine consists of working class meals. Many traditional dishes are mashed dishes, for instance potatoes mashed with kale (*boerenkool*), sauerkraut (*zuurkool*), or endive (*andijvie*). These dishes are served with greasy, smoked sausage (*rookworst*) and gravy. Another traditional dish is split pea soup (*erwtensoep*).

As the Netherlands always had strong ties with (former) colonies Indonesia and Suriname, dishes from those countries have mixed with Dutch cuisine. Common Asian dishes in the Netherlands include noodles (*bami*) and rice (*nasi*) dishes.

See also

- Outline of the Netherlands

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History of the Netherlands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of the Netherlands** is the history of a seafaring people thriving on a watery lowland river delta flowing into the North Sea at the edge of northwestern Europe. When the Romans and written history arrived in 57 BC, the country was sparsely populated by various tribal groups at the periphery of the empire. Over four centuries of Roman rule had profound demographic effects, resulting eventually in the establishment of three primary Germanic peoples in the area: Frisians, Low Saxons and the Franks. Hiberno-Scottish and Anglo-Saxon missionaries led them to adopt Christianity by the 8th century. The descendants of the Salian Franks eventually came to dominate the area, and from their speech the Dutch language arose.

Carolingian rule, loose integration into the Holy Roman Empire and Viking depredation followed, the local noblemen being left relatively free to carve out highly independent duchies and counties. For several centuries, Brabant, Holland, Zeeland, Friesland, Gelre and the others fought intermittently amongst themselves, but at the same time trade continued and grew, land was reclaimed, and cities prospered. Forced by nature to work together, over the centuries they built and maintained a network of polders and dikes that kept out the sea and the floods, in the process transforming their desolate landscape, mastering the North Sea and the high seas beyond, and emerging out of the struggle as one of the most urban and enterprising nations in Europe.



Leo Belgicus by Claes Jansz. Visscher (II), 1609

By 1433, as a result of the defeat of the last countess of Holland in the Hook and Cod Wars, the Duke of Burgundy had assumed control over most of the Dutch-speaking territories and the concept of a nation of Dutch-speaking people was conceived. Eventually, however, under Charles V and then Philip II, the Burgundian Netherlands became part of the Habsburg empire ruled from Spain. The Reformation inflamed passions. In 1566 William of Orange, a convert to Calvinism and the father of his people, started the Eighty Years' War to liberate the Dutch from the Catholic Spaniards and the brutality of the Duke of Alba. There followed an epic struggle against the Spanish that did not end until the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. The Dutch Republic was born, a nation with Protestants, Catholics and Jews and an unusual policy of tolerance. However, the southern provinces (present day Belgium) remained under Habsburg rule, Holland benefiting greatly from the resulting eclipse of Flemish cities and massive influx of refugees.

During this struggle, commerce continued and the United Provinces prospered. Amsterdam became the most important trading centre in northern Europe. In the

History of the Netherlands



This article is part of **a series**

Early History

Germanic tribes

Roman Era

Migration Period

Medieval

Frankish Realm/The Franks

Middle Francia

Holy Roman Empire

Burgundian Netherlands

Seventeen Provinces

Republic

Eighty Years' War

United Provinces

The Golden Age

The Batavian revolution

Monarchy

Batavian Republic

Kingdom of Holland

First French Empire

United Kingdom of the Netherlands

Modern History

Netherlands in World War II

Netherlands

Topics

Military History

Dutch Language

Dutch literature

Naval influence

Inventions and discoveries

Dutch Golden Age, which had its zenith in 1667, there was a remarkable flowering of trade, industry (especially shipbuilding), the arts (especially painting) and the sciences. The Dutch Republic, particularly Holland and Zeeland, became a veritable Dutch empire, a maritime power with a commercial, imperial and colonial reach that extended to Asia, Africa and the Americas — but not without slavery and colonial oppression.

Luctor et Emergo

Dutch heraldry

Netherlands Portal

By the mid-18th century decline had set in because of several economic factors. There was a series of wars with the English and the French. The country's political system was dominated by wealthy regents and (sometimes) by stadtholders drawn from the House of Orange. Eventually, Amsterdam lost its leading position to London. In 1784 a war with Great Britain ended particularly disastrously. There was growing unrest and conflict between the Orangists and the Patriots inspired by the French Revolution, and finally conflict with France itself. A pro-French Batavian Republic was established (1795–1806) and then the country was invaded by, and integrated into, the First French Empire as the Kingdom of Holland (1806–1815).

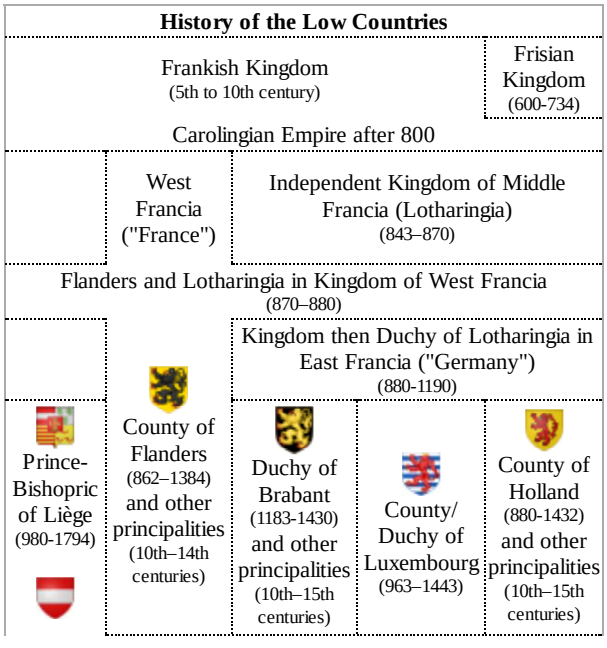
After the Battle of Waterloo in 1815, the Netherlands was restored as a nation by the Vienna Congress and the House of Orange was elevated to a monarchy. King William I was also given rule over Belgium, but this lasted only around two decades. After an initially conservative period, strong liberal sentiments arose, so that in the 1848 constitution the country was made a parliamentary democracy with a constitutional monarch.

The Netherlands was neutral during the First World War, but it was unable to stay out of the Second. On 10 May 1940 Nazi Germany invaded the country and, after destroying Rotterdam, occupied it. Around 100,000 Dutch Jews died in the Holocaust and many others died as well. On 5 May 1945, the war ended after liberation by mainly Canadian forces. The post-war years were a time of hardship, natural disaster and mass emigration, followed by rebuilding, large-scale public works programmes (especially the Delta Works), economic recovery, European integration and the gradual introduction of a welfare state. There was also a conflict with Indonesia, which ended with the Dutch withdrawing completely from their former colonies there in 1961. Suriname declared independence in 1975. Many people from Indonesia and Suriname, and later from other countries as well, moved to the Netherlands, which resulted in the transformation of the country into a vibrant, multicultural society.

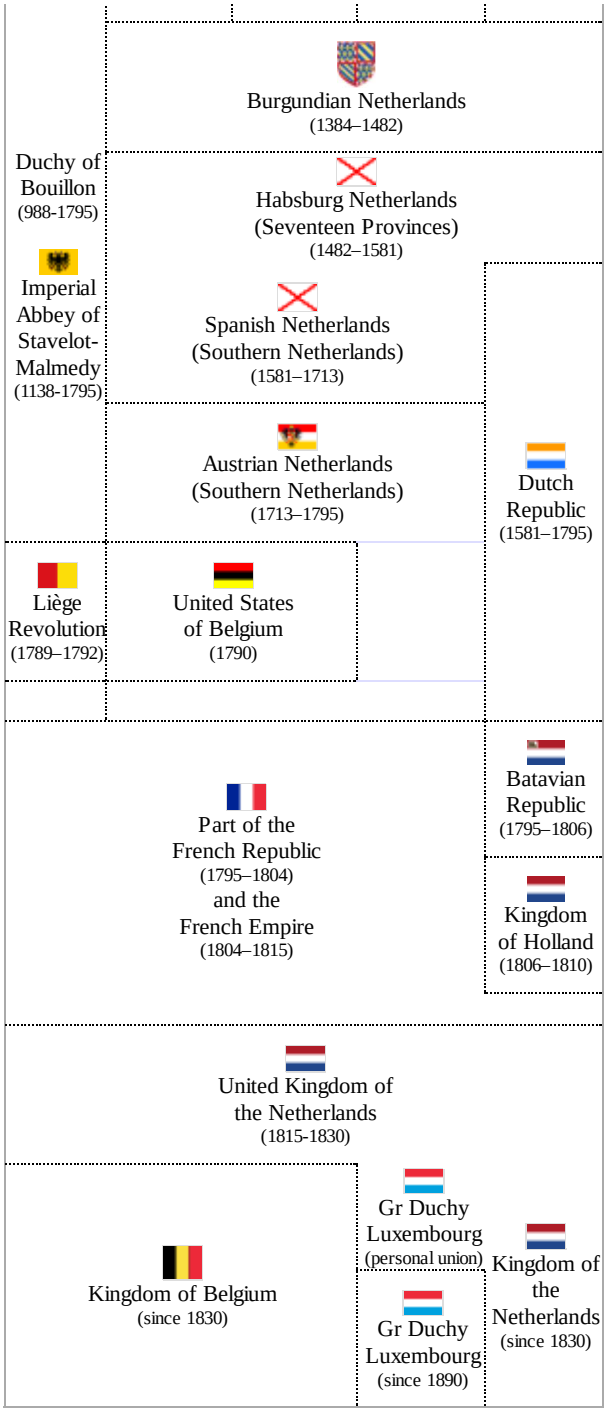
The second half of the 20th century was marked by relative peace and prosperity. By the 21st century, the Netherlands had become a modern, dynamic country with a successful, internationally oriented economy (the 16th largest in the world in 2010) and a high standard of living.

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Prehistory (before 800 BC)

Historical changes to the landscape

The prehistory of the area that is now the Netherlands was largely shaped by its constantly shifting, low-lying geography.



The Netherlands in 5500 BC



The Netherlands in 3850 BC



The Netherlands in 2750 BC



The Netherlands in 500 BC



The Netherlands in 50 AD

beach ridges and dunes

tidal sand flats, tidal mudflats, salt marshes

peat marshes and floodplain silt areas

(including old river courses and riverbank breaches which have filled up with silt or peat)

Valleys of the major rivers (not covered with peat)

River dunes (Pleistocene dunes)

open water (sea, lagoons, rivers)

Pleistocene landscape (> −6 m compared to NAP)

Pleistocene landscape (-6 m – 0 m)

Pleistocene landscape (0 m – 10 m)

Pleistocene landscape (10 m – 20 m)

Pleistocene landscape (20 m – 50 m)

Pleistocene landscape (50 m – 100 m)

Pleistocene landscape (100 m – 200 m)

Earliest groups of hunter-gatherers (before 5000 BC)

The area that is now the Netherlands was inhabited by early humans at least 370,000 years ago, as attested by flint tools discovered in Woerden in 2010.[1] In 2009 a fragment of a 40,000-year-old Neanderthal skull was found in sand dredged from the North Sea floor off the coast of Zeeland.[2]

During the last ice age, the Netherlands had a tundra climate with scarce vegetation and the inhabitants survived as hunter-gatherers. After the end of the ice age, various Paleolithic groups inhabited the area. It is known that around 8000 BC a Mesolithic tribe resided near Burgumer Mar (Friesland). Another group residing elsewhere is known to have made canoes. The oldest recovered canoe in the world is the Pesse canoe.[3][4] According to C14 dating analysis it was constructed somewhere between 8200 BC and 7600 BC.[4] This canoe is exhibited in the Drents Museum in Assen.

Autochthonous hunter-gatherers from the Swifterbant culture are attested from around 5600 BC onwards.[5] They are strongly linked to rivers and open water and were genetically related to the southern Scandinavian Ertebølle culture (5300 BC–4000 BC). To the west, the same tribes might have built hunting camps to hunt winter game, including seals.



An oak statue found in Willemstad, The Netherlands, dating from around 4500 BC. On display in the Rijksmuseum van Oudheden in Leiden.

The arrival of farming (around 5000 BC-4000 BC)

Agriculture arrived in the Netherlands somewhere around 5000 BC with the Linear Pottery culture, who were probably central European farmers. Agriculture was practised only on the loess plateau in the very south (southern Limburg). Farms did not develop in the rest of the Netherlands, probably because of the lack of animal domestication and appropriate tools.

There is also some evidence of small settlements in the west of the country. These people made the switch to animal

husbandry sometime between 4800 BC and 4500 BC. Dutch archaeologist Leendert Louwe Kooijmans wrote, "It is becoming increasingly clear that the agricultural transformation of prehistoric communities was a purely indigenous process that took place very gradually."[5] This transformation took place as early as 4300 BC–4000 BC[6] and featured the introduction of grains in small quantities into a traditional broad-spectrum economy.[7]

Funnelbeaker and other cultures (around 4000 BC-3000 BC)



Hunebed D27, the largest dolmen in the Netherlands, located near Borger in Drenthe.

The Funnelbeaker culture was a farming culture extending from Denmark through northern Germany into the northern Netherlands. In this period of Dutch prehistory the first notable remains were erected: the dolmens, large stone grave monuments. They are found in Drenthe, and were probably built between 4100 BC and 3200 BC.

To the west, the Vlaardingen culture (around 2600 BC), an apparently more primitive culture of hunter-gatherers survived well into the Neolithic period.

Corded Ware and Bell Beaker cultures (around 3000 BC-2000 BC)

Around 2950 BC there was a transition from the Funnelbeaker farming culture to the Corded Ware pastoralist culture. The cause of this transition is a matter of debate, but it was a quick, smooth and internal change in culture and religion that occurred in just two generations, probably because of developments in eastern Germany and without immigration.[8]

The Bell Beaker culture was also present in the Netherlands.[9][10]

The Corded Ware and Bell Beaker cultures were not indigenous to the Netherlands but were pan-European in nature, extending across much of northern and central Europe.

The first evidence of the use of the wheel dates from this period, about 2400 BC. This culture also experimented with working with copper. Evidence of this, including stone anvils, copper knives and a copper spearhead, was found on the Veluwe. Copper finds show that there was trade with other areas in Europe, as natural copper is not found in Dutch soil.

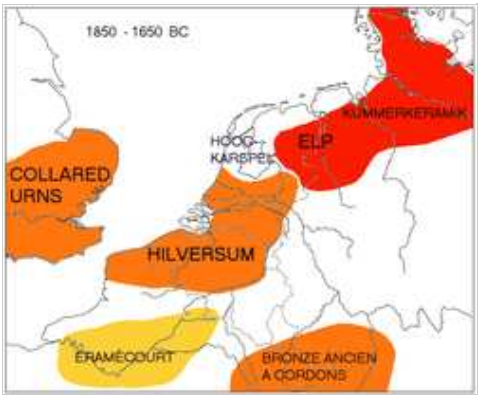
Bronze Age (around 2000 BC-800 BC)

The Bronze age probably started somewhere around 2000 BC and lasted until around 800 BC. The earliest bronze tools have been found in the grave of a Bronze Age individual called "the smith of Wageningen". (Typical Dutch Bronze Age items. (http://home.versatel.nl/postbus/pics1.html)) More Bronze Age objects from later periods have been found in Epe, Drouwen and elsewhere. Broken bronze objects found in Voorschoten were apparently destined for recycling. This indicates how valuable bronze was considered in the Bronze Age. (Typology of Dutch Bronze Age axes. (http://home.versatel.nl/postbus/images/typ.jpg)) Typical bronze objects from this period included knives, swords, axes, fibulae and bracelets.

Most of the Bronze Age objects found in the Netherlands have been found in Drenthe. One item shows that trading networks during this period extended a far distance. Large bronze *situlae* (buckets) found in Drenthe were manufactured somewhere in eastern France or in Switzerland. They were used for mixing wine with water (a Roman/Greek custom). The many finds in Drenthe of rare and valuable objects, such as tin-bead necklaces, suggest that Drenthe was a trading centre in the Netherlands in the Bronze Age.



A bronze ceremonial object (not a sword, but



Location of the Elp and Hilversum cultures in the Bronze Age.

The Bell Beaker cultures (2700–2100) locally developed into the Bronze Age Barbed-Wire Beaker culture (2100–1800). In the second millennium BC, the region was the boundary between the Atlantic and Nordic horizons and was split into a northern and a southern region, roughly divided by the course of the Rhine.

called the "Sword of Jutphaas"), dating from 1800-1500 BC and found south of Utrecht

In the north, the Elp culture (ca. 1800 to 800 BC)[11] was a Bronze Age archaeological culture having earthenware pottery of low quality known as "*Kümmerkeramik*" (or "*Grobkeramik*") as a marker. The initial phase was characterized by tumuli (1800–1200 BC) that were strongly tied to contemporary tumuli in northern Germany and Scandinavia, and were apparently related to the Tumulus culture (1600 BC – 1200 BC) in central Europe. This phase was followed by a subsequent change featuring Urnfield (cremation) burial customs (1200–800 BC). The southern region became dominated by the Hilversum culture (1800–800), which apparently inherited the cultural ties with Britain of the previous Barbed-Wire Beaker culture.

The pre-Roman period (800 BC – 58 BC)

Iron age

The Iron Age brought a measure of prosperity to the people living in the area of the present-day Netherlands. Iron ore was available throughout the country, including bog iron extracted from the ore in peat bogs (*moeras ijzererts*) in the north, the natural iron-bearing balls found in the Veluwe and the red iron ore near the rivers in Brabant. Smiths travelled from small settlement to settlement with bronze and iron, fabricating tools on demand, including axes, knives, pins, arrowheads and swords. Some evidence even suggests the making of Damascus steel swords using an advanced method of forging that combined the flexibility of iron with the strength of steel.

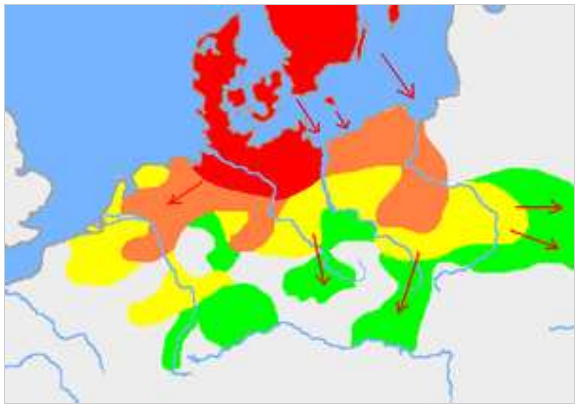

A reconstruction of an iron age dwelling on the Reijntjesveld near Orvelte in Drenthe.

In Oss, a grave dating from around 500 BC was found in a burial mound 52 metres wide (and thus the largest of its kind in western Europe). Dubbed the "king's grave", it contained extraordinary objects, including an iron sword with an inlay of gold and coral.(Iron age finds in the Netherlands (http://home.versatel.nl/postbus/pics2.html))

In the centuries just before the arrival of the Romans, northern areas formerly occupied by the Elp culture emerged as the probably Germanic Harpstedt culture[12] while the southern parts were influenced by the Hallstatt culture and assimilated into the Celtic La Tène culture. The contemporary southern and western migration of Germanic groups and the northern expansion of the Hallstatt culture drew these peoples into each other's sphere of influence.[13] This is consistent with Caesar's account of the Rhine forming the boundary between Celtic and Germanic tribes.

Arrival of Germanic groups

The Germanic tribes originally inhabited southern Scandinavia, Schleswig-Holstein and Hamburg,[14] but subsequent Iron Age cultures of the same region, like Wessenstedt (800 BC–600 BC) and Jastorf, are also in consideration.[15] A



Distribution of the primary Germanic groups ca. 1 AD.

deteriorating climate in Scandinavia around 850 BC to 760 BC and a later and more rapid one around 650 BC might have triggered migrations. Archeological evidence suggests around 750 BC a relatively uniform Germanic people from the Netherlands to the Vistula and southern Scandinavia.[14] In the west the coastal floodplains were populated for the first time, since in adjacent higher grounds the population had increased and the soil became exhausted.[16]

By the time this migration was complete, around 250 BC, a few general cultural and linguistic groupings are seen to have emerged.[17][18]

One grouping is today called the "North Sea Germanic", inhabiting the northern part of the Netherlands (north of the great rivers) and extending along the North Sea and into Jutland. This group is also sometimes referred to as the "Ingvaeones". Included in this group are the peoples who would later develop into, among others, the early Frisians and the early Saxons.[18]

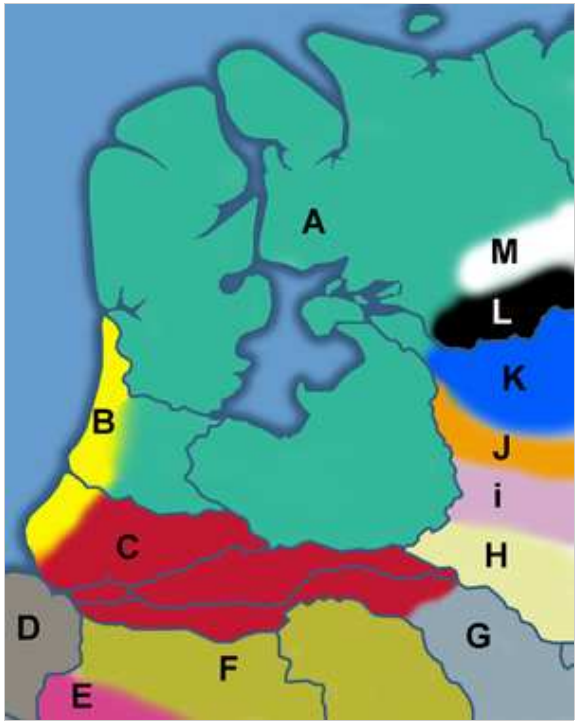
A second grouping is now called the "Weser-Rhine Germanic" (or "Rhine-Weser Germanic"), extending along the middle Rhine and Weser and inhabiting the southern part of the Netherlands (south of the great rivers). This group, also sometimes referred to as the "Istvaeones", consisted of tribes that would eventually develop into the Salian Franks.[18]

Tribes

When the Romans arrived, various tribes were located in the area of the Netherlands, residing in the inhabitable higher parts, especially in the east and south. These tribes did not leave behind written records. All the information known about them during this pre-Roman period is based on what the Romans would later write about them.

The tribes shown in the map on the right:

- A. Frisii,
- B. Canninefates,
- C. Batavi,
- D. Marsac(i)i,
- E. Toxandri,
- F. Menapii,
- G. Ampsivarii,
- H. Chamavi,
- I. Sicambri,
- J. Bructeri,
- K. Tubantes,
- L. Usipetes, and
- M. Tencteri.



The suspected location of tribes in the Netherlands in the 1st century AD. The exact boundaries are unknown, however, and H through M in particular should not be considered exact representations.

Other tribal groups not shown on this map but associated with the Netherlands are:

- Chatti

- Chattuarii,
- Salii,
- Tungri, and
- Ubii.

Celts in the south



Diachronic distribution of Celtic peoples, showing expansion into the southern Netherlands:
core Hallstatt territory, by the 6th century BC
maximal Celtic expansion, by 275 BC
Lusitanian area of Iberia where Celtic presence is uncertain
the "six Celtic nations" which retained significant numbers of Celtic speakers into the Early Modern period
areas where Celtic languages remain widely spoken today

The Celtic culture had its origins in the central European Hallstatt culture (c. 800–450 BC), named for the rich grave finds in Hallstatt, Austria.[19] By the later La Tène period (c. 450 BC up to the Roman conquest), this Celtic culture had, whether by diffusion or migration, expanded over a wide range, including into the southern area of the Netherlands. This would have been the northern reach of the Gauls.

In March 2005 17 Celtic coins were found in Echt (Limburg). The silver coins, mixed with copper and gold, date from around 50 BC to 20 AD. In October 2008 a horde of 39 gold coins and 70 silver Celtic coins was found in the Amby area of Maastricht.[20] The gold coins were attributed to the Eburones people.[21] Celtic objects have also been found in the area of Zutphen.[22]

Although it is rare for hoards to be found, in past decades loose Celtic coins and other objects have been found throughout the central, eastern and southern part of the Netherlands. According to archaeologists these finds confirmed that at least the Maas river valley in the Netherlands was within the influence of the La Tène culture. Dutch archaeologists even speculate that Zutphen (which lies in the centre of the country) was a Celtic area before the Romans arrived, not a Germanic one at all.[22]

Scholars debate the actual extent of the Celtic influence.[16][23] The Celtic influence and contacts between Gaulish and early Germanic culture along the Rhine is assumed to be the source of a number of Celtic loanwords in Proto-Germanic.[*citation needed*] But according to Belgian linguist Luc van Durme, toponymic evidence of a former Celtic presence in the Low Countries is near to utterly absent.[24] Although there were Celts in the Netherlands, Iron Age innovations did not involve substantial Celtic intrusions and featured a local development from Bronze Age culture.[16]

The Nordwestblock theory

Some scholars (De Laet, Gysseling, Hachmann, Kossack & Kuhn) have speculated that a separate ethnic identity, neither Germanic nor Celtic, survived in the Netherlands until the Roman period. They see the Netherlands as having been part of an Iron Age "Nordwestblock" stretching from the Somme to the Weser.[25][26] Their view is that this culture, which had its own language, was being absorbed by the Celts to the south and the Germanic peoples from the east as late as the immediate pre-Roman perod.

Roman era (57 BC – 410 AD)

Main article: Romans in the Netherlands

During the Gallic Wars, the area south and west of the Rhine was conquered by Roman forces under Julius Caesar in a

series of campaigns from 57 BC to 53 BC.[26] The approximately 450 years of Roman rule that followed would profoundly change the Netherlands.

Starting about 15 BC, the Rhine in the Netherlands came to be defended by the Lower Limes Germanicus. After a series of military actions, the Rhine became fixed around 12 AD as Rome's northern frontier on the European mainland. A number of towns and developments would arise along this line. The area to the south would be integrated into the Roman Empire. At first part of Gallia Belgica, this area became part of the province of Germania Inferior. The tribes already within, or relocated to, this area became part of the Roman Empire. The area to the north of the Rhine, inhabited by the Frisii and the Chauci, remained outside Roman rule but not its presence and control.



Rhine Frontier of the Roman Empire around 70 AD.

Roman settlements in the Netherlands


1st century mask of a Roman cavalryman, found near Leiden (i.e. near the Roman settlement of Matilo

Romans built military forts along the Limes Germanicus and a number of towns and smaller settlements in the Netherlands. The more notable Roman towns were at Nijmegen (Ulpia Noviomagus Batavorum) and at Voorburg (Forum Hadriani).

Perhaps the most evocative Roman ruin is the mysterious Brittenburg, which emerged out of the sand at the beach in Katwijk several centuries ago, only to be buried again. These ruins were part of Lugdunum Batavorum.

Other Roman settlements, fortifications, temples and other structures have been found at Alphen aan de Rijn (Albaniana); Bodegraven; Cuijk; Elst, Overbetuwe; Ermelo; Esch; Heerlen; Houten; Kessel, North Brabant; Oss, i.e. De Lithse Ham near Maren-Kessel; Kesteren in Neder-Betuwe; Leiden (Matilo); Maastricht; Meinerswijk (now part of Arnhem); Tiel; Utrecht (Traiectum); Valkenburg (South Holland) (Praetorium Agrippinae); Vechten (Fectio) now part of Bunnik; Velsen; Vleuten; Wijk bij Duurstede (Levefanum); Woerden (Laurium or Laurum); and Zwammerdam (Nigrum Pullum).

Batavians

Main articles: Batavi (Germanic tribe) and Revolt of the Batavi

The Batavians are the most famous of the early Germanic tribes inhabiting the Netherlands during the Roman era. Since at least the 17th century the Dutch have identified with the rebellious Batavians, seeing in this tribe a precursor of their own historic struggle for freedom. Even today "Batavian" is a term sometimes used to describe the Dutch people. (This is similar to use of "Gallic" to describe the French and "Teutonic" to describe the Germans.)

About 38 BC a pro-Roman faction of the Chatti (a Germanic tribe located east of the Rhine) was settled by Agrippa in an area south of the Rhine, now thought to be the Betuwe area. They took on the name of the people already living there—the Batavians.[26] The relationship between the Romans and the Batavians was generally


Throughout Dutch history, but especially during the Eighty Years' War, the Batavians have been romantically portrayed as the heroic ancestors of the Dutch people. "The Batavians Defeating the Romans

quite good. Many Batavians even served in the Roman cavalry. The Batavians were regarded as loyal and courageous soldiers by the Romans[27] and fought in many important wars, for instance the conquest of Dacia (Romania) by the emperor Trajan. Batavian culture was influenced by the Romans, resulting among other things in Roman-style temples such as the one in Elst, dedicated to local gods. Trade between the Batavians and the Romans also flourished.

on the Rhine", ca.1613, by Otto van Veen.



The Conspiracy of Julius Civilis, 1661, by Rembrandt, depicts a Batavian oath to Gaius Julius Civilis, the head of the Batavian rebellion against the Romans in 69.

However, the Batavians rose against the Romans in the Batavian rebellion of 69 AD. The leader of this revolt was Batavian Gaius Julius Civilis. One of the causes of the rebellion was that the Romans had taken young Batavians as slaves. A number of Roman *castella* were attacked and burnt. Other Roman soldiers in Xanten and elsewhere and auxiliary troops of Batavians and Canninefatae in the legions of Vitellius) joined the revolt, thus splitting the northern part of the Roman army. In April 70 AD, a few legions sent by Vespasianus and commanded by Petilius Cerialis eventually defeated the Batavians and negotiated surrender with Gaius Julius Civilis somewhere between the Waal and the Maas near Noviomagus (Nijmegen), which was probably called "Batavodurum" by the Batavians.[28] The Batavians later merged with other tribes and became part of the Salian Franks.

Dutch writers in the 17th and 18th centuries saw the rebellion of the independent and freedom-loving Batavians as mirroring the Dutch revolt against Spain and other forms of tyranny. According to this nationalist view, the Batavians were the "true" forefathers of the Dutch, which explains the recurring use of the name over the centuries. Jakarta was named "Batavia" by the Dutch in 1619. The Dutch republic created in 1795 on the basis of French revolutionary principles was called the Batavian Republic.[29]

Emergence of the Franks



Map showing roughly the distribution of Salian Franks (in green) and Ripuarian Franks (in red) at the end of the Roman period.

Modern scholars of the Migration Period are in agreement that the Frankish identity emerged at the first half of the 3rd century out of various earlier, smaller Germanic groups, including the Salii, Sicambri, Chamavi, Bructeri, Chatti, Chattuarii, Ampsivarii, Tencteri, Ubii, Batavi and the Tungri, who inhabited the lower and middle Rhine valley between the Zuyder Zee and the river Lahn and extended eastwards as far as the Weser, but were the most densely settled around the IJssel and between the Lippe and the Sieg. The Frankish confederation probably began to coalesce in the 210s.[30]

The Franks eventually were divided into two groups: the Ripuarian Franks (Latin: Ripuari), who were the Franks that lived along the middle-Rhine River during the Roman Era, and the Salian Franks, who were the Franks that originated in the area of the Netherlands.

Franks appear in Roman texts as both allies and enemies (*laeti* and *deditícii*). By about 320, the Franks had the region of the Scheldt river (present day west Flanders and southwest Netherlands) under control, and were raiding the Channel, disrupting transportation to Britain. Roman forces pacified the region, but did not expel the Franks, who continued to be feared as pirates along the shores at least until the time of Julian the Apostate (358), when Salian Franks were granted to settle as *foederati* in Toxandria, according to Ammianus Marcellinus.[30]

Disappearance of the Frisii



Three factors contributed to the disappearance of the Frisii from the northern Netherlands. First, according to the *Panegyrici Latini* (Manuscript VIII), the ancient Frisii were forced to resettle within Roman territory as *laeti* (i.e., Roman-era serfs) in ca. 296.[31] This is the last reference to the ancient Frisii in the historical record. What happened to them, however, is suggested in the archaeological record. The discovery of a type of earthenware unique to 4th century Frisia, called *terp Tritzum*, shows that an unknown number of them were resettled in Flanders and Kent,[32] likely as *laeti* under Roman coercion. Second, the environment in the low-lying coastal regions of northwestern Europe began to deteriorate ca. 250 and gradually worsened over the next 200 years. Tectonic subsidence, a rising water table and storm surges combined to flood some areas with marine transgressions. The situation was aggravated by a shift to a cooler, wetter climate in the region. If there had been any Frisii left in Frisia, they would have fallen victim to the whims of nature.[33][34][35][36] Third, after the collapse of the Roman Empire, there was a decline in population as Roman activity stopped and Roman institutions withdrew. As a result of these three factors, the Frisii and Frisiaevones disappeared from the area. The coastal lands remained largely unpopulated for the next two centuries.[33][34][35][36]

Early Middle Ages (411–1000)

Frisians

Main articles: Frisian Kingdom and Dorestad



Map showing roughly the distribution of Franks and Frisians ca. 716 AD

As climatic conditions improved, there was another mass migration of Germanic peoples into the area from the east. This is known as the "Migration Period" (*Volksverhuizingen*). The northern Netherlands received an influx of new migrants and settlers, mostly Saxons, but also Angles and Jutes. Many of these migrants did not stay in the northern Netherlands but moved on to England and are known today as the Anglo-Saxons. The newcomers that stayed in the northern Netherlands would eventually be referred to as "Frisians", although they were not descended from the ancient Frisii. These new Frisians settled in the northern Netherlands and would become the ancestors of the modern Frisians.[37][38] (Because the early Frisians and Anglo-Saxons were formed from largely identical tribal confederacies, their respective languages were very similar. Old Frisian is the most closely related language to Old English[39] and the modern Frisian dialects are in turn the closest related languages to contemporary English.) By the end of the 6th century, the Frisian territory in the northern Netherlands had expanded west to the North Sea coast and, by the 7th century, south to Dorestad. During this period most of the northern Netherlands was known as Frisia. This extended Frisian territory is sometimes referred to as *Frisia Magna* (or Greater Frisia).

In the 7th century and 8th century, the Frankish chronologies mention this area as the kingdom of the Frisians. This kingdom comprised the coastal provinces of the Netherlands and the German North Sea coast. During this time, the Frisian language was spoken along the entire southern North Sea coast. The 7th century Frisian Kingdom (650–734) under King Aldegisel and King Redbad, had its centre of power in Utrecht.

Dorestad was the largest settlement (emporia) in northwestern Europe. It had grown around a former Roman fortress.

It was a large, flourishing trading place, three kilometers long and situated where the rivers Rhine and Lek diverge southeast of Utrecht near the modern town of Wijk bij Duurstede.[40][41] Although inland, it was a North Sea trading centre that primarily handled goods from the Middle Rhineland.[41][42] Wine was among the major products traded at Dorestad, likely from vineyards south of Mainz.[42] It was also widely known because of its mint. Between 600 and around 719 Dorestad was often fought over between the Frisians and the Franks.



Dorestad and main traderoutes

Franks

Main article: Franks



Expansion of the Franks from 481 to 870 AD.

When the Roman Empire collapsed, there were already Franks and other groups in the southern Netherlands on Roman soil.[30] In the 5th century Frankish rulers extended their territories to the south[43] until numerous small Frankish kingdoms existed, among them the ones in Cologne, Tournai, Le Mans and Cambrai. The kings of Tournai eventually came to subdue the other Frankish kings. By the 490s, Clovis I had conquered all the Frankish kingdoms to the west of the Meuse, including the Frankish territories in the southern Netherlands. He continued his conquests into Gaul.

After the death of Clovis I in 511, his four sons partitioned his kingdom amongst themselves, with Theuderic I receiving the lands that were to become Austrasia (including the southern Netherlands). A line of kings descended from Theuderic ruled Austrasia until 555, when it was united with the other Frankish kingdoms of Chlothar I, who inherited all the Frankish realms by 558. He redivided the Frankish territory amongst his four sons, but the four kingdoms coalesced into three on the death of Charibert I in 567. Austrasia (including the southern Netherlands) was given to Sigebert I. The southern Netherlands remained the northern part of Austrasia until the rise of the Carolingians.

The Franks who expanded south into Gaul settled there and eventually adopted the Vulgar Latin of the local population.[18] During this expansion to the south, many Frankish people remained in the north (i.e. southern Netherlands, Flanders and a small part of northern France). A widening cultural divide grew between them and the rulers far to the south.[43] They continued to reside in their original homeland and the area directly to the south and to speak their original language, Old Frankish, which by the 9th century had evolved into Old Dutch.[18] A Dutch-French language boundary came into existence (but this was south of where it is today).[18][43] In the Maas and Rhine areas of the Netherlands, the Franks had political and trading centres, especially at Nijmegen and Maastricht.[43] These Franks remained in contact with the Frisians to the north, especially in places like Dorestad and Utrecht.

Modern doubts about the traditional Frisian, Frank and Saxon distinction

In the late 19th century, Dutch historians believed that the Franks, Frisians, and Saxons were the original ancestors of the Dutch people. Some went further by ascribing certain attributes, values and strengths to these various groups and proposing that they reflected 19th century nationalist and religious views. In particular, it was believed that this theory explained why Belgium and the southern Netherlands (i.e. the Franks) had become Catholic and the northern Netherlands (Frisians and Saxons) had become Protestant. The success of this theory was partly due to anthropological theories based on a tribal paradigm. Being politically and geographically inclusive, and yet accounting for diversity, this theory was in accordance with the need for nation-building and integration during the 1890–1914 period. The theory was taught in Dutch schools.

However, the disadvantages of this historical interpretation became apparent. This tribal-based theory suggested that external borders were weak or non-existent and that there were clear-cut internal borders. This origins myth provided an historical premise, especially during the Second World War, for regional separatism and annexation to Germany. After 1945 the tribal paradigm lost its appeal for anthropological scholars and historians. When the accuracy of the three-tribe theme was fundamentally questioned, the theory fell out of favour.[29]

Due to the scarcity of written sources, knowledge of this period depends to a large degree on the interpretation of archaeological data. The traditional view of a clear-cut division between Frisians in the north, Franks in the south and Saxons in the east has proven historically problematic.[44][45][46] Archeological evidence suggests dramatically different models for different regions, with demographic continuity for some parts of the country and depopulation and possible replacement in other parts, notably the coastal areas of Frisia and Holland.[47]



Saint Willibrord, Anglo-Saxon missionary from Northumberland, Apostle to the Frisians, first bishop of Utrecht.

The emergence of the Dutch language

Main articles: Old Dutch, Old Frisian, and Dutch Low Saxon

The language from which Old Dutch (also sometimes called Old West Low Franconian) arose is not known with certainty, but it is thought to be Old Frankish, the language spoken by the Salian Franks. Even though the Franks are traditionally categorized as Weser-Rhine Germanic, Dutch has a number of Ingvaeonic characteristics and is classified by modern linguists as an Ingvaeonic language. Dutch also has a number of Old Saxon characteristics. There was a close relationship between Old Frankish, Old Saxon, Old English and Old Frisian. Because Old Frankish texts are almost non-existent and Old Dutch texts scarce and fragmentary, it is difficult to determine when the transition from Old Frankish to Old Dutch occurred, but it is thought to have happened by the end of the 9th century AD. and perhaps occurred before then. Old Dutch made the transition to Middle Dutch around 1150.[18]

Christianisation

The Christianity that arrived in the Netherlands with the Romans appears not to have died out completely (in Maastricht, at least) after the withdrawal of the Romans.[43]

The Franks became Christians after their king Clovis I converted to Catholicism, an event which is traditionally set in 496. Christianity was introduced in the north after the conquest of Friesland by the Franks. The Saxons in the east were converted before the conquest of Saxony, and became Frankish allies.

Hiberno-Scottish and Anglo-Saxon missionaries, particularly Willibrord, Wulfram and Boniface, played an important role in converting the Frankish and Frisian peoples to Christianity by the 8th century. Boniface was martyred by the Frisians in Dokkum (754).

Frankish dominance and incorporation into Holy Roman Empire

Main article: Frisian-Frankish Wars

In the early 8th century the Frisians came increasingly into conflict with the Franks to the south, resulting in a series of wars in which the Frankish Empire eventually subjugated Frisia. In 734, at the Battle of the Boarn, the Frisians in the Netherlands were defeated by the Franks, who thereby conquered the area west of the Lauwers. The Franks then



An early 16th century tapestry depicting the near baptism of Redbad, King of the Frisians, who died in 719.

conquered the area east of the Lauwers in 785 when Charlemagne defeated Widukind.

The linguistic descendants of the Franks, the modern Dutch-speakers of the Netherlands and Flanders, seem to have broken with the endonym "Frank" around the 9th century. By this time Frankish identity had changed from an ethnic identity to a national identity, becoming localized and confined to the modern *Franconia* and principally to the French province of *Île-de-France*.[48]

Although the people no longer referred to themselves as "Franks", the Netherlands was still part of the Frankish empire of Charlemagne. Indeed, because of the Austrasian origins of the Carolingians in the area between the Rhine and the Maas, the cities of Aachen, Maastricht, Liege and Nijmegen were at the heart of Carolingian culture.[43] Charlemagne maintained his *palatium* in Nijmegen at least four times.

The Carolingian empire would eventually include France, Germany, northern Italy and much of Western Europe. In 843, the Frankish empire was divided into three parts, giving rise to West Francia in the west, East Francia in the east, and Middle Francia in the centre. Most of what is today the Netherlands became part of Middle Francia; Flanders became part of West Francia. This division was an important factor in the historical distinction between Flanders and the other Dutch-speaking areas.

Middle Francia (Latin: *Francia media*) was an ephemeral Frankish kingdom that had no historical or ethnic identity to bind its varied peoples. It was created by the Treaty of Verdun in 843, which divided the Carolingian Empire among the sons of Louis the Pious. Situated between the realms of East and West Francia, Middle Francia comprised the Frankish territory between the rivers Rhine and Scheldt, the Frisian coast of the North Sea, the former Kingdom of Burgundy (except for a western portion, later known as *Bourgogne*), Provence and the Kingdom of Italy.

Middle Francia fell to Lothair I, the eldest son and successor of Louis the Pious, after an intermittent civil war with his younger brothers Louis the German and Charles the Bald. In acknowledgement of Lothair's Imperial title, Middle Francia contained the imperial cities of Aachen, the residence of Charlemagne, as well as Rome. In 855, on his deathbed at Prüm Abbey, Emperor Lothair I again partitioned his realm amongst his sons. Most of the lands north of the Alps, including the Netherlands, passed to Lothair II and consecutively were named Lotharingia. After Lothair II died in 869, Lotharingia was partitioned by his uncles Louis the German and Charles the Bald in the Treaty of Meerssen in 870. Although some of the Netherlands had come under Viking control, in 870 it technically became part of East Francia, which became the Holy Roman Empire in 962.

Viking raids

In the 9th and 10th centuries the Vikings raided the largely defenceless Frisian and Frankish towns laying on the coast and along the rivers of the Low Countries. Although Vikings never settled in large numbers in these areas, they did set up long-term bases and were even acknowledged as lords in a few cases. In Dutch and Frisian historical tradition the trading centre of Dorestad declined after Viking raids from 834 to 863; however, since no convincing Viking archaeological evidence has been found at the site (as of 2007), doubts about this have grown in recent years.[49]

One of the most important Viking families in the Low Countries was that of Rorik of Dorestad (based in Wieringen) and his brother the "younger Harald" (based in Walcheren), both thought to be nephews of Harald Klak.[50] Around 850 Lothair I acknowledged Rorik as ruler of most of Friesland. And again in 870 Rorik was received by Charles the Bald in Nijmegen, to whom he became a vassal. Viking raids continued during this period. Harald’s son Rodulf and his men were killed by the people of Oostergo in 873. Rorik died sometime before 882.

Buried Viking treasures consisting mainly of silver have been found in the Low Countries. Two such treasures have been found in Wieringen. A large treasure found in Wieringen in 1996 dates from around 850 and is thought perhaps to have been connected to Rorik. The burial of such a valuable treasure is seen as an indication that there was a permanent settlement in Wieringen.[51]

Around 879 Godfrid arrived in Frisian lands as the head of a large force that terrorised the Low Countries. Using Ghent as his base, they ravaged Ghent, Maastricht, Liège, Stavelot, Prüm, Cologne, and Koblenz. Controlling most of Frisia between 882 and his death in 885, Godfrid became known to history as Godfrid, Duke of Frisia. His lordship over Frisia was acknowledged by Charles the Fat, to whom he became a vassal. Godfried was assassinated in 885, after which Gerolf of Holland assumed lordship and Viking rule of Frisia came to an end.

Viking raids of the Low Countries continued for over a century. Remains of Viking attacks dating from 880 to 890 have been found in Zutphen and Deventer. In 920 King Henry of Germany liberated Utrecht. According to a number of chronicles, the last attacks took place in the first decade of the 11th century and were directed at Tiel and/or Utrecht.[52]

These Viking raids occurred about the same time that French and German lords were fighting for supremacy over the middle empire that included the Netherlands, so their sway over this area was weak. Resistance to the Vikings, if any, came from local nobles, who gained in stature as a result.



Rorik of Dorestad, Viking conqueror and ruler of Friesland, a romantic 1912 depiction by Hermanus W. Koekkoek.

High Middle Ages (1000–1432)

Part of the Holy Roman Empire

The German kings and emperors ruled the Netherlands in the 10th and 11th century. Germany was called the Holy Roman Empire after the coronation of King Otto the Great as emperor. The Dutch city of Nijmegen used to be the spot of an important domain of the German emperors. Several German emperors were born and died there. (Byzantine empress Theophanu died in Nijmegen for instance.) Utrecht was also an important city and trading port at the time.

Political disunity

The Holy Roman Empire was not able to maintain political unity. In addition to the growing independence of the towns, local rulers turned their counties and duchies into private kingdoms and felt little sense of obligation to the emperor who governed over large parts of the nation in name only. Large parts of what now comprise the Netherlands were governed by the Count of Holland, the Duke of Gelre, the Duke of Brabant and the Bishop of Utrecht. Friesland and Groningen in the north maintained their independence and were governed by the lower nobility.

The various feudal states were in a state of almost continual war. Gelre and Holland fought for control of Utrecht. Utrecht, whose bishop had in 1000 ruled over half of what is today the Netherlands, was marginalised as it experienced continuing difficulty in electing new bishops. At the same time, the dynasties of neighbouring states were more stable. Groningen, Drenthe and most of Gelre, which used to be part of Utrecht, became independent. Brabant tried to conquer its neighbours, but was not successful. Holland also tried to assert itself in Zeeland and Friesland, but

its attempts failed.

The Frisians

The language and culture of most of the people who lived in the area that is now Holland were originally Frisian. The sparsely populated area was known as "West Friesland" (*Westfriesland*). As Frankish settlement progressed, the Frisians migrated away or were absorbed and the area quickly became Dutch. (The part of North Holland situated north of the 'IJ' is still colloquially known as West Friesland).

The rest of Friesland in the north continued to maintain its independence during this time. It had its own institutions (collectively called the "Frisian freedom") and resented the imposition of the feudal system and the patriciate found in other European towns. They regarded themselves as allies of Switzerland. The Frisian battle cry was "better dead than a slave". They later lost their independence when they were defeated in 1498 by the German Landsknecht mercenaries of Duke Albrecht of Saxony-Meissen.



Chapel of St Nicholas (Sint Nicolaaskapel or Valkhofkapel) in Nijmegen, dating from ca. 975, the oldest building in the Netherlands.

The rise of Holland



Dirk VI, Count of Holland, 1114-1157, and his mother Petronella visiting the work on the Egmond Abbey, Charles Rochussen, 1881. The sculpture is the Egmond Tympanum (http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Egmond_tympanum.jpg) , depicting the two visitors on either side of St Peter

The center of power in these emerging independent territories was in the County of Holland. Originally granted as a fief to the Danish chieftain Rorik in return for loyalty to the emperor in 862, the region of Kennemara (the region around modern Haarlem) rapidly grew under Rorik's descendants in size and importance. By the early 11th century AD, Dirk III, Count of Holland was levying tolls on the Meuse estuary and was able to resist military intervention from his overlord, the Duke of Lower Lorraine. In 1083, the name "Holland" first appears in a deed referring to a region corresponding more or less to the current province of South Holland and the southern half of what is now North Holland. Holland's influence continued to grow over the next two centuries. The counts of Holland conquered most of Zeeland but it was not until 1289 that Count Floris V was able to subjugate the Frisians in West Friesland (that is, the northern half of North Holland).

Expansion and growth

Around 1000 AD there were several agricultural developments (described sometimes as an agricultural revolution) that resulted in an increase in production, especially food production. The economy started to develop at a fast pace, and the higher productivity allowed workers to farm more land or to become tradesmen.

Much of the western Netherlands was barely inhabited between the end of the Roman period until around 1100 AD, farmers from Flanders and Utrecht began purchasing the swampy land, draining it and cultivating it. This process happened quickly and the uninhabited territory was settled in only a few generations. They built independent farms that were not part of villages, something unique in Europe at the time.



Two wings of an altar piece, ca. 1500, depicting the St Elizabeth Flood of 18–19 November 1421, with Dordrecht at the front left.

Guilds were established and markets developed as production exceeded local needs. Also, the introduction of currency made trading a much easier affair than it had been before. Existing towns grew and new towns sprang into existence around monasteries and castles, and a mercantile middle class began to develop in these urban areas. Commerce and town development increased as the population grew.

The Crusades were popular in the Low Countries and drew many to fight in the Holy Land. At home, there was relative peace. Viking pillaging had stopped. Both the Crusades and the relative peace at home contributed to trade and the growth in commerce.

Cities arose and flourished, especially in Flanders and Brabant. As the cities grew in wealth and power, they started to buy certain privileges for themselves from the sovereign, including city rights, the right to self-government and the right to pass laws. In practice, this meant that the wealthiest cities became quasi-independent republics in their own right. Two of the most important cities were Brugge and Antwerp (in Flanders) which would later develop into some of the most important cities and ports in Europe.

Hook and Cod Wars

Main article: Hook and Cod wars



Jacqueline, Countess of Hainaut, 1401-1436, known to the Dutch as "Jacoba of Bavaria"

The Hook and Cod Wars (Dutch: *Hoekse en Kabeljauwse twisten*) were a series of wars and battles in the County of Holland between 1350 and 1490. Most of these wars were fought over the title of count of Holland, but some have argued that the underlying reason was because of the power struggle of the bourgeois in the cities against the ruling nobility.

The Cod faction generally consisted of the more progressive cities of Holland. The Hook faction consisted for a large part of the conservative noblemen. Some of the main figures in this multi-generational conflict were William IV, Margaret, William V, William VI, Count of Holland and Hainaut, John and Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy. But perhaps the most well known is Jacqueline, Countess of Hainaut.

The conquest of the county of Holland by the Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy was an odd affair. Leading noblemen in Holland invited the duke to conquer Holland, even though he had no historical claim to it. Some historians say that the ruling class in Holland wanted Holland to integrate with the Flemish economic system and adopt Flemish legal institutions. Europe had been wracked by many civil wars in the 14th and 15th centuries, while Flanders had grown rich and enjoyed peace.

Burgundian and Habsburg period (1433–1567)

Burgundian period

Main article: Burgundian Netherlands

Most of what is now the Netherlands and Belgium was eventually united by the Duke of Burgundy in 1433. Before the



The Low Countries in the late 14th century

Burgundian union, the Dutch identified themselves by the town they lived in, their local duchy or county or as subjects of the Holy Roman Empire. The Burgundian period is when the Dutch began the road to nationhood.

Holland's trade developed rapidly, especially in the areas of shipping and transport. The new rulers defended Dutch trading interests. The fleets of Holland defeated the fleets of the Hanseatic League several times. Amsterdam grew and in the 15th century became the primary trading port in Europe for grain from the Baltic region. Amsterdam distributed grain to the major cities of Belgium, Northern France and England. This trade was vital to the people of Holland, because Holland could no longer produce enough grain to feed itself. Land drainage had caused the peat of the former wetlands to reduce to a level that was too low for drainage to be maintained.

Habsburg rule from Spain

Main article: Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor


Influential Utrecht theologian Adriaan Florenszoon Boeyens, 1459-1523, was Pope Adrian VI in 1522 and 1523.

Charles V was born in the Flemish city of Ghent in 1500. The culture and courtly life of the Burgundian Low Countries were an important influence in his early life. He was tutored by William de Croÿ (who would later become his first prime minister), and also by Adrian of Utrecht (later Pope Adrian VI). In 1506, Charles inherited his father's Burgundian territories. In this way the Netherlands became part of the Spanish Empire ruled by the Habsburgs. Charles would become the most powerful man in Europe, his sprawling empire being controlled from Seville. The Low Countries held an important place in the Holy Roman Empire. Because of trade and industry and the wealth of the cities, they also represented an important income for the treasury.

Charles extended the Burgundian territory with the annexation of Tournai, Artois, Utrecht, Groningen and Guelders. The Seventeen Provinces had been unified by Charles's Burgundian ancestors, but nominally were fiefs of either France or the Holy Roman Empire. When he was a minor, his aunt Margaret acted as regent until 1515 and soon she found herself at war with France over the question of Charles's requirement to pay homage to the French king for Flanders, as his father had done. The outcome was that France relinquished its ancient claim on Flanders in 1528.

In 1548, eight years before his abdication, Charles granted the Seventeen Provinces of the Netherlands status as an entity separate from both the Holy Roman Empire and from France with the Transaction of Augsburg. It was not full independence, but it allowed significant autonomy. In the Pragmatic Sanction of 1549 it was stated that the Seventeen Provinces could only be passed on to his heirs as a united entity.[53]

From 1515 to 1523, Charles's government in the Netherlands had to contend with the rebellion of Frisian peasants (led by Pier Gerlofs Donia and Wijard Jelckama). Gelre attempted to build up its own state in northeast Netherlands and northwest Germany. Lacking funds in the 16th century, Gelre had its soldiers provide for themselves by pillaging enemy terrain. These soldiers were a great menace to the Burgundian Netherlands. One notorious event was the pillaging of The Hague.



Desiderius Erasmus, 1466-1536, Rotterdam Renaissance humanist, Catholic priest and theologian, by Hans Holbein the Younger, 1523.

Charles was succeeded by his son Philip II of Spain. Unlike his father, who had been raised in Ghent (Belgium), Philip had little personal attachment to the Low Countries (where he had only stayed for four years), and thus was perceived as detached by the local nobility. When Philip left the Netherlands on 7 August 1559, he appointed Margaret, Duchess of Parma as the governor of the Netherlands in his place.[54] Margaret was the illegitimate daughter of Charles V and Johanna Marie van der Gheynst.[55] Being appointed governor-general to the Netherlands was nothing new to her family. Both Margaret's great-aunt, Archduchess Margaret of Austria and Margaret's aunt Marie of Austria had served in the post of governor general of the Netherlands—serving from 1507 to 1530 and from 1530 to 1555, respectively.

The Reformation

The Protestant Reformation, which greatly influenced the history of the Netherlands, especially in western and northern areas of the country, started in the 16th century. The first wave of Reformation, initiated by Martin Luther, did not come to the Netherlands.



Title page of the 1637 Statenvertaling, the first Bible translated from the original Hebrew and Greek into Dutch, commissioned by the Synod of Dort, used well into the 20th c.

The second wave of the Protestant Reformation, Anabaptism, became very popular in the counties of Holland and Friesland. Anabaptists were very radical and believed that the apocalypse was very near. They refused to live the old way, and began new communities, creating considerable chaos. A prominent Dutch anabaptist was Menno Simons, who initiated the Mennonite church. Another Anabaptist, Jantje van Leyden became the ruler of a newly founded city, New Jerusalem. Anabaptists survived throughout the centuries and they were recognized by the States-General of the Netherlands in 1578. Institutionalized Dutch baptism stood for a model for both English and American Baptists.

The third wave of the Reformation, Calvinism, arrived in the Netherlands in the 1560s, converting both parts of the elite and the common population, mostly in Flanders. The Spanish government, under Philip II started harsh persecution campaigns, supported by the Spanish inquisition. In reaction to this persecution, Calvinists rebelled. First there was the Beeldenstorm in 1566, which involved the destruction of religious depictions in Churches. Also in 1566 William the Silent, a convert to Calvinism, started the Eighty Years' War to liberate the Calvinist Dutch from the Catholic Spaniards. The counties of Holland and Zeeland were conquered by Calvinists in 1572. A considerable number of people were Calvinist in Holland and Zeeland at that time already, while the other states remained almost entirely Catholic.

Prelude to war

The Netherlands was a valuable part of the Spanish Empire, especially after the Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis of 1559. This treaty ended a forty-year period of warfare between France and Spain conducted in Italy from 1521 to 1559.[56] The Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis was somewhat of a watershed—not only for the battleground that Italy had been, but also for northern Europe. Spain had been keeping troops in the Netherlands to be ready to attack France from the north as well as from the south.



1595 painting by Isaac van Swanenburg illustrating Leiden textile workers

With the settlement of so many major issues between France and Spain by the Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis, there was no longer any reason to keep Spanish troops in the Netherlands. Thus, the people of the Netherlands could get on with their peacetime pursuits. As they did so they found that there was a great deal of demand for their products. Fishing had long been an important part of the economy of the Netherlands.[54] However, now the fishing of herring alone came to occupy 2,000 boats operating out of Dutch ports.[54] Spain, still the Dutch trader's best customer, was buying fifty (50) large ships full of furniture and household utensils from Flanders merchants.[54]

Additionally, Dutch woolen goods were desired everywhere. The Netherlands bought and processed enough Spanish wool to sell four million florins of wool products through merchants in Bruges.[54] So strong was the Dutch appetite for raw wool at this time that they bought nearly as much English wool as they did Spanish wool.[54] Total commerce with England alone amounted to 24 million florins. Much of the export going to England resulted in pure profit to the Dutch because the exported items were of their own manufacture.[54] The Netherlands was just starting to enter its "Golden Age." Brabant and Flanders were the richest and most flourishing parts of the Dutch Republic at the time.[54] No wonder then that Spain could not let this very valuable property go off on its own while not sharing its wealth with the mother country. However, the economic issues tended to be cloaked in religious rhetoric.

A devout Catholic, Philip was appalled by the success of the Reformation in the Low Countries, which had led to an increasing number of Calvinists. His attempts to enforce religious persecution of the Protestants and his endeavours to centralise government, justice and taxes made him unpopular and led to a revolt. Fernando Alvarez de Toledo, Duke of Alba, was sent with a Spanish Army to punish the unruly Dutch.[55] Alba began his march across the Netherlands on May 5, 1567.[54]



William I, Prince of Orange, called William the Silent

The only opposition the Duke of Alba faced in his march across the Netherlands were the nobles, Lamoral, Count of Egmont; Philippe de Montmorency, Count of Horn and others. With the approach of Alba and the Spanish army, William the Silent of Orange fled to Germany with his three brothers and his whole family on April 11, 1567.[54] On July 26 & 27, 1567 the Duke of Alba sent a letter to the nobles that now faced him with armies.[55] In the letter, Alba expressed the desire to meet with the nobles in Brussels on September 9, 1567 and negotiate their differences, peacefully.[55] However, when the nobles arrived in Brussels they were all arrested.[54] Egmont and Horn were transported to the prison fortress in Ghent.[54] On 5 June 1568, Egmont and Horn were executed in the grand square of Brussels.[55] Alba then revoked all the prior treaties that Margaret, the Duchess of Parma had signed with the Protestants of the Netherlands and instituted the Inquisition to enforce the decrees of the Council of Trent.

The Eighty Years' War (1568–1648)

Main articles: Eighty Years' War and Dutch Revolt

The Dutch War for Independence from Spain is frequently called the Eighty Years' War (1568–1648). However, only the first fifty years (1568 through 1618) were uniquely a war between Spain and the Netherlands. During the last thirty years (1618–1648) the conflict between Spain and the Netherlands was submerged in the general European War that

became known as the Thirty Years War.[57] The seven rebellious provinces of the Netherlands were eventually united by the Union of Utrecht in 1579 and formed the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands (also known as the "United Provinces"). The Act of Abjuration or *Plakkaat van Verlatinghe* was signed on 26 July 1581, and was the formal declaration of independence of the northern Low Countries from the Spanish king.



Prince Maurits at the Battle of Nieuwpoort, 2 July 1600, by Paulus van Hillegaert, ca. 1621-1630

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William of Orange (Slot Dillenburg, 24 April 1533 – Delft, 10 July 1584), the founder of the Dutch royal family, led the Dutch during the first part of the war, following the death of Egmont and Horn in 1568. The very first years were a success for the Spanish troops. However, the Dutch countered subsequent sieges in Holland. The Spanish king lost control of the Netherlands after the sack of Antwerp by mutinous Spanish soldiers killing 10,000 inhabitants.[55] The conservative Catholics in the south and east supported the Spanish. The Spanish recaptured Antwerp and other Flemish and Dutch cities. Most of the territory in the Netherlands was recaptured, but not in Flanders, leading to the historical split between the Netherlands and Flanders. Flanders was the most radical anti-Spanish territory. Many Flemish fled to Holland, among them half of the population of Antwerp, 3/4 of Bruges and Ghent and the entire population of Nieuwpoort, Dunkerque and countryside. The war dragged on for another 60 years, but the main fighting was over. The Peace of Westphalia, signed on 30 January 1648, confirmed the independence of the United Provinces from Spain and Germany. The Dutch didn't regard themselves as Germans any more since the 15th century, but they officially remained a part of the Holy Roman Empire until 1648. National identity was mainly formed by the province people came from. Holland was the most important province by far. The republic of the Seven Provinces came to be known as Holland in foreign countries.

These events formed part of a wider turmoil. See Spanish Armada for a view of some of the history from further west.

Golden Age

Main articles: Dutch Golden Age, Dutch Empire, and Economic history of the Netherlands (1500–1815)

During the Eighty Years' War the Dutch provinces became the most important trading centre of Northern Europe, replacing Flanders in this respect. During the Golden Age, there was a great flowering of trade, industry, the arts and the sciences in the Netherlands. In the 17th and 18th centuries, the Dutch were arguably the most economically wealthy and scientifically advanced of all European nations. This new, officially Calvinist nation flourished culturally and economically, creating what historian Simon Schama has called an "embarrassment of riches".[58] Speculation in the tulip trade led to a first stock market crash in 1637, but the economic crisis was soon overcome. Due to these developments the 17th century has been dubbed the Golden Age of the Netherlands.



Map of Dutch Republic by Joannes Janssonius

The invention[59] of the sawmill enabled the construction of a massive fleet of ships for worldwide trading and for defence of the republic's economic interests by military means. National industries such as shipyards and sugar refineries expanded as well.



The Anatomy Lesson of Dr. Nicolaes Tulp, by Rembrandt van Rijn, 1632

The Dutch, traditionally able seafarers and keen mapmakers,[60] obtained an increasingly dominant position world trade, a position which before had been occupied by the Portuguese and Spaniards. In 1602 the Dutch East India Company (Dutch: *Verenigde Oostindische Compagnie* or *VOC*) was founded. It was the first-ever multinational corporation, financed by shares that established the first modern stock exchange. It became the world's largest commercial enterprise of the 17th century. To finance the growing trade within the region, the Bank of Amsterdam was established in 1609, the precursor to, if not the first true central bank.[61]

Dutch ships hunted whales off Svalbard, traded spices in India and Indonesia (via the Dutch East India Company) and founded colonies in New Amsterdam (now New York), South Africa and the West Indies. In addition some Portuguese colonies were conquered, namely in Northeastern Brazil, Angola, Indonesia and Ceylon. In 1640 by the Dutch East India Company began a trade monopoly with Japan through the trading post on Dejima.

The Dutch also dominated trade between European countries. The Low Countries were favorably positioned on a crossing of east-west and north-south trade routes and connected to a large German hinterland through the Rhine river. Dutch traders shipped wine from France and Portugal to the Baltic lands and returned with grain destined for countries around the Mediterranean Sea. By the 1680s, an average of nearly 1000 Dutch ships entered the Baltic Sea each year.[62] The Dutch were able to gain control of much of the trade with the nascent English colonies in North America and following the end of war with Spain in 1648, Dutch trade with that country also flourished.



Antonie van Leeuwenhoek

Renaissance Humanism, of which Desiderius Erasmus (c. 1466–1536) was an important advocate, had also gained a firm foothold and was partially responsible for a climate of tolerance. Overall, levels of tolerance were sufficiently high to attract religious refugees from other countries, notably Jewish merchants from Portugal who brought much wealth with them. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes in France in 1685 resulted in the immigration of many French Huguenots, many of whom were shopkeepers or scientists. Still tolerance had its limits, as philosopher Baruch de Spinoza (1632–1677) would find out. Due to its climate of intellectual tolerance the Dutch Republic attracted scientists and other thinkers from all over Europe. Especially the renowned University of Leiden (established in 1575 by the Dutch stadtholder, William of Oranje, as a token of gratitude for Leiden's fierce resistance against Spain during the Eighty Years War) became a gathering place for these people. For instance French philosopher René Descartes lived in Leiden from 1628 until 1649.

Dutch lawyers were famous for their knowledge of international law of the sea and commercial law. Hugo Grotius (1583–1645) played a leading part in the foundation of international law. Again due to the Dutch climate of tolerance, book publishers flourished. Many books about religion, philosophy and science that might have been deemed controversial abroad were printed in the Netherlands and secretly exported to other countries. Thus during the 17th Century the Dutch Republic became more and more Europe's publishing house.

Christiaan Huygens (1629–1695) was a famous astronomer, physicist and mathematician. He invented the pendulum clock, which was a major step forward towards exact timekeeping. He contributed to the fields of optics. The most famous Dutch scientist in the area of optics is certainly Anton van Leeuwenhoek, who invented or greatly improved the microscope (opinions differ) and was the first to methodically study microscopic life, thus laying the foundations



Johannes Vermeer's Girl with a Pearl Earring

for the field of microbiology. Famous Dutch hydraulic engineer Jan Leeghwater (1575–1650) gained important victories in The Netherlands's eternal battle against the sea. Leeghwater added a considerable amount of land to the republic by converting several large lakes into polders, pumping all water out with windmills.

Painting was the dominant art form in 17th century Holland. Dutch Golden Age painting followed many of the tendencies that dominated Baroque art in other parts of Europe, such as Caravaggesque and naturalism, but was the leader in developing the subjects of still life, landscape, and genre painting. Portraiture were also popular, but History painting — traditionally the most-elevated genre struggled to find buyers. Church art was virtually non-existent, and little sculpture of any kind produced. While art collecting and painting for the open market was also common elsewhere, art historians point to the growing number of wealthy Dutch middle-class and successful mercantile patrons as driving forces in the popularity of certain pictorial subjects.[63] Today, the best-known painters of the Dutch Golden Age are the period's most dominant figure Rembrandt, the Delft master of genre Johannes Vermeer, the innovative landscape painter Jacob van Ruisdael, and Frans Hals, who infused new life into portraiture. Some notable artistic styles and trends include Haarlem Mannerism, Utrecht Caravaggism, the School of Delft, the Leiden fijnschilders, and Dutch classicism.

Due to the thriving economy, cities expanded greatly. New town halls, weighhouses and storehouses were built. Merchants that had gained a fortune ordered a new house built along one of the many new canals that were dug out in and around many cities (for defence and transport purposes), a house with an ornamented façade that befitted their new status. In the countryside, many new castles and stately homes were built. Most of them have not survived. Starting at 1595 Reformed churches were commissioned, many of which are still landmarks today. The most famous Dutch architects of the 17th century were Jacob van Campen, Pieter Post, Pieter Vingbooms, Lieven de Key, Hendrick de Keyser. Overall, Dutch architecture, which generally combined traditional building styles with some foreign elements, did not develop to the level of painting.



The Dutch Classicist Mauritshuis, named after Prince Johan Maurits and built 1636-1641, was designed by Jacob van Campen and Pieter Post.

The Golden Age was also an important time for developments in literature. Some of the major figures of this period were Gerbrand Adriaenszoon Bredero, Jacob Cats, Pieter Corneliszoon Hooft and Joost van den Vondel. Since Latin was the lingua franca of education, relatively few men could speak, write, and read Dutch all at the same time.

Music did not develop very much in the Netherlands since the Calvinists considered it an unnecessary extravagance, and organ music was forbidden in Reformed Church services, although it remained common at secular functions.

The Dutch in the Americas

Main articles: Dutch West India Company , New Netherland, and New Amsterdam

The *Dutch West India Company* was a chartered company (known as the "GWC") of Dutch merchants. On 2 June 1621, it was granted a charter for a trade monopoly in the West Indies (meaning the Caribbean) by the Republic of the



New Amsterdam in 1664

Seven United Netherlands and given jurisdiction over the African slave trade, Brazil, the Caribbean, and North America. The area where the company could operate consisted of West Africa (between the Tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope) and the Americas, which included the Pacific Ocean and the eastern part of New Guinea. The intended purpose of the charter was to eliminate competition, particularly Spanish or Portuguese, between the various trading posts established by the merchants. The company became instrumental in the Dutch colonization of the Americas.

Dutch trading posts and plantations in the Americas precede the much wider known colonisation activities of the Dutch in Asia. The first forts and settlements on the Essequibo River in Guyana and on the Amazon date from the 1590s. Actual colonization, with Dutch settling in the new lands, was not as common as with other European nations. Many of the Dutch settlements were lost or abandoned by the end of that century, but the Netherlands managed to retain possession of Suriname and a number of Dutch Caribbean islands.

New Netherland, or *Nieuw-Nederland* in Dutch, was the 17th-century colonial province of the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands on the East Coast of North America. The claimed territories were the lands from the Delmarva Peninsula to extreme southwestern Cape Cod. The settled areas are now part of the Mid-Atlantic States of New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Connecticut, with small outposts in Pennsylvania and Rhode Island. The provincial capital, New Amsterdam, was located at the southern tip of the island of Manhattan on upper New York Bay.



Peter Stuyvesant, Director-General of New Netherland, unknown painter (attributed to Hendrick Couturier), ca. 1660

The colony was conceived as a private business venture to exploit the North American fur trade. New Netherland was slowly settled during its first decades, partially as a result of policy mismanagement by the Dutch West India Company (WIC), and conflicts with Native Americans. The settlements of New Sweden developed on its southern flank and its northern border was re-drawn in recognition of early New England expansion. During the 1650s, the colony experienced dramatic growth and became a major port for trade in the North Atlantic. The surrender of Fort Amsterdam to the British control in 1664 was formalized in 1667, contributing to the Second Anglo–Dutch War. In 1673 the Dutch re-took the area, but later relinquished it under the 1674 Treaty of Westminster ending the Third Anglo-Dutch War.

The inhabitants of New Netherland were Native Americans, Europeans, and Africans, the latter chiefly imported as enslaved laborers. Descendants of the original settlers played a prominent role in colonial America. For two centuries New Netherland Dutch culture characterized the region (today's Capital District around Albany, the Hudson Valley, western Long Island, northeastern New Jersey, and New York City). The concepts of civil liberties and pluralism introduced in the province became mainstays of American political and social life.

Slave trade

Main articles: History of Aruba, History of Curaçao, History of Saint Martin, and History of Suriname

Although slavery was illegal inside the Netherlands it flourished in the Dutch Empire, and helped support the economy.[64] In 1619 The Netherlands took the lead in building a large-scale slave trade between Africa and Virginia, by 1650 becoming the pre-eminent slave trading country in Europe. It was overtaken by Britain around 1700.

Historians agree that in all the Dutch shipped about 550,000 African slaves across the Atlantic, about 75,000 of whom died on board before reaching their destinations. From 1596–1829, the Dutch traders sold 250,000 slaves in the Dutch Guianas, 142,000 in the Dutch Caribbean islands, and 28,000 in Dutch Brazil.[65] In addition, tens of thousands of slaves, mostly from India and some from Africa, were carried to the Dutch East Indies[66] and slaves from the East Indies to Africa and the West Indies.

The Dutch in Asia



Logo of the Dutch East India Company (*Vereenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie* or "VOC" in Dutch, literally "United East Indian Company").

Main articles: Dutch East India Company and Dutch East Indies

The Dutch East India Company (*Vereenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie* or *VOC* in Dutch, literally *"United East Indian Company"*) was a chartered company established in 1602, when the States-General of the Netherlands granted it a 21-year monopoly to carry out colonial activities in Asia. It was the first multinational corporation in the world and the first company to issue stock.[67] It was also arguably the world's first megacorporation, possessing quasi-governmental powers, including the ability to wage war, imprison and execute convicts,[68] negotiate treaties, coin money, and establish colonies.[69]

Statistically, the VOC eclipsed all of its rivals in the Asia trade. Between 1602 and 1796 the VOC sent almost a million Europeans to work in the Asia trade on 4,785 ships, and netted for their efforts more than 2.5 million tons of Asian trade goods. By contrast, the rest of Europe combined sent only 882,412 people from 1500 to 1795, and the fleet of the English (later British) East India Company, the VOC's nearest competitor, was a distant second to its total traffic with 2,690 ships and a mere one-fifth the tonnage of goods carried by the VOC. The VOC enjoyed huge profits from its spice monopoly through most of the 17th century.[70]

Having been set up in 1602, to profit from the Malukan spice trade, in 1619 the VOC established a capital in the port city of Batavia (now Jakarta). Over the next two centuries the Company acquired additional ports as trading bases and safeguarded their interests by taking over surrounding territory.[71] It remained an important trading concern and paid an 18% annual dividend for almost 200 years. Weighed down by corruption in the late 18th century, the Company went bankrupt and was formally dissolved in 1800,[72] its possessions and the debt being taken over by the government of the Dutch Batavian Republic. The VOC's territories became the Dutch East Indies and were expanded over the course of the 19th century to include the whole of the Indonesian archipelago, and in the 20th century would form Indonesia.



Dutch Batavia built in what is now Jakarta, by Andries Beeckman ca. 1656

The Dutch in Africa

Main articles: History of Cape Colony before 1806, History of South Africa (1652–1815), Afrikaners, and Afrikaans

In 1647, a Dutch vessel was wrecked in the present-day Table Bay at Cape Town. The marooned crew, the first Europeans to attempt settlement in the area, built a fort and stayed for a year until they were rescued. Shortly thereafter, the Dutch East India Company (in the Dutch of the day: *Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie*, or VOC) decided to establish a permanent settlement. The VOC, one of the major European trading houses sailing the spice route to the East, had no intention of colonising the area, instead wanting only to establish a secure base camp where

passing ships could shelter, and where hungry sailors could stock up on fresh supplies of meat, fruit, and vegetables. To this end, a small VOC expedition under the command of Jan van Riebeeck reached Table Bay on 6 April 1652.[73]



Painting of an account of the arrival of Jan van Riebeeck, by Charles Bell.

To remedy a labour shortage, the VOC released a small number of VOC employees from their contracts and permitted them to establish farms with which they would supply the VOC settlement from their harvests. This arrangement proved highly successful, producing abundant supplies of fruit, vegetables, wheat, and wine; they also later raised livestock. The small initial group of "free burghers", as these farmers were known, steadily increased in number and began to expand their farms further north and east.

The majority of burghers had Dutch ancestry and belonged to the Calvinist Reformed Church of the Netherlands, but there were also numerous Germans as well as some Scandinavians. In 1688 the Dutch and the Germans were joined by French Huguenots, also Calvinists, who were fleeing religious persecution in France under King Louis XIV. The Huguenots in South Africa were absorbed into the Dutch population but they played a prominent role in South Africa's history.

From the beginning the VOC used the Cape as a place to supply ships travelling between the Netherlands and the Dutch East Indies. There was a close association between the Cape and these Dutch possessions in the far east. Van Riebeeck and the VOC began to import large numbers of slaves, primarily from Madagascar and Indonesia. These slaves often married Dutch settlers, and their descendants became known as the Cape Coloureds and the Cape Malays.

During the 18th century, the Dutch settlement in the area of the Cape grew and prospered. By the late 1700s the Cape Colony was one of the best developed European settlements outside Europe or the Americas.[74] The two bases of the Cape Colony's economy for almost the entirety of its history were shipping and agriculture. Its strategic position meant that almost every ship sailing between Europe and Asia stopped off at the colony's capital Cape Town. The supplying of these ships with fresh provisions, fruit, and wine provided a very large market for the surplus produce of the colony.[74]



De Tafelbaai by Aernout Smit, 1683

Some free burghers continued to expand into the rugged hinterlands of the north and east, many began to take up a semi-nomadic pastoralist lifestyle, in some ways not far removed from that of the Khoikhoi they had displaced. In addition to its herds, a family might have a wagon, a tent, a Bible, and a few guns. As they became more settled, they would build a mud-walled cottage, frequently located, by choice, days of travel from the nearest European settlement. These were the first of the Trekboers (Wandering Farmers, later shortened to Boers), completely independent of official controls, extraordinarily self-sufficient, and isolated from the government and the main settlement in Cape Town.

Dutch was the official language, but a dialect had formed that was quite distinct from Dutch. The Afrikaans language originated mainly from 17th century Dutch dialects.[75][76]

This Dutch dialect, sometimes referred to as the "kitchen language" (*kombuistaal*),[77] would eventually in the late 19th century be recognised as a distinct language called Afrikaans and replace Dutch as the official language of the Afrikaners.


An account of the first trekboers.

As the 18th century drew to a close, Dutch mercantile power began to fade and the British moved in to fill the vacuum. They seized the Cape Colony in 1795 to prevent it from falling into French hands, then briefly relinquished it back to the Dutch (1803), before definitively conquering it in 1806. British sovereignty of the area was recognised at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. By the time the Dutch colony was seized by the British in 1806, it had grown into an established settlement with 25,000 slaves, 20,000 white colonists, 15,000 Khoisan, and 1,000 freed black slaves. Outside Cape Town and the immediate hinterland, isolated black and white pastoralists populated the country.

Dutch interest in South Africa was mainly as a strategically located VOC port. Yet in the 17th and 18th centuries the Dutch created the foundation of the modern state of South Africa. The Dutch legacy in South Africa is evident everywhere, but particularly in the Afrikaner people and the Afrikaans language.

Dutch Republic: Regents and Stadholders (1649–1784)

Main article: Dutch Republic


'Skating fun' by 17th century Dutch painter Hendrick Avercamp.

The Netherlands gained independence from Spain as a result of the Eighty Years War, during which the Dutch Republic was founded. As the Netherlands was a republic, it was largely governed by an aristocracy of city-merchants called the regents, rather than by a king. Every city and province had its own government and laws, and a large degree of autonomy. After attempts to find a competent sovereign proved unsuccessful, it was decided that sovereignty would be vested in the various provincial Estates, the governing bodies of the provinces. The Estates-General, with its representatives from all the provinces, would decide on matters important to the Republic as a whole. However, at the head of each province was the stadtholder of that province, a position held by a descendant of the House of Orange. Usually the stadtholdership of several provinces was held by a single man.

After having gained its independence in 1648, the Netherlands tried in various coalitions to help to contain France, which had replaced Spain as the strongest nation of Europe. The end of the War of the Spanish Succession (1713) marked the end of the Dutch Republic as a major player. In the 18th century, it just tried to maintain its independence and stuck to a policy of neutrality.

The Netherlands sheltered many notable refugees, including Flemish Protestants, Portuguese and German Jews, French Protestants (Huguenots) (including Descartes) and English Dissenters (including the Pilgrim Fathers). Many immigrants came to the cities of Holland in the 17th and 18th century from the Protestant parts of Germany and elsewhere. The amount of first generation immigrants from outside the Netherlands in Amsterdam was nearly 50% in the 17th and 18th century. Indeed, Amsterdam's population consisted primarmily of immigrants, if one includes second and third generation immigrants and migrants from the Dutch countryside. People in most parts of Europe were poor and many were unemployed. But in Amsterdam there was always work. Tolerance was important, because a continuous influx of immigrants was necessary for the economy. Travellers visiting Amsterdam reported their surprise at the lack of control over the influx.



Anonymous 17th-century watercolor of the *Semper Augustus*, famous for being the most expensive tulip sold during the tulip mania.

Amsterdam

Main article: History of Amsterdam

By the mid-1660s Amsterdam had reached the optimum population (about 200,000) for the level of trade, commerce and agriculture then available to support it. The city contributed the largest quota in taxes to the States of Holland which in turn contributed over half the quota to the States General. Amsterdam was also one of the most reliable in settling tax demands and therefore was able to use the threat to withhold such payments to good effect.[78]

Amsterdam was governed by a body of regents, a large, but closed, oligarchy with control over all aspects of the city's life, and a dominant voice in the foreign affairs of Holland. Only men with sufficient wealth and a long enough residence within the city could join the ruling class. The first step for an ambitious and wealthy merchant family was to arrange a marriage with a long-established regent family. In the 1670s one such union, that of the Trip family (the Amsterdam branch of the Swedish arms makers) with the son of Burgomaster Valckenier, extended the influence and patronage available to the latter and strengthened his dominance of the council. The oligarchy in Amsterdam thus gained strength from its breadth and openness. In the smaller towns family interest could unite members on policy decisions but contraction through intermarriage could lead to the degeneration of the quality of the members.

In Amsterdam the network was so large that members of the same family could be related to opposing factions and pursue widely separated interests. The young men who had risen to positions of authority in the 1670s and 1680s consolidated their hold on office well into the 1690s and even the new century.[79]



Dam Square in the late 17th century: painting by Gerrit Adriaenszoon Berckheyde (Gemäldegalerie, Dresden)

Amsterdam's regents provided good services to residents. They spent heavily on the water-ways and other essential infrastructure, as well as municipal almshouses for the elderly, hospitals and churches.

Amsterdam's wealth was generated by its commerce, which was in turn sustained by the judicious encouragement of entrepreneurs whatever their origin. This open door policy has been interpreted as proof of a tolerant ruling class. But toleration was practiced for the convenience of the city. Therefore the wealthy Sephardic Jews from Portugal were welcomed and accorded all privileges except those of citizenship, but the poor Ashkenazi Jews from Eastern Europe were far more carefully vetted and those who became dependent on the city were encouraged to move on. Similarly, provision for the housing of Huguenot immigrants was made in 1681 when Louis XIV's religious policy was beginning to drive these Protestants out of France; no encouragement was given to the dispossessed Dutch from the countryside or other towns of Holland. The regents encouraged immigrants to build churches and provided sites or buildings for churches and temples for all but the most radical sects and the native Catholics by the 1670s (although even the Catholics could practice quietly in a chapel within the Beguinhof).[80]

First Stadtholderless Period and the Anglo-Dutch Wars (1650–1674)

Main articles: First Stadtholderless Period and Anglo-Dutch Wars



Johan de Witt (born 1625, died 1672), Grand Pensionary of Holland, painted between 1643-1700 after Jan de Baen

In 1650, the stadtholder William II, Prince of Orange suddenly died of smallpox; his son, the later stadtholder and subsequent king of England, William III, was born only eight days later, hence leaving the nation without an obvious successor. Since the conception of the Republic, there had been an ongoing struggle for power between the regents, an informal elite of affluent citizens on the one hand and the House of Orange on the other hand, whose supporters, Orangists, were mainly to be found among the common people. For now, the regents seized the opportunity: there would be no new stadtholder (in Holland) for 22 years to come. Johan de Witt, a brilliant politician and diplomat, emerged as the dominant figure.

Princes of Orange became the stadtholder and an almost hereditary ruler in 1672 and 1748. The Dutch Republic of the United Provinces was a true republic only from 1650–1672 and 1702–1748. These periods are called the First Stadtholderless Period and Second Stadtholderless Period.

The Republic and England were major rivals in world trade and naval power. Halfway through the 17th century the Republic's navy was the most powerful navy in the world.[81] The Republic fought several wars against England in the second half of the 17th century.

In the year 1651, England imposed its first Navigation Act, which severely hurt Dutch trade interests. An incident at sea concerning the Act resulted in the First Anglo-Dutch War, which lasted from 1652 to 1654, ending in the Treaty of Westminster (1654), which left the Navigation Act in effect.

After the English Restoration, Charles II tried to serve his dynastic interests by attempting to make Prince William III of Orange, his nephew, stadtholder of The Republic, using some military pressure. This led to a surge of patriotism in England, the country being, as Samuel Pepys put it, "mad for war".



"The Second Day of the Four Day Battle of 1666"

The Second Anglo-Dutch War, started in 1665, were marked by a number of great English victories, such as James II's taking of the Dutch colony of New Netherland (present day New York). There were also Dutch victories, such as the capture of the *Prince Royal* during the Four Days Battle in 1666, an event that was the subject of a famous painting by Willem van de Velde. However, the Raid on the Medway, in June 1667, ended the war with a Dutch victory. A flotilla of ships led by Admiral de Ruyter broke through the defensive chains guarding the Medway, burned part of the English fleet docked at Chatham and towed away the Unity and the Royal Charles, pride and normal flagship of the English fleet. The greatly expanded Dutch navy was for numerous years after the world's strongest. The Dutch Republic was at the zenith of its power.

Franco-Dutch War and Third Anglo-Dutch War (1672–1702)

Main articles: Franco-Dutch War, Rampjaar, and Third Anglo-Dutch War

The year 1672 is known in the Netherlands as the "Disaster Year" (*Rampjaar*). England declared war on the Republic, (the Third Anglo-Dutch War), followed by France, Münster and Cologne, which had all signed alliances against the Republic. France, Cologne and Münster invaded the Republic. Johan de Witt and his brother Cornelis, who had accomplished a diplomatic balancing act for a long time, were now the obvious scapegoats. They were lynched, and a



Willem III, Prince of Orange, born 1650, died 1702, reigned as William III of England from 1689 to 1702 after the Glorious Revolution

new stadtholder, William III, was appointed. ` An Anglo-French attempt to land on the Dutch shore could only just be repelled in three desperate naval battles under command of admiral Michiel de Ruyter. The advance of French troops from the south could only be halted by a costly inundation of its own heart land, by breaching river dykes. With the aid of friendly German princes, the Dutch succeeded in fighting back Cologne and Münster, after which the peace was signed with both of them, although some territory in the east was lost for ever. Peace was signed with England as well, in 1674 (Second Treaty of Westminster (1674)). In 1678, peace was made with France, although its Spanish and German allies felt betrayed by them signing the Treaty of Nijmegen.

In 1688, the relations with England reached crisis level once again. Stadtholder William III decided he had to take a huge gamble when he was invited to invade England by Protestant British nobles feuding with William's father-in-law the Catholic James II of England. This led to the Glorious Revolution and cemented the principle of parliamentary rule and Protestant ascendency in England. James fled to France and William ascended to the English throne as co-monarch with his wife Mary, James' eldest daughter. This manoeuvre secured England as a critical ally of the United Provinces in its ongoing wars with Louis XIV of France. William was the commander of the Dutch and English armies and fleets until his death in 1702. During Williams reign as King of England his primary focus was leveraging British manpower and finances to aid the Dutch against the French. The combination continued after his death as the combined Dutch, British, and mercenary army conquered Flanders and Brabant, and invaded French territory before the alliance collapsed in 1713 due to British political infighting.

Second Stadtholderless Period (1702–1747)

Main article: Second Stadtholderless Period

The *Second Stadtholderless Period* (Dutch: *Tweede Stadhouderloze Tijdperk*) is the designation in Dutch historiography of the period between the death of stadtholder William III on March 19[82] 1702 and the appointment of William IV, Prince of Orange as stadtholder and captain general in all provinces of the Dutch Republic on 2 May 1747. During this period the office of stadtholder was left vacant in the provinces of Holland, Zeeland, and Utrecht, though in other provinces that office was filled by members of the House of Nassau-Dietz (later called Orange-Nassau) during various periods.



The Inspectors of the Collegium Medicum in Amsterdam, by Cornelis Troost, 1724. This period is known as the "Periwig Era".

During the period the Republic lost its Great-Power status and its primacy in world trade, processes that went hand-in-hand, the latter causing the former. Though the economy declined considerably, causing deindustralization and deurbanization in the maritime provinces, a *rentier*-class kept accumulating a large capital fund that formed the basis for the leading position the Republic achieved in the international capital market. A military crisis at the end of the period caused the fall of the States-Party regime and the restoration of the Stadtholderate in all provinces. However, though the new stadtholder acquired near-dictatorial powers, this did not improve the situation.

Economic decline in the 18th century

After the Dutch fleet declined, merchant interests became dependent on the goodwill of Britain. The main focus of Dutch leaders was reducing the country's considerable budget deficits. Dutch trade and shipping remained at a fairly steady level through the 18th century, but no longer had a near monopoly and also could not match growing English and French competition. The Netherlands lost its position as the trading centre of Northern Europe to London.

Although the Netherlands remained wealthy, investors for the nation's money became more difficult to find. Some investment went into purchases of land for estates, but most went to foreign bonds and Amsterdam remained one of Europe's banking capitals. Dutch culture also declined both in the arts and sciences. Literature (for example) largely imitated English and French styles with little in the way of innovation or originality.

Life for the average Dutchman became slower and more relaxed than in the 18th century. The upper and middle classes continued to enjoy prosperity and high living standards, although laborers remained locked in poverty and hardship. The large underclass of unemployed beggars and riffraff required government and private charity to survive.

Religious life became more relaxed as well. Catholics faced greater tolerance despite still having no part in the political system. They became divided by the feud between Jansenists (who denied free will) and orthodox believers. The former split into a separate body known as the Old Catholic Church. The upper classes willingly embraced the ideas of the Enlightenment, although the liberalism of Dutch society resulted in relatively little hostility to organized religion compared to France.

The Orangist revolution (1747-1751)

Main article: Second Stadtholderless Period



William IV, Prince of Orange, stadholder from 1747-1751

During the term of Anthonie van der Heim as Grand Pensionary from 1737 to 1746, the Republic slowly drifted into the War of Austrian Succession. This started as a Prusso-Austrian conflict, but eventually all the neighbours of the Dutch Republic became involved. On one side were Prussia, France and their allies and on the other Austria, Britain (after 1744) and their allies. At first the Republic strove to remain neutral in this European conflict, but it maintained garrisons in a number of fortresses in the Austrian Netherlands. French grievances and threats spurred the Republic into bring its army up to European standards (84,000 men in 1743).[83]

In 1744 and 1745 the French attacked Dutch fortresses at Menen and Tournai. This prompted the Dutch Republic in 1745 to join the Quadruple Alliance, but this alliance was severely defeated at the Battle of Fontenoy in May 1745. In 1746 the French occupied most of the large cities in the Austrian Netherlands. Then, in April 1747, apparently as an exercise in armed diplomacy, a relatively small French military force occupied Zeelandic Flanders, part of the Dutch Republic.[83]

This relatively innocuous invasion fully exposed the rot underlying the Dutch defences. The consequences were spectacular. Still mindful of the French invasion in the "Disaster Year" of 1672, many fearful people clamored for the restoration of the stadtholderate.[83] William IV, Prince of Orange, had been waiting impatiently in the wings since acquiring his princely title in 1732. Over the next year he and his supporters engaged in a number of political battles in various provinces and towns in the Netherlands to wrest control from the regents. The aim was for William IV to obtain a firm grip on government patronage and place loyal officials in all strategic government positions. Eventually he managed to achieve this aim in all provinces.[83]

William Bentinck, 1st Earl of Portland was a prominent Orangist. People like Bentinck hoped that gathering the reins



Willem V of Orange, stadholder from 1751-1806, and Wilhelmina of Prussia with three of their five children. From left to right: the future William I of the Netherlands, Frederick, and Frederica Louise Wilhelmina.

of power in the hands of a single "eminent head" would soon help restore the state of the Dutch economy and finances. The regents they opposed included the Grand Pensionary Jacob Gilles and Adriaen van der Hoop. This popular revolt had religious, anti-Catholic and democratic overtones and sometimes involved mob violence. It eventually involved political agitation by Daniel Raap, Rousset de Missy and the Doelisten, attacks on tax farmers (pachtersoproer), religious agitation for enforcement of the Sabbath laws and preference for followers of Gisbertus Voetius and various demands by the civil militia.[83]

The war against the French was itself brought to a not-too-devastating end for the Dutch Republic with the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). The French retreated of their own accord from the Dutch frontier. William IV died unexpectedly, at the age of 40, on 22 October 1751.[83]

Regency and indolent rule (1752-1779)

His son, William V, was only 3 years old when his father died, and a long regency characterised by corruption and misrule began. His mother delegated most of the powers of the regency to Bentinck and her favorite, Duke Louis Ernest of Brunswick-Lüneburg. All power was concentrated in the hands of an unaccountable few, including the Frisian nobleman Douwe Sirtema van Grovestins.[83] Still a teenager, William V assumed the position of stadtholder in 1766, the last to hold that office. In 1767, he married Princess Wilhelmina of Prussia, the daughter of Augustus William of Prussia, niece of Frederick the Great.

The position of the Dutch during the American War of Independence was one of neutrality. William V, leading the pro-British faction within the government, blocked attempts by pro-independence, and later pro-French, elements to drag the government to war. However, things came to a head with the Dutch attempt to join the Russian-led League of Armed Neutrality, leading to the outbreak of the disastrous Fourth Anglo-Dutch War in 1780. After the signing of the Treaty of Paris (1783), the impoverished nation grew restless under William's rule.

An English historian summed him up uncharitably as "a Prince of the profoundest lethargy and most abysmal stupidity."[84] And yet he would guide his family through the difficult French-Batavian period and his son would be crowned king.

Fourth Anglo-Dutch War (1780-1784)

Main article: Fourth Anglo-Dutch War



Battle of Dogger Bank (1781), by Thomas Luny

The Fourth Anglo–Dutch War (1780–1784) was a conflict between the Kingdom of Great Britain and the Dutch Republic. The war, tangentially related to the American Revolutionary War, broke out over British and Dutch disagreements on the legality and conduct of Dutch trade with Britain's enemies in that war.

Although the Dutch Republic did not enter into a formal alliance with the United States and their allies, U.S. ambassador (and future President) John Adams managed to establish diplomatic relations with the Dutch Republic, making it the second European country to diplomatically recognize the Continental Congress in April 1782. In October 1782, a treaty of amity and commerce was concluded as well.

Most of the war consisted of a series of largely successful British operations against Dutch colonial economic interests, although British and Dutch naval forces also met once off the Dutch coast. The war ended disastrously for the Dutch and exposed the weakness of the political and economic foundations of the country.[85] The Treaty of Paris (1784), according to Fernand Braudel, "sounded the knell of Dutch greatness."[86]

The French-Batavian period (1785–1815)

Main articles: Batavian revolution, Batavian Republic, and Kingdom of Holland

After the war with the Great Britain ended disastrously in 1784, there was growing unrest and a rebellion by the anti-Oranist Patriots. The French Revolution resulted first in the establishment of a pro-French Batavian Republic (1795–1806), then the creation of the Kingdom of Holland, ruled by a member of the House of Bonaparte (1806–1810), and finally annexation by the French Empire (1810–1813).

Patriot rebellion and its suppression (1785–1795)



Firefight on the Vaartse Rijn at Jutphaas on 9 May 1787. The pro-revolutionary Utrecht Patriots are on the right; the troops of stadholder William V, Prince of Orange on the left. Painted by Jonas Zeuner, 1787

Influenced by the American Revolution, the Patriots sought a more democratic form of government. The opening shot of this revolution was the 1781 publication of a manifesto called "*Aan het Volk van Nederland*" (*To the People of the Netherlands*) by Joan van der Capellen tot den Pol, the founder of the Patriots. The aim of the Patriots was to reduce corruption and the power held by the stadtholder, William V, Prince of Orange.

Support for the Patriots came mostly from the middle class. They formed a militia called the "Free Corps". In 1785 there was an open rebellion by the Patriots, which took the form of an armed insurrection by local militias in certain Dutch towns, "*Vrijheid*" being the rallying cry. Herman Willem Daendels attempted to organise an overthrow of various municipal governments (vroedschap). The goal was to oust government officials and force new elections. "Seen as a whole this revolution was a string of violent and confused events, accidents, speeches, rumours, bitter enmities and armed confrontations", wrote French historian Fernand Braudel, who saw it as a forerunner of the French Revolution.

In 1785 the stadholder left The Hague and moved his court to Guelders, a province remote from the heart of Dutch political life. In June 1787 his energetic wife Wilhelmina (the sister of Frederick William II of Prussia) tried to travel to The Hague. Outside Schoonhoven, she was stopped by militiamen and taken to a farm near Goejanverwellesluis. Within two days she was forced to return to Nijmegen, an insult not unnoticed in Prussia.

The House of Orange reacted with severity, relying on Prussian troops led by Charles William Ferdinand, Duke of Brunswick and a small contingent of British troops to suppress the rebellion. Dutch banks at this time still held much of the world's capital. Government-sponsored banks owned up to 40% of Great Britain's national debt and there were close connections to the House of Stuart. The stadholder had supported British policies after the American Revolution.

This severe military response overwhelmed the Patriots and put the stadholder firmly back in control. A small unpaid Prussian army was billeted in the Netherlands and supported themselves by looting and extortion. The Free Corps continued urging citizens to resist the government. They distributed pamphlets, formed "Patriot Clubs" and held public demonstrations. The government responded by pillaging those towns where opposition continued. Five leaders were sentenced to death (but fled first). Lynchings also occurred. For a while, no one dared appear in public without an

orange cockade to show their support for Orangism. Many Patriots, perhaps around 40,000 in all, fled to Brabant, France (especially Dunkirk and St. Omer) and elsewhere. However, before long the French became involved in Dutch politics and the tide turned.

Batavian Republic (1795–1806)

Main article: Batavian Republic



Liberty tree erected in Dam Square in Amsterdam, 1795; by H. Numan

Against this background it is not surprising that, after the French Revolution, when the French army invaded and occupied the Netherlands in 1795, the French encountered so little united resistance. William V of Orange fled to England. The Patriots proclaimed the short-lived Batavian Republic, but government was soon returned to stabler and more experienced hands. The Batavian Republic (Dutch: *Bataafse Republiek*) was the successor of the Republic of the United Netherlands. It was proclaimed on 19 January 1795, and ended on 5 June 1806, with the accession of Louis Bonaparte to the throne of the Kingdom of Holland.

Shortly after his flight to England Stadtholder William V sent the Kew Letters in which he gave the Dutch colonies in "safekeeping" to Great Britain and ordered the colonial governors to surrender to the British. This helped put an end to much of the Dutch colonial empire. Guyana and Ceylon never returned to Dutch rule, though other colonies were initially returned by the Treaty of Amiens. The Cape Colony, which had changed hands several times, remained British after 1806. Other colonies, including what is today Indonesia, were returned to the Netherlands under the Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1814. Ten years later there was another treaty—the Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1824.

The new Republic enjoyed widespread support from the Dutch population and was the product of a genuine popular revolution. Nevertheless, it clearly was founded with the armed support of the revolutionary French Republic. The Batavian Republic became a client state, first of that "sister-republic", and later of the French Empire of Napoleon Bonaparte, and its politics were deeply influenced by the French. Nevertheless, the process of creating a written Dutch constitution was mainly driven by internal political factors, not by French influence—until Napoleon forced the Dutch government to accept his brother as monarch.



Coat of arms of the Batavian Republic

The political, economic and social reforms that were brought about during the relatively short duration of the Batavian Republic had a lasting impact. The confederal structure of the old Dutch Republic was permanently replaced by a unitary state. The constitution adopted in 1798 had a genuinely democratic character (despite the fact that it was pushed through after a coup d'état). For a while the Republic was governed democratically, though the coup d'état of 1801 put an authoritarian regime in power, after another change in constitution. A type of ministerial government was introduced for the first time in Dutch history and many of the current government departments date their history back to this period.

Though the Batavian Republic was a client state, its successive governments tried their best to maintain a modicum of independence and to serve Dutch interests even where those clashed with those of their French overseers. This perceived obduracy led to the eventual demise of the Republic when the short-lived experiment with the (again authoritarian) regime of Grand Pensionary Rutger Jan Schimmelpenninck was insufficient docile in Napoleon's eyes.

Kingdom of Holland and annexation by the French Empire (1806–1815)

Main article: Kingdom of Holland

In 1806 Napoleon restyled the Netherlands (along with a small part of what is now Germany) into the Kingdom of Holland, with his brother Louis (Lodewijk) Bonaparte (1778–1846), on the throne. The new king was unpopular, but he was willing to cross his brother for the benefit of his new kingdom. Napoleon forced his abdication in 1810 and incorporated the Netherlands directly into the French empire, imposing economic controls and conscription of all young men as soldiers.



Administrative divisions of the First French Empire in 1812, illustrating the incorporation of the Netherlands and its internal reorganisation.

On 30 November 1813, the son of former stadholder William V, invited by the Driemanschap (Triumvirate), landed in Scheveningen and was proclaimed by the Driemanschap as William I, Sovereign Prince of the United Netherlands (Dutch: *Soeverein Vorstendom der Verenigde Nederlanden*).

After the unification in 1815 of the northern Netherlands with the Austrian Netherlands William proclaimed himself king of the United Kingdom of the Netherlands.

United Kingdom of the Netherlands (1816–1839)

Main articles: United Kingdom of the Netherlands and Dutch monarchy

The French occupation of the Dutch Republic ended on the defeat of Napoleon. In a secret convention called the Eight Articles of London, and then later ratified by the Congress of Vienna, the Great Powers agreed on the unification of the Dutch Republic, the Austrian Netherlands (approximately modern-day Belgium) and the former Prince-Bishopric of Liège into a single constitutional monarchy called the United Kingdom of the Netherlands, with the House of Orange-Nassau elevated to royal status and providing the king. A stronger country on France's northern border was considered (especially by the Russian tsar) to be an important part of the strategy to keep France's power in check.

William I, the son of the last stadtholder, William V, was crowned king. He also became the hereditary Grand Duke of Luxembourg. The newly created country had two capitals: Amsterdam and Brussels. Except for the Cape Colony, the Dutch colonies were returned to the Netherlands.

Economy

Griffiths argues that several factors made possible a national economy in the 19th century. They included the abolition of internal tariffs and guilds; the a unified coinage system, modern methods of tax collection; standardized weights and measures; and the building of many roads, canals, and railroads. Although industrialization was slow, the provinces of North Brabant and Overijssel did advance rapidly and became the most advanced economically.[87]

Constitutional monarchy

William I, who reigned from 1815–1840, had almost unlimited constitutional power, the constitution having been written by a number of notable people chosen by him. An enlightened despot, he had no difficulty in accepting some of the changes resulting from the social transformation of the previous 25 years, including equality of all before the law. However, he resurrected the estates as a political class and elevated a large number of people to the nobility. Voting rights were still limited, and only the nobility were eligible for seats in the upper house.

William I was a Calvinist and intolerant of the Catholic majority in the newly created United Kingdom of the Netherlands. He promulgated the "Fundamental Law of Holland", with some modifications. This entirely overthrew

the old order of things in the southern Netherlands, suppressed the clergy as an order, abolished the privileges of the Catholic Church, and guaranteed equal protection to every religious creed and the enjoyment of the same civil and political rights to every subject of the king. It reflected the spirit of the French Revolution, but it did not please the Catholic bishops in the south, who had detested the Revolution.[88]

William I actively promoted economic modernization. His position as monarch was ambivalent, however; his sovereignty was real, but his authority was shared with a legislature elected partly by himself and partly by the wealthy citizens under a constitution granted by the king. Government was in the hands of ministries of state. The old provinces were reestablished in name only. The government was now fundamentally unitary, and all authority flowed from the center.

The first 15 years of the Kingdom showed progress and prosperity, as industrialization proceeded rapidly in the south, where the Industrial Revolution allowed entrepreneurs and labor to combine in a new textile industry, powered by local coal mines. There was little industry in the northern provinces, but most overseas colonies were restored, and highly profitable trade resumed after a 25 year hiatus. Economic liberalism combined with moderate monarchical authoritarianism to accelerate the adaptation of the Netherlands to the new conditions of the 19th century. The country prospered until a crisis arose in relations with the southern provinces.

Belgium breaks away

Protestants were only a quarter of the population, being a majority in the North (population 2 million), but were few among the 3.5 million South-Netherlanders, who were overwhelmingly Catholic. Nevertheless Protestants totally controlled the government and army. The Catholics did not consider themselves an integral part of the united Netherlands, preferring instead to identify with medieval Dutch culture. The French-speaking elite in the southern Netherlands felt like second-class citizens. The primary factors that contributed to this feeling were religious (Protestant North versus Catholic South), economic (the South was industrializing, the North had always been a merchants' nation) and linguistic (the French-speaking South was not just Wallonia, but also extended to the French-speaking bourgeoisie in the Flemish cities).

In the Catholic South,[89] William's policies were unpopular. The French-speaking Walloons strenuously rejected his attempt to make Dutch the universal language of government. Flemings in the south spoke a Dutch dialect ("Flemish") and welcomed the encouragement of Dutch with a revival of literature and popular culture. Other Flemings, notably the educated bourgeoisie, preferred to speak French. Although Catholics possessed legal equality, after centuries as the state church in the south, they resented their subordination to a government that was fundamentally Protestant in spirit and membership. Few Catholics held high office in state or army. Political liberals in the south complained as well about the king's authoritarian methods. All southerners complained of underrepresentation in the national legislature. Although the south was industrializing and was more prosperous than the north the accumulated grievances allowed the multiple opposition forces to coalesce. The outbreak of revolution in France in 1830 was a signal for action, at first on behalf of autonomy for Belgium, as the southern provinces were now called, and later on behalf of total independence. William dithered and his half-hearted efforts to reconquer Belgium were thwarted both by the efforts of the Belgians themselves and by the diplomatic opposition of the great powers.

At the London Conference of 1830–31, the chief powers of Europe ordered (in November, 1830) an armistice between the Dutch and the Belgians. The first draft for a treaty of separation of Belgium and the Netherlands was rejected by the Belgians. A second draft (June, 1831) was rejected by William I, who resumed hostilities. Franco-British intervention forced William to withdraw Dutch forces from Belgium late in 1831, and in 1833 an armistice of indefinite duration was concluded. Belgium was effectively independent but William’s attempts to recover Luxembourg and Limburg led to renewed tension. The London Conference of 1838–39 prepared the final Dutch-Belgian separation treaty of 1839 and divided Luxembourg and Limburg between the Dutch and Belgian crowns. The Kingdom of the Netherlands thereafter was made up of only the 11 northern provinces.[90]

Democratic and Industrial Development (1840-1939)

1848 Constitutional reform

In 1848 unrest broke out all over Europe. Although there were no major events in the Netherlands, these foreign developments persuaded king William II to agree to liberal and democratic reform. That same year the liberal Johan Rudolf Thorbecke was asked by the king to rewrite the constitution, turning the Netherlands into a constitutional monarchy. The new document was proclaimed valid on 3 November of that year. It severely limited the king's powers (making the government accountable only to an elected parliament), and it protected civil liberties. The relationship between monarch, government and parliament has remained essentially unchanged ever since.

The personal union between the Netherlands and Luxembourg ended in 1890 when William III of the Netherlands, the last Dutch male head of state so far, died, as ascendancy rules in Luxembourg prevented a woman from becoming ruling Grand Duchess.

Social change

As in the rest of Europe, the 19th century saw the gradual transformation of the Netherlands into a modern middle-class industrial society. The number of people employed in agriculture decreased while the country made a heroic effort to revive its stake in the highly competitive shipping and trade business. The Netherlands began to develop various industries such as textiles and (later) the great Philips industrial conglomerate. Rotterdam became a major shipping and manufacturing center. Poverty and begging also largely disappeared along with steadily improving working conditions for the population.



Street in Amsterdam in 1891 (Vijzelstreet looking towards Muntplein).

The Netherlands remained one of the most tolerant countries in Europe towards religious belief, although conservative Protestants objected to the liberalization of the Dutch Reformed Church during the 19th century and faced opposition from the government when they tried to establish separate communities (Catholics and other non-Protestants were left unmolested by Dutch authorities). Some moved to the United States as a consequence, but as the century drew to a close, religious persecution had totally ceased.

A number of skilled Impressionist painters emerged, although none achieved international recognition except for Vincent van Gogh, who spent most of his life in France.

During this period the Netherlands also produced a few notable scientists, including Hugo de Vries and Hendrik Lorentz.

Colonial focus

By the end of the 19th century, in the New Imperialism wave of colonisation, the Netherlands extended their hold on Indonesia. In 1860 Multatuli wrote *Max Havelaar*, one of the most notable books in the history of Dutch literature, criticizing the exploitation of the country and its inhabitants by the Dutch, although the indigenous princes as their proxies were not spared either.

The Netherlands had not fought a major military campaign since the Seven Years War, and the strength of its armed forces had gradually dwindled. No longer a significant force in European politics, the country devoted most of its effort to the overseas colonies in Indonesia, where a large, powerful military was not needed to subdue backwards native populations. This resulted in a long, costly campaign against the Indonesian Achin state. The Dutch were unable to defend themselves from the major powers in case of war and therefore chose the policy of neutrality, a choice that



Queen Wilhelmina, queen of the Netherlands from 1890 to 1948.

would influence the Dutch involvement in the wars to come.[91]

Neutrality during the First World War

Marshal Count Alfred von Schlieffen designed the Schlieffen Plan in 1905, a plan to invade France while passing through neutral Belgium and neutral Netherlands. In 1908, Von Schlieffen's successor Helmuth von Moltke the Younger changed the plan, and chose not to invade the Netherlands in case of war but instead to conserve Dutch neutrality, the simple reason being that the Netherlands supplied many goods to Germany and would be a vast resource of raw materials such as rubber, tin, quinine and oil, and of course food, all of which came through the port of Rotterdam. Some 50% of Dutch agricultural imports before 1916 came through Rotterdam. In 1917, the United States joined the war, and the Dutch suffered from the blockade but less to than Germany. Therefore the economic importance of Dutch neutrality was lost.[91]



Electrified fence along the border between the Netherlands and Belgium during the First World War.

However, there were other factors that made it valuable for both the Allies and the Central Powers for the Netherlands to remain neutral. The Netherlands controlled the mouths of the Scheldt, the Rhine and the Meuse Rivers. Germany had an interest in the Rhine since it ran through the industrial areas of the Ruhr and connected it with the Dutch port of Rotterdam. Britain had an interest in the Scheldt River, and the Meuse flowed into France. All countries had an interest in keeping the others out of the Netherlands so that no one's interests could be taken away or be changed. If one country were to have invaded the Netherlands, another would certainly have counterattacked to defend their own interest in the rivers. It was too big a risk for any of the belligerent nations, and none wanted to risk fighting on another front.[91]

Nevertheless, the Dutch were affected by the war. Troops were mobilized and conscription was introduced in the face of harsh criticism from opposition parties. In 1918, mutinies broke out in the military. Food shortages were extensive, due to the control the belligerents exercised over the Dutch. Each wanted their share of Dutch produce. As a result, the price of potatoes rose sharply because Britain had demanded so much from the Dutch. Food riots even broke out in the country.[91]

A big problem was smuggling. When Germany had conquered Belgium, the Allies saw it as enemy territory and stopped exporting to Belgium. Food became scarce for the Belgian people, since the Germans seized all food. This gave the Dutch the opportunity to start to smuggle. This, however, caused great problems in the Netherlands, including inflation and further food shortages. The Allies demanded that the Dutch stop the smuggling, and the government took measures to remain neutral. The government placed many cities under 'state of siege'. On 8 January 1916, a five-kilometre zone was created by the government along the border. In that zone, goods could only be moved on main roads with a permit.[91] In addition, an electrified fence was erected all along the Belgian – Dutch border that caused many fugitives to lose their lives.

Interwar period



The Afsluitdijk, the dike closing off the Zuiderzee, was constructed between 1927 and 1933. Public works projects like this were one way to deal with high unemployment during the Great Depression.

Main article: Great Depression in the Netherlands

Although both houses of the Dutch parliament were elected by the people, only men with high incomes were eligible to vote until 1917, when pressure from socialist movements resulted in elections in which all men were allowed to vote. In 1919 women also obtained the right to vote.

The worldwide Great Depression of 1929 and the early 1930s had crippling effects on the Dutch economy, lasting longer than in most other European countries. The long duration of the Great Depression in the Netherlands is often explained by the very strict fiscal policy of the Dutch government at the time, and its decision to adhere to the Gold Standard for much longer than most of its trading partners. The depression led to high unemployment and widespread poverty, as well as increasing social unrestn

The rise of Nazism in Germany did not go unnoticed in the Netherlands, and there was growing concern at the possibility of armed conflict, but most Dutch citizens expected that Germany would again respect Dutch neutrality.

The Second World War (1939-1945)

Main articles: History of the Netherlands (1939–1945) and Netherlands in World War II

Nazi invasion and occupation

Main articles: Battle of the Netherlands and Rotterdam Blitz

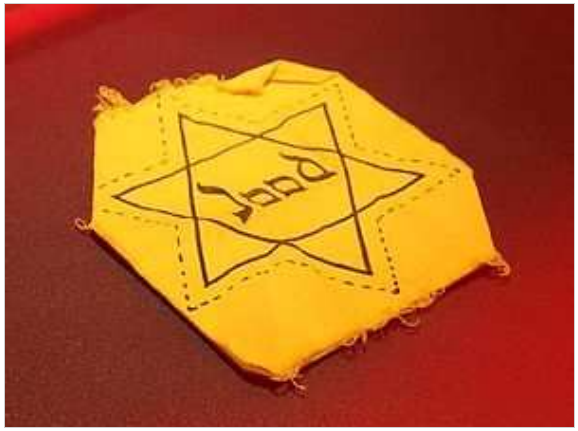
At the outbreak of World War II in 1939, the Netherlands once again declared its neutrality. However, on 10 May 1940, Nazi Germany launched an attack on the Netherlands and Belgium and quickly overran most of the country. Fighting against the Dutch army proved more of a burden than foreseen; the northern attack was stopped dead, the one in the middle came to a grinding halt near the Grebbeberg and many airborne assault troops were killed and taken prisoner in the west of the country. More than 2,000 of General Student's elite troops were brought as POWs to England; Student himself was shot and taken out of action for years. Only in the south, defenses broke but the one passage over the river Maas at Rotterdam was held by the Dutch. By May 14, fighting in many locations had ceased and the German army could make little or no headway, So the Luftwaffe bombed Rotterdam, second largest city of the Netherlands, killing about 900 people, destroying the inner city and leaving 78,000 people homeless.



Rotterdam was destroyed by German bombers on 14 May 1940. 814 people died in the Rotterdam Blitz.

Following the bombing and German threats of the same treatment for Utrecht, the Netherlands capitulated on 15 May, except for the province of Zeeland where French and French Moroccan troops stood side by side with the Dutch forces. Still, the royal family and some armed forces fled to the United Kingdom. Some members of the royal family eventually moved to Ottawa, Canada until the Netherlands was liberated; Princess Margriet was born in Canadian exile.

Holocaust in the Netherlands



Yellow Star of David with the Dutch word for "Jew".

About 140,000 Jews lived in the Netherlands at the beginning of the war. Persecution of Dutch Jews started shortly after the occupation. At the end of the war, only 40,000 Jews were still alive. Of the 100,000 Jews who did not go in to hiding, only about 1,000 survived the war.

One who perished was Anne Frank, who gained worldwide fame posthumously when her diary, written in the *achterhuis* ('backhouse') while hiding from the Nazis, was found and published by her father, Otto Frank, the only survivor of the family.

Resistance and collaboration

Main article: Dutch resistance

Resentment of the Germans grew as the occupation became more harsh, prompting many Dutch in the latter years of the war to join the resistance. But collaboration was not uncommon either; many thousands of young Dutch males volunteered for combat service on the Russian Front with the Waffen-SS and many companies worked for the Germans.


Identification papers issued to Dutch people during the war.

The war in the Dutch East Indies

Main article: Dutch East Indies campaign

On 8 December 1941, the day after the attack on Pearl Harbor, the Netherlands declared war on Japan.[92] The Dutch government in exile in London had for long been working with London and with Washington to cut off oil supplies to Japan. Japanese forces invaded the Dutch East Indies on 11 January 1942. The Dutch surrendered March 8 after Japanese troops landed on Java. Dutch citizens and everybody with Dutch ancestry, the so-called "Indo's" were captured and put to work in labour camps or interned. As in the homeland, many Dutch ships, planes and military personnel managed to reach safe territory, in this case Australia, from where they were able to fight again.

False hopes and the Hunger Winter

In Europe, after the Allies landed in Normandy in June 1944, progress was slow until the Battle of Normandy ended in August 1944. German resistance collapsed in western Europe and the allied armies advanced quickly towards the Dutch border. The First Canadian Army and the Second British Army conducted operations on Dutch soil from September onwards. On 17 September a daring operation, Operation Market Garden, was executed with the goal of capturing bridges across three major rivers in the southern Netherlands. Despite desperate fighting by American, British and Polish forces, the bridge at Arnhem, across the Neder Rijn, could not be captured.

Areas south of the Rhine river were liberated in the period September–December 1944, including the province of Zeeland, which was liberated in October and November in the Battle of the Scheldt. This opened Antwerp to allied shipping. The First Canadian Army held a static line along the river Meuse (Maas) from December 1944 through February 1945.

The rest of the country remained occupied until the spring of 1945. In the face of Dutch defiance the Nazis

deliberately cut off food supplies resulting in near-starvation in the cities during the *Hongerwinter* (Hunger winter) of 1944–45. Soup kitchens were set up but many fragile people died.[93] A few days before the Allied victory the Germans allowed emergency shipments of food.

Liberation

The First Canadian Army launched Operation Veritable in early February, cracking the Siegfried Line and reaching the banks of the Rhine in early March. In the final weeks of the war in Europe, the First Canadian Army was charged with clearing the Netherlands of German forces.


Liberation celebration

The Liberation of Arnhem began on 12 April 1945 and proceeded to plan, as the three infantry brigades of the 49th Division leapfrogged each other through the city. Within four days Arnhem, now a ruined city, was totally under Allied control.[94]

The Canadians then advanced immediately further into the country, encountering and defeating a German counterattack at Otterlo and Dutch SS resistance at Ede. On 27 April a temporary truce came into effect, allowing the distribution of food aid to the starving Dutch civilians in areas under German control (Operation Manna). On 5 May 1945, Generaloberst Blaskowitz agreed to the unconditional surrender of all German forces in the Netherlands, signing the surrender to Canadian general Charles Foulkes at Wageningen.[95] (The fifth of May is now celebrated annually in the Netherlands as Liberation Day.) Three days later Germany unconditionally surrendered, bringing the war in Europe to a close.

Immediate aftermath

After the euphoria and settling of scores had ended, the Dutch were a traumatized people with a ruined economy, a shattered infrastructure and several destroyed cities (including Rotterdam, Nijmegen, Arnhem and part of The Hague.

Artur Seyss-Inquart, Nazi Commissioner of the Netherlands, was tried at Nüremberg.

In the early post-war years the Netherlands made continued attempts to expand its territory by annexing neighbouring German territory. The larger annexation plans were continuously rejected by the United States, but the London conference of 1949 permitted the Netherlands to perform a smaller scale annexation. Most of the annexed territory was returned to Germany on 1 August 1963.[96]

Operation Black Tulip was a plan in 1945 by Dutch minister of Justice Kolfschoten to evict all Germans from the Netherlands. The operation lasted from 1946 to 1948 and in the end 3691 Germans (15% of Germans resident in the Netherlands) were deported.[97] The operation started on 10 September 1946 in Amsterdam, where Germans and their families were taken from their homes in the middle of the night and given one hour to collect 50 kg of luggage. They were allowed to take 100 guilders. The rest of their possessions went to the state. They were taken to concentration camps near the German border, the biggest of which was Mariënbosch near Nijmegen.[98]

Prosperity and European Unity (1946-today)

Flooding and flood control



A town in Zuid Bevelandinundated in 1953.

The last major flood in the Netherlands took place in early February 1953, when a huge storm caused the collapse of several dikes in the southwest of the Netherlands. More than 1,800 people drowned in the ensuing inundations. The Dutch government subsequently decided on a large-scale programme of public works (the "Delta Works") to protect the country against future flooding. The project took more than thirty years to complete. According to Dutch government engineers, the odds of a major inundation anywhere in the Netherlands are now one in 10,000 years. Following the disaster with hurricane Katrina in 2005, an American congressional delegation visited the Netherlands to inspect the Delta Works and Dutch government engineers were invited to a hearing of the United States Congress to explain the Netherlands' efforts to protect low-lying areas.

Europeanisation

The European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC), was founded in 1951 by the six founding members: Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg (the Benelux countries) and West Germany, France and Italy. Its purpose was to pool the steel and coal resources of the member states, and to support the economies of the participating countries. As a side effect, the ECSC helped defuse tensions between countries which had recently been enemies in the war. In time this economic merger grew, adding members and broadening in scope, to become the European Economic Community, and later the European Union. In recent years the Dutch have often been a driving force behind the integration of European countries in the European Union. It participated in the introduction of the euro in 1999.

Decolonisation and multiculturalism

By the first half of the Twentieth Century, new organizations and leadership had developed in the Dutch East Indies. Under its Ethical Policy, the Netherlands had helped create an educated Indonesian elite. These profound changes constituted the "Indonesian National Revival". Increased political activism and Japanese occupation undermining Dutch rule culminated in nationalists proclaiming independence on 17 August 1945, two days after the surrender of Japan[99]



Arrival of the vessel "Castel Felice" with "Indos" (Dutch-Indonesian Eurasians) on the Lloydkade in Rotterdam, The Netherlands, 20 May 1958.

The Dutch East Indies had long been a valuable resource to the Netherlands, so the Dutch feared its independence. The Indonesian National Revolution followed as Indonesia attempted to secure its independence in the face of Dutch diplomatic and military opposition (sometimes brutal in nature). Increasing international pressure eventually led the Netherlands to withdraw and it formally recognised Indonesian independence on 27 December 1949.[100] The western part of New Guinea, remained under Dutch control as Netherlands New Guinea until 1961, when the Netherlands transferred sovereignty of this area to Indonesia.

During and after the Indonesian National Revolution, around 300,000 people, pre-dominantly "Indos" (Dutch-Indonesian Eurasians), left Indonesia for the Netherlands. This difficult, complex and messy mass migration was called repatriation, but the majority of this group had never set foot in the Netherlands before. This migration occurred in five distinct waves over a period of 20 years. It included Indos (many of whom spent the war years in Japanese concentration camps), former South Moluccan soldiers and their families, "New-Guinea Issue" Dutch citizens, Dutch citizens from Netherlands New Guinea (including Papuan civil servants and their families), and other Indos who had remained behind but later regretted their decision to take out Indonesian citizenship (called *spijtoptanten* in Dutch and *warga negara* in Indonesian).[101][102][103]

The Indo community (now numbering around 680,000) is the largest minority group in the Netherlands. They are integrated into Dutch society, but they have also retained many aspects of their culture and have added a distinct Indonesian flavour to the Netherlands.[104]

Although it was originally expected that the loss of the Dutch East Indies would contribute to an economic decline, the Dutch economy experienced exceptional growth (partly because a disproportionate amount of Marshall Aid was received) in the 1950s and 60s. In fact, the demand for labour was so strong that immigration was actively encouraged, first from Italy and Spain then later on, in larger numbers, from Turkey and Morocco.

Suriname was decolonised on 25 November 1975, this time encouraged by the Dutch government, partly because it wanted to stem the flow of immigrants from Suriname, partly because the very possession of colonies had become politically embarrassing; however, hundreds of thousands of inhabitants of Suriname voted with their feet against it, creating a Suriname community in the Netherlands, now roughly as large as the population of the motherland.

Because of immigration from the Netherlands Antilles, and from many other parts of the world, the Netherlands became a multicultural country.

Liberalisation

The 60s and 70s were a time of great social and cultural change, such as rapid *ontzuiling* (literally: depillarisation), a term that describes the decay of the old divisions along class and religious lines. Youths, and students in particular, rejected traditional mores, and pushed for change in matters like women's rights, sexuality, disarmament and environmental issues. Today, the Netherlands is regarded as a liberal country, considering its drugs policy and its legalisation of euthanasia. Same-sex marriage has been permitted since 1 April 2001.

Following the election of 1994, in which the Christian-democratic CDA lost a considerable portion of its representatives, the social-liberal Democrats 66 (D66) doubled in size and formed a coalition with the labour party (Netherlands) (PvdA), and the People's Party for Freedom and Democracy (VVD). This purple (government) coalition, so-called because of the mixing of socialist red with liberal blue, marked the first absence of the CDA in decades. During the Purple years, a period lasting until the rise of the populist politician Pim Fortuyn, the government addressed issues previously viewed as taboo under the Christian-influenced cabinet. At this time the Dutch government introduced a series of unprecedented legislations based on a principles of toleration (*gedoogbeleid*). Abortion and euthanasia became decriminalized, while stricter guidelines were set for their implementation. Drug policy, especially in regards to the regulation of marijuana was reformed. Prostitution was legalized, but confined to brothels in which the health and safety of those involved could be properly monitored. With the Same-sex Marriage Act of 2001, the Netherlands became the first country to legalize gay marriage. In addition to social reforms, the Purple coalition also marked a period of remarkable economic prosperity.

Recent politics

The power of the coalition waned with the introduction of List Pim Fortuyn in the Dutch general election of 2002, a populist party, which ran a distinctly anti-immigration and anti-purple campaign, citing "Purple Chaos" (*Puinhopen van Paars*) as the source of the countries economic and social woes. In the first political assassination since the Second World War, Fortuyn was murdered with little over a week left before the election. In the wake of his death, LPF swept the elections, entering parliament with one sixth of the seats, while the PvdA (Labour) lost half of its seats. The ensuing cabinet was formed by CDA, VVD and LPF, led by Prime Minister Jan Peter Balkenende. Though the party succeeded in displacing the rival purple-coalition, without the charismatic figure of Pim Fortuyn at its helm, it proved to be short-lived lasting only 87 days in power.

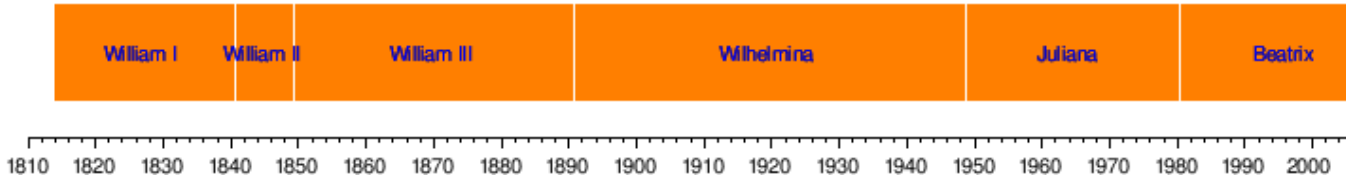
Two events changed the political landscape:

- On 6 May 2002, the assassination of Politician Pim Fortuyn, calling for a very strict policy on immigration, shocked the nation, not at all used to political violence in peace time. His party won a landslide election victory,

partly because of his perceived martyrdom, However, internal party squabbles and blowing up the coalition government they had helped to create, resulted in the loss of 70% of their support in early general elections in 2003.
- Another murder that caused great upheaval took place on 2 November 2004, when film director and publicist Theo van Gogh was assassinated by a Dutch-Moroccan youth with radical Islamic beliefs, because of Van Gogh's alleged blasphemy. One week later, several arrests were made of several would-be Islamist terrorists, who have later been found guilty of conspiracy with terrorist intentions, this verdict was however reversed on appeal. All this sparked a debate on the position of radical Islam and of Islam generally in Dutch society, and on immigration and integration. The personal protection of most politicians, especially of the Islam critic Ayaan Hirsi Ali, was stepped up to unprecedented levels.


Pim Fortuyn (1948–2002)

Dutch monarchs in modern times



Historians

- Julia Adams, economic and social history[105]
- Petrus Johannes Blok, survey[106]
- J. C. H. Blom, survey[107]
- M. R. Boxell, political history[108]
- Pieter Geyl, Dutch revolt; historiography[109]
- Johan Huizinga (1872–1945), cultural history[110]
- Jonathan Israel, Dutch Republic[111]
- Louis De Jong, World War II[112]
- John Lothrop Motley, American historian of the Dutch Revolt[113]
- Jan Romein (1893–1962), theoretical and world history[114]
- Jan de Vries, economic history[115]

See also

- Canon of Dutch History
- Culture of the Netherlands
- Demographics of the Netherlands
- Dutch diaspora
- Dutch East Indies
- Dutch Empire
- Economy of the Netherlands
- Geography of the Netherlands
- History of Belgium
- History of religion in the Netherlands
- History of Europe
- History of Germany
- History of Luxembourg
- List of Prime Ministers of the Netherlands
- List of monarchs of the Netherlands
- Politics of the Netherlands
- Provinces of the Netherlands
- The Netherlands in World War II

Monarchy of the Netherlands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Netherlands** has been an independent monarchy since 16 March 1815, and has been governed by members of the House of Orange-Nassau since.

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Monarch of Kingdom of the Netherlands

MONARCHY
FEDERAL



Coat of arms of the Netherlands



Incumbent:
Beatrix

Style:	Her Majesty
Heir apparent:	Willem-Alexander, Prince of Orange
First monarch:	William I
Formation:	16 March 1815

Constitutional role and position of the monarch

The Kingdom of the Netherlands is a constitutional monarchy. As such, the role and position of the monarch are defined and limited by the constitution of the Netherlands. An obvious consequence of this is that a fairly large portion of the Dutch constitution is devoted to the monarch; all in all, roughly a third of the constitution describes the succession, mechanisms of accession and abdication to the throne, the roles and responsibilities of the monarch and the formalisms of communication between the States-General of the Netherlands and the monarch in the creation of laws.

The constitution refers to the monarch of the Kingdom of the Netherlands as "*The King*".[Cons 1] This is an indication of the role and refers equally to a man or a woman. This practice sometimes carries over into written language in Dutch, when the capitalized word "King" is used to distinguish the role of monarch from the person (who is then referred to as the uncapitalized "king" or

"queen").[nb 1]

Succession, accession, abdication and removal of the King

The cycle of monarchs is described in the first section of Chapter 2 of the constitution (which is dedicated to the government of the Netherlands).

Succession

The monarchy of the Netherlands passes by right of succession to the heirs of William I.[Cons 2] The heir is determined through two mechanisms: absolute cognatic primogeniture and proximity of blood. The Netherlands have followed absolute cognatic primogeniture instead of male primogeniture since 1983. The principle of proximity of blood is used to prevent the accession of a person who is not related to the monarch within three degrees of kinship. For example, the grandchildren of Princess Margriet of the Netherlands have no succession rights because their kinship with Queen Beatrix (her sister, and their great-aunt) is of the fourth degree (that is, the queen is their parent's parent's parents' daughter). Also, succession is limited to legitimate heirs, precluding a claim to the throne by children born out of wedlock.[Cons 3] A special case arises if the male King dies while his queen is still pregnant: the unborn child is considered the heir at that point, unless stillborn — the child is then considered never to have existed, so that proximity of blood can take precedence over primogeniture. This means that if the old king dies while his wife is pregnant with their first child, the unborn child is immediately considered born and immediately becomes the new King. If the pregnancy goes badly and the unborn monarch is stillborn, his or her reign is expunged and proximity of blood will determine which person will be the successor to the *old* king.[Cons 4]

If the monarch is a minor, a regent is appointed and serves until the monarch comes of age.[Cons 5][Cons 6] The regent is customarily the surviving parent of the monarch, but the constitution determines that the custody and parental authority of the minor monarch will be determined by law. This means that another person might also be appointed as regent, as legal guardian or both.[Cons 7]

There are also a number of special cases which the constitution recognizes. First of all, if there is no heir when the monarch dies, the States-General may appoint a successor upon the suggestion of the government. This suggestion may also be made before the death of the reigning monarch, even by the monarch himself (in case it is clear that the monarch will die without leaving an heir).[Cons 8] Second, there are a number of persons who may be excluded from the line of succession. There are two categories of these:

- The heir-apparent who marries without the permission of the States-General loses the right of succession. This is a generalization of the historic law that the King may not marry a Catholic, which was intended to prevent the return of Spanish rule. Currently the rule is intended to prevent truly objectionable royal consorts.[Cons 9]
- A person who has done something to make him undesirable as King can be removed from the line of succession by an act of the States-General, upon the suggestion of the King. This possibility has never been used and is to be seen as an "emergency exit" (for example, in case the heir-apparent sides with an enemy of the Kingdom).[Cons 10]

Accession

As with most monarchies, The Netherlands cannot be without a King (strictly in the constitutional sense; the role of King has been fulfilled by queens since 1890). There must be a head of state in order for the government to function. For this reason, the new King assumes the duties of Kingship the moment that the previous King ceases to hold the throne. The only exception is if there is no heir at all, in which case the Council of State assumes the role of the King pending the appointing of a King or regent.[Cons 1]

The King is expected to execute his duties and responsibilities for the good of the nation. He must therefore swear to uphold the constitution and execute his office faithfully. This swearing-in must occur as soon as possible after the King assumes the throne, before a joint session of the States-General held in Amsterdam. The language of Article 32 of the Dutch constitution speaks of a swearing-in in *"the capital Amsterdam"*, which incidentally is also the only phrase in the constitution that makes Amsterdam the capital of the Kingdom.[Cons 11]

The King is not crowned (there is a physical royal crown for heraldic use, but it is too big for anybody to wear). The monarch's swearing of the oath described

Dutch Royal Family



HM The Queen *

- HRH The Prince of Orange *
  HRH Princess Máxima *
  - HRH Princess Catharina-Amalia *
  - HRH Princess Alexia *

earlier constitutes his acceptance of the position of King. Note though that it is not so that the monarch becomes King by taking this oath: this would imply a vacancy of the throne until the new monarch swears the oath, which is not allowed to occur. The monarch ascends immediately after the previous monarch ceases to reign; the swearing-in only constitutes acceptance in public.

Abdication and removal

The King may cease being King in any of four ways:

Death
: A dead person cannot be King.

Abdication
: A King may willingly step down as King.

Ceding the throne
: The King may temporarily cease executing his office.

Removal from the throne
: The government may remove the King if he is deemed unfit.

The first of these options is obvious. The first two are permanent: a deceased monarch cannot become alive again and an abdicated monarch cannot return (for this reason any children born to the abdicated monarch are not in line for the throne; children born before abdication are[Cons 12]). Both these events cause the regular mechanisms of succession to go into effect.[Cons 12] Interestingly, the constitution considers both permanent possibilities so obvious that they are not explicitly mentioned anywhere. They are both acknowledged, however, in that the constitution describes what happens after the king dies or abdicates; but the possibilities are never explicitly mentioned as causes of the end of a King's reign.

There is only one monarch, so an abdicated monarch becomes a prince or princess once again (and a dead person technically cannot have any titles at all in the Netherlands). However, a deceased monarch (abdicated or not) is customarily referred to again as "king" or "queen". So, for example, Queen Juliana became queen on September 4, 1948 and princess again on April 30, 1980 following her abdication, but has been referred to as Queen Juliana again since her death on March 20, 2004.

The other two occurrences are both temporary and examined in detail in the constitution. A monarch can temporarily cease being King for any reason. This can be at his own request, or because the Council of Ministers deems the monarch unfit for office.[Cons 13][Cons 14] Although there is no limit on reasons for ceding the throne or removal, both the monarch and the Council are deemed to act responsibly and not to leave the country without a King frivolously. Taken in that light, both possibilities of temporary removal of kingship are intended to deal with emergency situations such as physical or mental inability to execute the office of monarch.

Both in case of ceding and removal an act of the joint States-General is needed to strip the monarch of authority. In the case of the monarch ceding the throne, the required act is a law. In case of removal, it is a declaration of the States-General. Procedurally these are the same — both are achieved following the same procedure as is used to pass a new law in the Netherlands.[Cons 13][Cons 14] In case of removal it is not a law, however, since a law requires the signature of the King to come into effect (and presumably the monarch will not agree to being removed).

Since neither ceding nor removal is permanent, neither triggers succession. Instead, the States-General appoint a regent. This must be the heir-apparent, if the heir-apparent is old enough.[Cons 6] In order for the actual monarch to resume his duties, a law must be passed to that effect (which is signed into law by the regent). The monarch resumes the throne the moment the law of his return is made public.[Cons 13][Cons 14]

- HRH Princess Ariane *
- HRH Prince Friso
  HRH Princess Mabel
  - Countess Luana
  - Countess Zaria
- HRH Prince Constantijn *
  HRH Princess Laurentien *
  - Countess Eloise *
  - Count Claus-Casimir *
  - Countess Leonore *

Extended royal family

HRH Princess Irene

- HRH the Duke of Parma
  HRH The Duchess of Parma
- HRH the Countess of Colorno
  Tjalling ten Cate
- HRH the Count of Bardi
- HRH the Marchioness of Sala

HRH Princess Margriet *
Professor Pieter van Vollenhoven *

- HH Prince Maurits *
  HH Princess Marilène *
- HH Prince Bernhard *
  HH Princess Annette *
- HH Prince Pieter-Christiaan
  HH Princess Anita
- HH Prince Floris
  HH Princess Aimée

HRH Princess Christina

- Bernardo Guillermo
  Eva Prinz-Valdes
- Nicolás Guillermo
- Juliana Guillermo

** Member of the Dutch Royal House*

The reign of the King

As head of state, the King has many duties and responsibilities under the constitution. Most of these are ceremonial in practice, however.

The King and the executive branch

The King and the government

Although the King has roles and duties in all parts of the government and in several important places in the rest of society, the primary role of the King is within the executive branch of the Dutch government: the King is part of the government of the Netherlands. More than that: together with the Council of Ministers of the Netherlands, the King *is* the government.

The role of the King within the government of the Netherlands is described in Article 42 of the constitution:[Cons 15]

> **Article 42**
>
> 1. The government consists of the King and the ministers.
> 2. The King is inviolate; the ministers are responsible.

This article is probably the greatest paradox in the entire constitution, in that it is the basis of the full power and influence of the King and makes him beyond reproach before the law — yet serves to render the King all but powerless in the Dutch system of government.

The first paragraph of Article 42 determines that the government of the Netherlands consists of the King and his ministers. It is important to note that, even though the King is the head of state, there is no hierarchy: the King is not the head of government, the ministers are not answerable to the King within the government. This holds true even though the ministers are civil servants and as such technically work for the King (they are appointed by the King[Cons 16]). It even holds against the fact that the Prime Minister is commonly referred to as the head of government (which he is not; he is the chairman of the Council of Ministers).[Cons 17] The essential thing to understand is that there is no distinction, no dichotomy, no segregation or separation: the King and his ministers *are* the government and the government **is one**.[ext 1]

This fact has practical consequences, in that it is not possible for the King and the ministers to be in disagreement. The government speaks with one voice and makes decisions as a united body. When the King acts in an executive capacity, he does so as representative of the united government. And when the government decides, the King is in agreement (even if the king or queen personally disagrees). As an ultimate consequence of this, it is not possible for the King to refuse to sign into law a proposal of law that has been agreed to and signed by the responsible minister. Such a disagreement between the King and his minister is a situation not covered by the constitution and is automatically a constitutional crisis. These are quite rare in the Netherlands and have, on occurrence, always led to collapse of the government (resignation of the ministers), parliamentary elections and eventually to abdication of the monarch.[ext 1]

The second paragraph of the article, though, is what really renders the King powerless. This paragraph states that the King is inviolate. He is beyond any reproach, beyond the grasp of any prosecution (criminal or otherwise) for any acts committed or actions taken as King. If anything goes wrong, the minister responsible for the topic at hand is responsible for the failings of the King. This sounds like it makes the King an absolute tyrant, but in fact the opposite is true: since the ministers are responsible, they also have the authority to make the decisions. The ministers set the course of the government and the country, the ministers make executive decisions and run the affairs of state. And since the government is one, the King abides by the decision of the ministers. In fact the Kings of the Netherlands rarely make any executive decisions at all and practically never speak in public on any subject other than to read a statement prepared by the Prime Minister (since an unfortunate off-the-cuff remark could get a minister into trouble). The practical consequence of this limit on the power of the King is that the King never makes a decision on his own. Every decision, every decree must be countersigned by the responsible minister(s).[ext 1]

The King and the law of the land

Technically, the King has a lot of practical power. For instance, no proposal of law actually becomes a law until signed by the King — and there is no legal requirement for the King to sign.[Cons 18] In practice, the King will always give assent since most proposals of

law are made by the government "by or on behalf of the King".[Cons 19] And while proposals of law must be *approved* by the States-General, a lot of the practical running of the country is done by Royal Decree (in Dutch: *Koninklijk Besluit*). These Royal Decrees are used for all sorts of things, ranging from appointments of civil servants and military officers to clarifications of how public policy is to be executed (in this they are like American executive orders) to filling in the details of certain laws. Royal Decrees create ministries,[Cons 20] disband the houses of the States-General,[Cons 21] and appoint and fire ministers.[Cons 22]

However, since the ministers are responsible, Royal Decrees are in fact made by the responsible minister. And while the King must sign laws and Royal Decrees before they come into effect, the constitution determines that the responsible ministers and state secretaries must countersign.[Cons 23] That, given the fact that the ministers have the authority, really means that they decide and it is the King who countersigns, and even that is a formality. Also, while the King may technically propose laws ("by or on behalf of the King"), ministerial responsibility means that he never does. And even though the government may refuse to sign a States-General approved proposal into law, this is practically unheard of and the King refusing to sign on his own is even more rare (and a constitutional crisis to boot).[ext 2]

There is one special case in which the King has, if possible, even less power than normal: the appointment of his ministers. Ministers are appointed by Royal Decree, which of course have to be countersigned by the responsible minister. The Royal Decree to appoint a minister, however, is countersigned by *two* responsible ministers rather than one: the outgoing minister responsible for the ministry and the Prime Minister.[Cons 24]

Formation of the government

Given the discussion above, it is a valid question whether the position of King of the Netherlands is entirely ceremonial. The answer however, is "no". Despite all appearances the King does have some actual power, relating to the formation of a new government after parliamentary elections. And, even more interestingly, this power is traditional and is not described in the constitution.[ext 1]

After the parliamentary election there follows a period of time in which the leaders of the political parties in the parliament seek to form a coalition of parties that can command a majority of the newly elected parliament. The current nationwide party-list system, combined with a low threshold for getting a seat (two-third percent of the vote) makes it all but impossible for one party to win an outright majority. Thus, the bargaining required to put together a governing coalition is as important as the election itself.

This process of negotiations, which can last anywhere from two to four months (more on occasion...), is coordinated in the initial stages by one or more informateurs, whose duty it is to investigate and report upon viable coalitions. After a likely combination is found, a formateur is appointed to conduct the formal coalition negotiations and form a new Council of Ministers (of which the formateur himself usually becomes the Prime Minister). If the negotiations fail, the cycle starts over. The informateurs and formateur in question are all appointed to this task by the King. The King makes his own decision in this, based on advice from the leaders of the different parties in parliament, as well as other important figures (the speakers of the new parliament and the senate are among them).[ext 1]

There is usually some popular discussion in the Netherlands around the time of these negotiations about whether the authority of the King in this matter should not be limited and whether or not the newly elected parliament should not make the appointments that the King makes. These discussions are usually based (to varying degrees) around the argument that decision by a King is undemocratic and there is no parliamentary oversight over the decision and the King might make use of this to push for a government of his or her liking.

On the other hand, it is somewhat questionable that the King really has much opportunity here to exert any influence. The informateur is there to investigate possible coalititions and report on them. He could technically seek "favorable" coalitions, but the political parties involved are usually quite clear on what they want and don't want and the first choice for coalition almost always is the coalition of preference of the largest party in the new parliament. Besides, the kings and (particularly) the queens have traditionally known better than to appoint controversial informateurs, usually settling for well-established yet fairly neutral people in the political arena (the deputy chairman of the Dutch Council of State is a common choice). Once a potential coalition has been identified the King technically has a free rein in selecting a formateur. However, the formateur almost always becomes the next Prime Minister, and in any case it is a strong convention that a government must command the support of a majority of the House of Representatives in order to stay in office. These considerations mean that the selected formateur is always the party leader of the largest party in the potential coalition.[ext 1]

The King and the States-General

The one branch of government in which the King has no direct part is the legislative branch, which is formed by the States-General of

the Netherlands. This parliamentary body consists of two chambers, the *House of Representatives* (also commonly referred to as the *Parliament*) and the *Senate*.[Cons 25]

As in most parliamentary democracies the States-General are dually responsible for overseeing the government in its executive duties as well as approving proposals of law before they can become actual laws. In this respect it is of course vital for the government to maintain good relations with the States-General and technically the King shares that effort (although the King never officially speaks to members of the States on policy matters due to ministerial responsibility).

Constitutionally, the King deals with the States-General in three areas: lawmaking, policy outlining at the opening of the parliamentary year and dissolution.

Of the three, policy outlining is the most straightforward. The parliamentary year is opened on the third Tuesday of September with a joint session of the two houses.[Cons 26] At this occasion the King addresses the joint States in a speech in which he sets forth the outlines for his government's policies for the coming year (the speech itself is of course prepared by the ministers, their ministries and finally crafted and approved by the Prime Minister). This event is mandated by the constitution in Article 65. Tradition has made more of this occasion than a policy speech though, and the event known as Prinsjesdag has become a large affair with much pomp and circumstance, in which the States-General and other major bodies of government assemble in the Ridderzaal to hear the queen deliver the speech from the throne after having arrived from the Noordeinde Palace in her golden carriage. Both in constitutional aspects and in ceremony the event has much in common with both the British Queen's Speech and the American State of the Union.

Lawmaking is the area in which the King has the most frequent involvement with the States-General (although in fact he has very little to do with it in practice). Laws in the Netherlands are primarily proposed by the government and can be proposed "by or on behalf of" the King (this phrase is repeated often in the constitution).[Cons 18] Technically this means that the King may propose laws in person, hearkening back to the days of the first kings of the Netherlands when the kings really could and did propose laws. However, this possibility is at odds with ministerial responsibility and the queens have always avoided the issue by never proposing laws in person. The King must still sign proposals into law though, a historical deference to the fact that the law of the land is decreed by the King.

While the King has no practical involvement anymore in lawmaking other than a signature at the end, one might get a different impression from reading the communication between the government and the States-General regarding proposals of law and the laws themselves. All communication from the States-General to the government is addressed to the King and communication in the opposite direction formally is from the King (it is also signed by the King, without a ministerial countersignature – such communication is not a decision or decree, so does not require a countersignature). The formal language still shows deference to the position of the King, with a refusal of the States-General to approve a proposal of law for example becoming "a request to the King to reconsider the proposal". The constitution prescribes a number of the forms used:[Cons 27]

- If the government accepts a proposal of law and signs it into law, the language is that "The King accedes to the proposal".
- If the government refuses a proposal of law, the language is that "The King shall keep the proposal under advisement".

A law, once passed, is formulated in such a way as to be decreed by the King.

The final involvement of the King with the States is dissolution. Constitutionally, the King is empowered to disband either house of the States by Royal Decree. Of course, this means that a minister (usually the Prime Minister) makes the decision and the King countersigns. The signing of such a Royal Decree constitutionally implies new elections for the house in question and the formation of a new house within three months of dissolution.[Cons 21]

The constitution prescribes a number of cases in which one or more houses of the States are disbanded (particularly for changes to the constitution); this is always done by Royal Decree. In addition, traditionally the collapse of the government is followed by dissolution of the House of Representatives and general elections. Before World War II, before it became common to form new governments with each new parliament, it would happen from time to time that a Council of Ministers found itself suddenly facing a new and unfriendly parliament. When the inevitable clash came, it was an established political trick for the Prime Minister to attempt to resolve the problem by disbanding the parliament in name of the King in the hope that new elections brought a more favorable parliament (but it was also possible for the trick to backfire, in which case the new, equally hostile and far more angry parliament would suspend the budget to force the resignation of the government).

Even though the King never speaks with members of the States-General formally, it was tradition up to 1999 that the queen would invite the members of parliament over once a year for informal talks about the general state of affairs in the country. Of course these conversations were held in the strictest confidence due to ministerial responsibility. The tradition was suspended after 1999 though, due to repeated incidents involving MPs blabbing about the contents of the conversations despite agreeing not to (and embarrassing the Prime Minister in doing so). In 2009 an attempt was made to resume the tradition, but this failed due to Arend Jan Boekestijn

resuming the tradition of revealing the contents of his conversation with queen Beatrix anyway.[ext 3]

Other functions of the King

In addition to the duties and responsibilities described in previous sections, the King has several other functions as well. Some of these are (partly) constitutional, others are more traditional in nature.

Although it does not say so anywhere in the constitution, the King is the head of state of the Kingdom of the Netherlands (this meaning is implied from the fact that the King is the King). As such, the King is the face of the kingdom towards the world: the ambassadors of the Netherlands are emissaries of the King, foreign ambassadors represent foreign heads of state to the King. And even though head-of-government responsibility lies with the Prime Minister, it is the King that makes state visits to foreign heads of state as representative of the Netherlands. It is also the King whose face is shown on Dutch stamps and Dutch euro coins.

Constitutionally the King is the head of the Dutch Council of State.[Cons 28] The Council is a constitutional body of the Netherlands that serves two purposes. First, it is an advisory council to the government which advises on the desirability, practicability and constitutionality of new proposals of law. Second, it is the Supreme Court for the Netherlands in matters of administrative law.[Cons 29] The position of the King as constitutional head of this Council means two things for the constitutional position of the King:[ext 4]

1. The King is constitutionally directly involved with practically all aspects of lawmaking except approval by the States-General (the representative of the electorate). From inception of the law through proposal to the States to finally signing into law, the King is involved. This involvement is derived from the days when the King was an absolute ruler and really made law. Originally, with the creation of the first constitutions, the kings strove to maintain power by maximum involvement with all aspects of lawmaking. Over time this has grown into a more advisory role.
2. The King is constitutionally involved with at least part of the judicial branch of government as well.

Of course, the role played by the King in the Council is largely theoretical due to ministerial responsibility. While the King is officially head of the Council, in practice the queen never votes in Council meetings and always turns over her responsibility as chair of the meetings to the deputy head of the Council. She is presumed to be part of the discussions though.

Despite the limitations on the role the King may play in the Council, his involvement is seen as valuable due to the experience and knowledge that a monarch accrues over the years. Reciprocally, being part of the Council deliberations is considered invaluable training and preparation for the role of King, which is why the heir-apparent is constitutionally an observer-member of the Council from the time he comes of age.[Cons 28]

The King is also the Grand Master of the Dutch orders of knighthoods: the Order of Orange-Nassau,[Law 1] the Order of the Netherlands Lion[Law 2] and the Military William Order.[Law 3]

Lastly, the King plays a very large but completely unofficial role in the running of the country as advisor and confidant to the government. This duty traditionally takes the form of a weekly meeting between the Prime Minister and the monarch in which they discuss the affairs of the week, the plans of the cabinet and so on. It is assumed that the queen exerts most of her influence (as such) in these meetings, in that she can bring her knowledge and experience to bear in what she tells the Prime Minister. In the case of queen Beatrix, several former Prime Ministers have remarked that her case knowledge of each and every dossier is extensive and that she makes sure to be fully aware of all the details surrounding everything that lands on her desk.

Perhaps somewhat surprisingly for a monarchy, the King is not formally the commander-in-chief of the military of the Netherlands. He was until 1983, but a large overhaul of the constitution that year shifted supreme command of the armed forces to the government as a whole.[Cons 30]

Remuneration and privileges

Stipend

Article 40 of the constitution states that the King is to receive an annual stipend from the Kingdom (in other words wages, except that it cannot be called that since the King is not employed by the country but rather the other way around). The exact rules surrounding these stipends are to be determined by law, as is the list of members of the Royal House who also receive them.[Cons 31]

Under current Dutch law the King receives an annual stipend which is part of the annual budget, as do the heir-apparent, the consort of the King and the consort of the heir-apparent.[Law 4] The King receives this stipend constitutionally, the others because they are

not allowed to work for anybody due to their positions. For practical purposes this means that the current recipients of royal stipends are Queen Beatrix (€813,000 in the 2009 budget), Prince Willem-Alexander (the heir-apparent; €241,000 in the 2009 budget) and Princess Máxima (wife of Prince Willem-Alexander; €241,000 in the 2009 budget).[Law 5] This stipend is currently linked to the development of the wages of Dutch civil servants.

At the beginning of 2009 there was some upset in the parliament about the cost of the Royal House and the lack of insight into the structure of those costs. At the insistence of the parliament the development of the stipends of the Royal House members was then linked to the development of the salaries of the Dutch civil servants. During 2009 it was agreed collectively that the civil servants would receive a pay increase of 1%. In September 2009, at the first budget debate in parliament during the economic crisis, it was pointed out to the parliament that their earlier decision meant that the stipend to the queen would now also increase. This in turn was reason for the parliament to be displeased again.

Royal privileges

Under the constitution, Royal House members receiving a stipend are exempt from income tax over that stipend. They are also exempt from all personal taxes over assets and possessions that they use or need in the execution of their functions for the Kingdom. The King and the heir-apparent are exempt from inheritance tax on inheritances received from members of the Royal House.[Cons 31]


Royal Standard

The King has the use of Huis ten Bosch as a residence and Noordeinde Palace as a work palace. In addition the Royal Palace of Amsterdam is also at the disposal of the King (although it is only used for state visits and is open to the public when not in use for that purpose), as is Soestdijk Palace (which is open to the public and not in official use at all at this time).[Law 6]

The King has the use of an airplane and a train for state visits (although the airplane is not exclusively reserved for the King anymore).[ext 5] The King also has a small fleet of cars available, on which he may display the royal standard.

Positions of other members of the Royal House and royal family

The royal family has become quite extensive since the birth of Queen Juliana. By consequence so has the Royal House (nominally the collection of persons in line for the throne and their spouses), to the extent that membership of the Royal House was limited by a change in the law in 2002.[Law 7]

Despite being a large clan, the family as a whole has very little to do officially with the Dutch government or the running of the Netherlands. Constitutionally an important role is played by the monarch. The heir-apparent is deemed to be preparing to ascend to the throne, so he has some limited tasks and a number of limits on his person (particularly he cannot hold a paying job, since this might lead to entanglements later on). Since neither King nor heir-apparent may hold jobs, they receive a stipend from the government. Their spouses are similarly forbidden from earning an income and receive a stipend as well. But constitutionally that is the whole of the involvement of the royal family with the Dutch government.

In particular (even though it is a common mistake to believe otherwise), members of the Royal House other than the King and the heir-apparent have no official tasks within the Dutch government and do not receive stipends. They are responsible for their own conduct and their own income. They may of course be asked to stand in from time to time (for instance to accompany the King on a state visit if the consort is ill), but this is always a personal favor and not an official duty. In addition, they are not exempt from taxation.

Many members of the royal family do hold (or have held) significant positions within civil society, usually functioning as head or spokesperson of one or more charitable organizations, patron of the arts and similar endeavors. Some members of the royal family are also (or have been) avid supporters of some personal cause; Prince Bernhard for instance was always passionate about the treatment of World War II veterans and Princess Margriet (who was born in Canada) has a special relationship with Canadian veterans specifically. As a rule of thumb, the members of the royal family who are contemporaries of Queen Beatrix tend to hold civil society positions as a primary occupation whereas younger family members hold these positions in conjunction with a regular, paying job. A notable exception to this rule is Pieter van Vollenhoven (husband to Princess Margriet), who is chairman of the Dutch Safety Board.

As noted before, the spouses of the monarch and the heir-apparent are forbidden from holding paying jobs or government responsibilities. This is to prevent any monetary entanglements or undue influences involving the (future) King. These legal limits were not a great problem when they were instituted in the 19th century; The Netherlands had kings and it was considered normal for a married woman to tend the household, raise the family and not to hold any position outside the home. The limits have been more problematic since the early 20th century, when the monarchy of the Netherlands passed to a series of queens and the consorts

became men (starting with Prince Hendrik in 1901). The male consorts since then have all either been raised with an expectation of government responsibility (such as Prince Hendrik), or had established careers of their own before marrying the future queen (Prince Bernhard and Prince Claus). Upon marrying into the Dutch royal family they all found themselves severely restricted in their freedom to act and make use of their abilities. All of the male consorts have been involved in some form of difficulty or another (scandals involving infidelity and finances in the cases of Hendrik and Bernhard, deep depression in the case of Claus) and it has been widely speculated (and even generally accepted) that sheer boredom played at least a part in all of these difficulties.

Over time the restrictions on royal consorts have eased somewhat. Prince Frederik was allowed no part or role in the Netherlands whatsoever. Due to his war efforts, Prince Bernhard was made Inspector General of the Dutch armed forces (although that role was created for him) and was an unofficial ambassador for the Netherlands who leveraged his wartime contacts to help Dutch industry. All that came to a halt in 1976 however, after the Lockheed bribery scandals. Prince Claus was allowed more leeway still after having established himself in Dutch society (he was unpopular at first, being a German marrying into the royal family after World War II); he was eventually given an advisorship within the Ministry for Development Cooperation pertaining to Africa, where he made good use of his experiences as a German diplomat in that continent. Nevertheless, neither Bernhard nor Claus ever fully got over the restrictive nature of their marriages and at the time of the royal wedding in 2002 it was broadly agreed in government circles that Princess Máxima (who had a career in banking before marrying Prince Willem-Alexander) should be allowed far more leeway if she desires.

Death and burial

Although Dutch lawmakers have historically favored being very conservative about creating special legal positions for members of the Royal House or the Royal family, there is one area in which the rules for members of the Royal House are very different than for other Dutch citizens: the area of death and burial. More specifically, there is only one rule that pertains to members of the Royal House in this area and that is that there are no rules.

For Dutch citizens, the rules surrounding death and burial are laid out by the Funereal Law (Dutch: *Wet op de Lijkbezorging*).[Law 8] However, article 87 of this law states that the entire law is not applicable to members of the Royal House and that the Minister of Internal Affairs can also waive the law for other relatives of the King. The reason for this exceptional position of members of the Royal House is traditional. Ever since the burial of William the Silent in the Nieuwe Kerk in Delft, members of the Orange-Nassau family have favored burial in the same crypt where William was entombed (some members of the family buried elsewhere were even moved there later). However, for health and hygiene reasons, burial in churches was forbidden in the Netherlands by decree of William I in 1829 (the practice had been banned before under French occupation of the country, but returned after 1815). In order to allow entombing of members of the Royal family, all Dutch laws pertaining to burial have made an exception for the Royal House ever since the 1829 decree.

Burial of members of the Royal House is completely a matter of tradition, circumstance, practicality and spirit of the times (this due to the lack of any formal rules whatsoever). As a rule of thumb, the body of a deceased member of the Royal House is placed on display for a few days in one of the palaces, to allow the family to say goodbye. Depending on the identity of the deceased (a deceased monarch, for instance), there may also be a viewing for the public. Then, on the burial day, the body is transported to Delft in a special horse-drawn carriage. Current protocol specifies eight horses for a deceased monarch and six for a deceased royal consort (which is relatively new, since Prince Frederik was borne to Delft by eight horses). The current carriage is purple with white trim (this has also changed since the burial of Queen Wilhelmina in 1962, when the carriage was white). Currently, the route to Delft is lined by members of the Dutch armed forces (which is also new since the burial of Prince Hendrik, which was a very quiet affair).

Once in Delft, the body is entombed in the family crypt after a short service. Only members of the family are allowed into the crypt, through the main entrance in the church which is only opened for royal funerals (the mayor of Delft has a key to a separate service entrance, which is only opened in the presence of two military police officers and two members of the Dutch General Intelligence and Security Service for maintenance).

The monarchy in Dutch society

Importance and position within Dutch society

The importance and position of the monarchy within Dutch society has changed over time, together with changes in the constitutional position of the monarchy.

The monarchy of the Netherlands was established in 1815 as a reaction to the decline and eventual fall of the Dutch Republic. It was observed at the time that a large part of the decline of the republic was due to a lack of a strong, central government in the face of strong, centrally led competitor nations such as Great Britain and the French kingdom. After the defeat of Napoleon Bonaparte in

1813 and the resurrection of the Netherlands, it was decided to reform the republic in the Kingdom of the Netherlands with a monarchy rather than the old stadtholder system.

The original monarchy was absolute in nature, with the States-General serving as more of an advisory board without the power to do much against the King. This state of affairs allowed the King great freedom to determine the course of the nation and indeed William I was able to push through many changes that set the nation on the course towards industrialization and wealth. He also established the first Dutch railway system and the Nederlandsche Handel Maatschappij, which would later evolve into the ABN Amro bank. On the other hand, his policies caused great discord with the Southern Netherlands, leading to the Belgian Revolution and a years-long war. A backlash against these policies plus rising fear of early Marxism led to acceptance by William II of a series of reforms, starting with a new constitution in 1848 (which was the start of a continuing series of limitations on royal power).

Direct political power and influence of the King continued until 1890, although it slowly declined in the meantime. Both William I and William II proved quite conservative rulers (although William II was less inclined to interfere with policy than his father was), both resisting major reforms until eventually conflict with the States-General and their own government forced their abdications. William III's reign was a continuous saga of power struggles between the monarch and the parliamentary government (which he forced out a couple of times), plus major international crises due to the same stubbornness (including the Luxembourg Crisis). As a result the Dutch government used the succession of William III by a female regent as an opportunity to make a power play and establish government authority over royal authority.

Queen Wilhelmina was not happy with the new situation and made several half-hearted attempts during her reign to reassert authority. She was partly successful in certain areas (being able to push for military rearmament before World War I) but she never succeeded in restoring royal power. She did introduce a new concept to Dutch royalty though: the popular monarch. Establishing her popularity in military circles through her support of Dutch military prior to 1917, she was able to wield her personal popularity to uphold the government against a socialist revolution in 1917.

Royal power continued to decline until the start of World War II. Forced to flee to London, queen Wilhelmina established the position of "mother of the Dutch state" through her radio broadcasts into the occupied Netherlands and her support for other Dutchmen evading the Germans and fighting from England. She tried to position her family into more influence by giving prince Bernhard an important position in the military, but was still relegated to a position of constitutional monarchy after the war.

Following Wilhelmina's abdication in 1948, the Orange family seems to have settled for a position of unofficial influence behind the scenes coupled with a role as "popular monarchs" in public. As such the monarchs are practically never seen in public doing their official work (except news footage of state visits and the reading of the government plans on Prinsjesdag) and instead their relationship with the public has become more of a popular and romanticized notion of royalty. The queen nowadays is popularly perceived to have a figurehead role, serving as "mother of the nation" in times of crises and disasters (such as the 1953 floods). In addition, there is a public holiday called Koninginnedag, in which the royal family pays a visit somewhere in the country and participates in local activities and traditions in order to get closer to the people.

Popularity of the monarchy

The popularity of the monarchy has changed over time, with constitutional influence, circumstance and economic tides.

When the monarchy was established in 1815, popularity was not a major concern. Still, the Orange family held popular support in around 60% percent of the population following the fall of the French. This changed drastically over the following years as William I's policies alienated the Southern Netherlands, drew the country into civil war and established industries that favored the rich Protestants and not the general populace.

Royal popularity remained relatively low throughout the reign of the kings. William II was conservative, but on the whole did as little to lose popularity as he did to gain it. Economic decline drove most of his popular decline, although popular support for the monarch was still not considered of much import then. William III was unpopular under a wide section of the public, earning himself the nickname "King Gorilla" for his boorish way of behaving.

Royal popularity started to increase with Wilhelmina's ascent to the throne. She pushed for national reforms, was a huge supporter of the armed forces and strove for renewed industrialization. Around 1917 the country was generally divided into two camps: socialists in the cities, royalists elsewhere. This showed in the dividing lines during the failed Troelstra revolution, where Troelstra gained popular support in the larger cities but the countryside flocked to the queen. Wilhelmina was able to muster popular support with a countryside "publicity tour" together with her daughter — this showing of popular support for the queen was instrumental in halting the revolution and stabilizing the government. Still, Wilhelmina remained deeply unpopular in the cities throughout the 1920s and 1930s.

Nationwide support came for Wilhelmina and the monarchy during World War II. Wilhelmina was forced to retreat to London, but refused evacuation all the way to Canada (although princess Juliana was sent there with her children). Wilhelmina regularly held radio broadcasts into the occupied Netherlands and staunchly supported the Dutch troops in exile. She became the symbol for Dutch resistance against the Germans, leading to the term "WOZO" (*Wilhelmina, Oranje Zal Overwinnen*, or *Wilhelmina, Orange Shall Be Victorious*) being graffiti'd over all manner of Dutch walls as a sign of resistance. Wilhelmina established popular support for the monarchy that essentially holds to this day.

Although a completely different type of queen than Wilhelmina, Juliana gained enormous popular support in her own right. Starting with her public appearances after the 1953 floods, Juliana established herself as a "mother of the nation" type of queen. A far more homey, down-to-earth character than Wilhelmina, queen Juliana reigned with a "neighbour and housewife" air about her in a time when the Netherlands went through a period of social relaxation in the 1960s and 1970s (shrugging off the more rigid nature of previous Dutch society). Juliana was also a pacifist at heart at a time when Vietnam was an unpopular war and opposition to nuclear weapons was on the rise. Amid all this, queen Juliana's socialist views and unassuming nature (she had a popular image of being a queen who prepared her own Brussels sprouts) made her the "right queen for the time" and she maintained and increased the popular support she had inherited from her mother, even in the face of different scandals surrounding her husband.

Popular support waned for a time in the early 1980s, during the start of queen Beatrix' reign. She adopted a style of government more like that of queen Wilhelmina and was perceived as cold and distant in a country used to queen Juliana being everybody's grandmother. Over time the country has got used to her style though and acceptance has grown. This was also aided by the public image of prince Claus, who came to be perceived as charming and funny during her reign. Particularly his public love declaration for Beatrix a few years before the end of his life endeared him to many people. Popular support for the monarchy (which was only measured regularly since Beatrix' reign) has consistently been above 85% since the mid-1990s and reached a peak with the marriage of prince Willem-Alexander to princess Máxima in 2002.

Popular support has become more volatile over the last few years though, in the face of seeming improprieties by prince Willem-Alexander and other members of the royal family during the economic crisis. Prince Willem-Alexander always had a reputation for being a "naughty boy" (he became popularly known as "Prins Pils" ("prince beer") after being photographed drinking beer as a student and once drove his car into a ditch while in university as well). Despite ongoing efforts to prepare for being King (including internships throughout society, military service and a very public interest in water management), he has made some clumsy choices from time to time that have negatively impacted his popularity. When he became engaged to Máxima Zorreguieta (daughter of Argentine junta member Jorge Zorreguieta), he publicly defended her by citing a letter describing her father's actions as harmless — the letter turned out to have been written by Jorge Rafael Videla. The matter was set aside when princess Máxima described her future husband's actions as "een beetje dom" ("a little bit dumb") in fluent Dutch during her first press conference (this also established her reputation as a charming young lady in the Netherlands). In 2009 Willem-Alexander and Máxima were in the news again for investing in a vacation resort in Mozambique. Even though there were good reasons to believe the project would have benefited the local populace greatly, the expenditure of money abroad during a crisis in a project involving some shady brokers did not sit well with the Dutch public. Also a purchase of an alternative vacation home in Argentina the same year was unpopular.

In and of themselves the incidents were not terrible, but they became public knowledge around the same time that other questions were being raised about the family finances of the Oranges. Even though the incidents caused only a slight drop in overall popular support (down to about 83%), they led to an increased support for moving to a fully ceremonial monarchy (around 43%), a freezing of the royal stipends (around 66%) or even a lowering of the stipends (about 33%) and removing the royal exemption on taxation (also around 40%).

History

For rulers of the Netherlands before 1806, see Stadtholder of the Netherlands

Prior to the Napoleonic wars, most of the semi-independent provinces of the Netherlands had been ruled by elected stadtholders, who were all drawn from the House of Orange-Nassau.

The House of Orange-Nassau came from Dillenburg, Germany, seat of the Dukes of Nassau. Their title 'Prince of Orange' was acquired through inheritance of the Principality of Orange in southern France, in 1544. William of Orange (also known as William the Silent) was the first Orange-Nassau stadtholder (ironically, appointed by Philip II of Spain). From 1568 to his death in 1584, he led the Dutch struggle for independence from Spain. His younger brother, John VI, Count of Nassau-Dillenburg, was the direct male line ancestor of the first King of the Netherlands.

The Netherlands remained, formally, a confederated republic, even when in 1747 the office of stadtholder was centralized (one stadtholder for all provinces) and became formally hereditary the House of Orange-Nassau.

The first King of the Netherlands was actually French. In 1806, Emperor Napoleon installed his brother Louis Bonaparte as ruler of the Kingdom of Holland, a puppet state. The Kingdom of Holland was abolished in 1810.

The present monarchy was founded in 1813, when the French were driven out. Prince William V of Orange was proclaimed Sovereign Prince of the United Netherlands (comprising certain northern provinces). The new monarchy was confirmed in 1815 at the Congress of Vienna as part of the re-arrangement of Europe after the fall of Napoleon, and its status as a kingdom was also confirmed.

William VI became the first king of the constitutional monarchy of the Netherlands as William I.

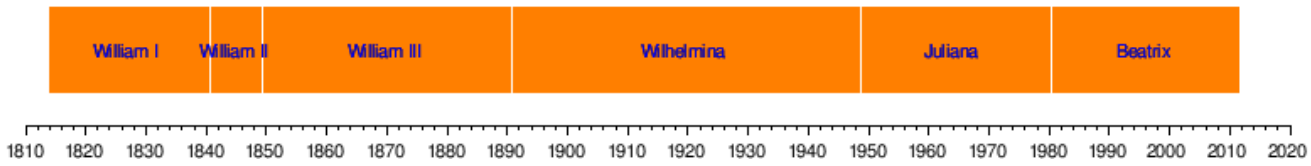
The House of Orange-Nassau was given the modern day Netherlands and also Belgium and Luxembourg to rule as the United Kingdom of the Netherlands. In addition, the King of the Netherlands became hereditary Grand Duke of Luxembourg. Until 1839, Luxembourg was both a Grand Duchy of the German Confederation and a Province of the Kingdom simultaneously.

Abdication of the throne has become a de facto tradition in the Dutch monarchy. Queen Wilhelmina and Queen Juliana both abdicated in favour of their daughters and William I abdicated in favor of his eldest son.

The present monarch, Queen Beatrix, has stated she will not abdicate in the near future, to allow Crown Prince Willem-Alexander and his wife Princess Máxima to spend time with their family.

Monarchs of the Netherlands

Main article: List of monarchs of the Netherlands



Wilhelmina (1890–1948)

Main article: Wilhelmina of the Netherlands

When Wilhelmina came to the throne in 1890 at age 10 (her mother, queen Emma, second wife of the then deceased William III, acted as regent until Wilhelmina reached the age of 18) Luxembourg, also a former member of the erstwhile German Confederation, was not willing to accept a (female) Grand Duchess under Salic law. Instead a family member, Adolf, former Duke of Nassau, became Grand Duke of Luxembourg, ending the personal union between the Netherlands and Luxembourg.

The 58-year reign of queen Wilhelmina was dominated by the two World Wars. She married a German prince, Heinrich von Mecklenburg-Schwerin, who unfortunately was not happy with his unrewarding role of husband-to-the-queen. Wilhelmina's strong personality and unrelenting passion to fulfill her inherited task overpowered many men in position of authority, including ministers, prime-ministers and her own husband. She is mostly remembered for her role during World War II. The initial disappointment of many Dutch people because of her quick withdrawal to London faded (though it was never forgotten and by some was never forgiven) when she proved to be of great moral support to the people and the resistance in her occupied country. Hendrik and Wilhelmina had one daughter, Juliana, who came to the throne in 1948. They lived in The Hague and in Palace 't Loo (Paleis 't Loo) in Apeldoorn. She died in 1962. For her early reign and character, the letters of Queen Victoria give a good perspective.

Juliana (1948–1980)

Main article: Juliana of the Netherlands

Juliana reigned from 1948 until 1980, and whereas Wilhelmina reigned like a general, Juliana expressed a more motherly character. One of her first official acts was to sign the treaty of independence of the Dutch colony Indonesia. She became involved in two major crises: the Greet Hofmans affair and the Lockheed bribery scandals, both of which directly threatened the credibility of the throne. She married a German of noble descent, Prince Bernard von Lippe-Biesterfeld. Together they had four daughters, Beatrix, Irene, Margriet and Christina. After their return from Ottawa, Canada in 1945 (where Margriet

Dutch Royalty
House of Orange-Nassau

was born), they lived in the Soestdijk Palace (Paleis Soestdijk) in Soestdijk, about 20 km north-east of Utrecht. She died on 20 March 2004. Her husband Bernhard died on 1 December 2004.

Beatrix (1980–present)

Main article: Beatrix of the Netherlands

The Dutch royal family today is much larger than it has ever been. Queen Beatrix and her husband, the late prince Claus, have three sons, Willem-Alexander (married to Princess Máxima), Friso (married to Princess Mabel) and Constantijn (married to Princess Laurentien). Her sister Margriet and her spouse Pieter van Vollenhoven have four sons: Maurits, Bernhard, Pieter-Christiaan and Floris. Four of these seven princes as well as princess Margriet, are all (potentially) legal heirs to the throne, although the first right goes to the crown prince, and after him his daughters Catharina-Amalia, Alexia, Ariane, and then his brother Constantijn. Prince Friso lost his right to the throne because no approval was asked for his marriage to Mabel Wisse Smit to the States-General. The two other sisters of Beatrix, Irene and Christina, have lost their rights to the throne because their marriages were not approved by the States-General. They both married Roman Catholics and Irene herself converted to Roman Catholicism, which at that time (the 1960s) was still politically problematic for an heir to the throne. An additional complication which the government wanted to avoid, was that Irene's husband, Prince Carlos-Hugo of Bourbon-Parma, (whom she later divorced) was a member of a deposed Italian dynasty who claimed rights to the Spanish throne. Traditionally, Dutch monarchs have always been members of the Dutch Reformed Church although this was never constitutionally required. This tradition is embedded in the history of the Netherlands.

Willem-Alexander

Main article: Willem-Alexander, Prince of Orange

The heir apparent to the Dutch throne is prince Willem-Alexander (born 1967), the Prince of Orange since 1980. He studied history at the University of Leiden and became actively involved in water management. His wife is Princess Máxima (née Máxima Zorreguieta Cerruti), an economy major, whose father was a minister of agriculture in the dictatorial regime under General Videla in Argentina. Because of that their relationship was accompanied by fierce public debate and only officially sanctioned after quiet diplomacy, resulting in Máxima's father agreeing not to be present on their wedding day (2 February 2002). Former minister Max van der Stoel and prime minister Wim Kok seem to have played a crucial role in this process.

On 7 December 2003 Princess Máxima gave birth to a daughter: Princess Catharina-Amalia. On 26 June 2005 another daughter was born: Princess Alexia. On 10 April 2007 a third daughter was born, Princess Ariane. After Willem-Alexander they are second, third, and fourth in line to the Dutch throne.



William I

Children

- William II
- Prince Frederick
- Princess Paulina
- Marianne, Princess Albert of Prussia

Grandchildren

- Louise, Queen of Sweden and Norway
- Prince William
- Prince Frederick
- Marie, Princess of Wied

William II

Children

- William III
- Prince Alexander
- Prince Henry
- Prince Ernest Casimir
- Sophie, Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach

William III

Children

- William, Prince of Orange
- Prince Maurice
- Alexander, Prince of Orange
- Wilhelmina

Wilhelmina

Children

- Juliana

Juliana

Children

- Beatrix
- Princess Irene
- Princess Margriet
- Princess Christina

Beatrix

Children

- Willem-Alexander, Prince of Orange
- Prince Friso
- Prince Constantijn

Grandchildren

- Princess Catharina-Amalia
- Princess Alexia
- Princess Ariane
- Countess Luana
- Countess Zaria
- Countess Eloise
- Count Claus-Casimir
- Countess Leonore

Full title

Most members of the Dutch Royal Family, in addition to other titles hold (or held) the princely title Prince of Orange-Nassau. The children of prince Friso and prince Constantijn are instead count or countess of Orange-Nassau. Princess Margriet's and Princess Christina's grand children do not hold any title. Princess Irene's grand children only hold titles if they are (recognised) children of the princes Carlos and Jaime, according to the house rules of the House of Bourbon-Parma. In addition to the titles King/Prince of the Netherlands and Prince of Orange-Nassau, descendants of Queen Juliana and Prince Bernhard of Lippe-Biesterfeld hold another princely title - Prince of Lippe-Biesterfeld. The children of queen Beatrix and her husband Claus van Amsberg and their descendants, except for the children of prince Willem-Alexander and princess Máxima, also carry the appellative Honourable (Jonkheer/Jonkvrouw) in combination with the name Van Amsberg.

Queen Juliana, the only descendant of Queen Wilhelmina and Duke Hendrik of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, was also Duchess Juliana of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Since the title can pass only through the male line, Queen Juliana's descendants do not carry the title of Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

The title Prince of the Netherlands is the prerogative of the most important members of the Royal House (sons and daughters of king

or queen and sons/daughters of the heir apparent, the Prince of Orange), which is smaller than the Royal Family. Members of the Royal House can lose their membership when they enter into marriage without asking (and receiving) consent from Parliament.

See also

- List of monarchs of the Netherlands
- Line of succession to the Dutch throne
- List of heirs to the Dutch throne
- Monarchies in the Americas

Notes

1. ^ This article will discuss both the constitutional position of King and several people who have held that position. For the purposes of distinction, the article will follow the same practice and refer to the constitutional position as King and to persons as "king", "queen" or "monarch"

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Beatrix of the Netherlands

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Beatrix (Beatrix Wilhelmina Armgard, Dutch pronunciation: ['beəˈɛtrɪks ˌʋɪlhɛl'minə 'ɑrmgɑrd]; born 31 January 1938) is the Queen regnant of the Kingdom of the Netherlands comprising the Netherlands, Curaçao, Sint Maarten, and Aruba. She is the first daughter of Queen Juliana of the Netherlands and Prince Bernhard of Lippe-Biesterfeld. She studied law at Leiden University. In 1966, she married Claus von Amsberg, with whom she had three children: Prince Willem-Alexander (born 1967), Prince Friso (born 1968), and Prince Constantijn (born 1969). When her mother Juliana abdicated on 30 April 1980, Beatrix succeeded her as Queen of the Netherlands.

Beatrix



Queen of the Netherlands

Reign	30 April 1980 – present
Predecessor	Juliana
Heir apparent	Willem-Alexander, Prince of Orange
Prime Ministers	*See list*
Spouse	Claus von Amsberg (m. 1966–2002)
Issue	***Detail***
Willem-Alexander, Prince of Orange Prince Friso Prince Constantijn	
Full name	
Beatrix Wilhelmina Armgard	
House	House of Orange-Nassau
Father	Bernhard of Lippe-Biesterfeld
Mother	Juliana of the Netherlands
Born	31 January 1938 Baarn, Netherlands
Signature	
Religion	Protestantism

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- 2 Education
- 3 Political involvement and marriage
- 4 Queen of the Netherlands
- 5 Royal finances
  - 5.1 Personal wealth
- 6 Titles, styles, and honours
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Early life

Princess Beatrix was born *Princess Beatrix Wilhelmina Armgard of the Netherlands, Princess of Orange-Nassau, Princess of Lippe-Biesterfeld*, on 31 January 1938 at the Soestdijk Palace in Baarn, the Netherlands. She was the eldest daughter of Crown Princess Juliana of the Netherlands and Prince Bernhard of Lippe-Biesterfeld.[1] Beatrix's five godparents are King Leopold III of the Belgians, Princess Alice, Countess of Athlone, Princess Elisabeth of Waldeck and Pyrmont, Duke Adolf Friedrich of Mecklenburg, and Countess Allene de Kotzebue.[2] When Beatrix was one year old, in 1939, her first sister Princess Irene was born.[1]



Beatrix as an infant with her mother Juliana in 1938

When World War II broke out in the Netherlands in May 1940, the Dutch Royal Family fled to London in Great Britain. One month later, Beatrix went to Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, with her mother Juliana and her sister Irene, while her father Bernhard and maternal grandmother Queen Wilhelmina remained in London.[1] The family lived at the Stornoway residence.[3] In thanks for the protection of her and her daughters, (then) Princess Juliana established the delivery of tulips to the Canadian government every spring, which are the centrepiece of the Canadian Tulip Festival. Her second sister Princess Margriet was born in 1943.[1] During their exile in Canada, Beatrix attended nursery and the primary school[4] Rockcliffe Park Public School.[5]



Princesses Margriet, Irene and Beatrix during World War II

The family returned to the Netherlands on 2 August 1945. Beatrix went to the progressive primary school *De Werkplaats* in Bilthoven. Her third sister Princess Christina was born in 1947.[1] On 6 September 1948, her mother Juliana succeeded her grandmother Wilhelmina as Queen of the Netherlands, and Beatrix became the heiress presumptive to the throne of the Netherlands at the age of ten.[*citation needed*]

Education



Princess Beatrix and Queen Juliana in 1960

In April 1950, Princess Beatrix entered the Incrementum, a part of Baarnsch Lyceum, where, in 1956, she passed her school-graduation examinations in the subjects of arts and classics.[6]

On 31 January 1956, Princess Beatrix celebrated her 18th birthday. From that date, under the Constitution of the Netherlands, she was entitled to assume the Royal Prerogative. At that time, her mother installed her in the Council of State.[*citation needed*]

The same year, at Leiden University, her university studies began. In her first years at the university, she studied sociology, jurisprudence, economics, parliamentary history and constitutional law.[6] In the course of her studies she also attended lectures on the cultures of Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles, the Charter for the Kingdom of the Netherlands, international affairs, international law, history and European law.[*citation needed*]

The Princess also visited various European and international organisations in Geneva, Strasbourg, Paris, and Brussels. She was also an active member of the VVSL (Female Union for Students in Leiden), now called L.S.V.Minerva, after it had merged with the Leidsch Studenten Corps (which before then was male-only). In the summer of 1959, she passed her preliminary examination in law, and she obtained her law degree in July 1961.[6]

Political involvement and marriage

Her appearance on the political scene was almost immediately marked by controversy. In 1965, Princess Beatrix became engaged to the German aristocrat Claus von Amsberg, a diplomat working for the German Foreign Office. Their marriage caused a massive protest during the wedding day in Amsterdam on 10 March 1966. Prince Claus had served in the Hitler Youth and the Wehrmacht and was, therefore, associated by a part of the Dutch population with German Nazism. Protests included such memorable slogans as "Claus 'raus!" (Claus out!) and "Mijn fiets terug" (Give me back my bike), a reference to the memory of occupying German soldiers confiscating Dutch bicycles. A smoke bomb was thrown at the wedding carriage by a group of Provos causing a violent street battle with the police. As time went on, however, Prince Claus became one of the most popular members of the Dutch monarchy and his 2002 death was widely mourned.

An even more violent riot occurred on 30 April 1980, during the investiture (sovereigns of the Netherlands are not crowned as such) of Queen Beatrix. Some people, including socialist squatters, used the occasion to protest against poor housing conditions in the Netherlands and against the monarchy in general, using the also memorable slogan "Geen woning; geen Kroning" (No house; no coronation). Clashes with the police and security forces turned brutal and violent. The latter event is reflected in contemporary Dutch literature in the books of A.F.Th. van der Heijden.

Queen Beatrix is a member of the Bilderberg Group[7] and an honorary member of the Club of Rome.[8]

Queen of the Netherlands

On 30 April 1980, Beatrix became Queen of the Netherlands when her mother abdicated. In domestic matters, she has little political say; however, in international relations, the Queen has much more latitude. In 1994, the Minister of Foreign Affairs announced in the States-General that a Dutch embassy in Jordan had been opened at her request.

On 6 October 2002, the Queen's husband, Prince Claus, died after a long illness. A year and a half later, her mother died after long suffering from senile dementia, while her father succumbed to cancer in December 2004.

Dutch Royal Family



HM The Queen *

- HRH The Prince of Orange *
  HRH Princess Máxima *
  - HRH Princess Catharina-Amalia *
  - HRH Princess Alexia *
  - HRH Princess Ariane *
- HRH Prince Friso
  HRH Princess Mabel
  - Countess Luana
  - Countess Zaria
- HRH Prince Constantijn *
  HRH Princess Laurentien *
  - Countess Eloise *
  - Count Claus-Casimir *
  - Countess Leonore *

Extended royal family

HRH Princess Irene

- HRH the Duke of Parma
  HRH The Duchess of Parma
- HRH the Countess of Colorno
  Tjalling ten Cate
- HRH the Count of Bardi
- HRH the Marchioness of Sala

HRH Princess Margriet *
Professor Pieter van Vollenhoven *

- HH Prince Maurits *



Queen Beatrix and President Vladimir Putin during his state visit to the Netherlands in 2005

Queen Beatrix is rarely quoted directly in the press, since the government information service (*Rijksvoorlichtingsdienst*) makes it a condition of interviews that she may not be quoted. This policy was introduced shortly after her inauguration, reportedly to protect her from political complications that may arise from "off-the-cuff" remarks. It does not apply to her son Prince Willem-Alexander.

HH Princess Marilène *

- HH Prince Bernhard *

HH Princess Annette *

- HH Prince Pieter-Christiaan

HH Princess Anita

- HH Prince Floris

HH Princess Aimée

HRH Princess Christina

- Bernardo Guillermo

Eva Prinz-Valdes

- Nicolás Guillermo
- Juliana Guillermo

** Member of the Dutch Royal House*

On 8 February 2005, Queen Beatrix received a rare honorary doctorate from Leiden University, an honour the Queen does not usually accept. In her acceptance speech she reflected on the monarchy and her own 25 years as Queen.[9] The speech was broadcast live.[10]

On 29 April and 30 April 2005, she celebrated the 25th anniversary of her reign. She was interviewed on Dutch television, was offered a concert on Dam Square in Amsterdam, and a celebration took place in The Hague, the country's seat of government.



Queen Beatrix and Prince Willem-Alexander in the Golden Carriage in 2007

On 30 April 2009, the Queen and many senior members of the Royal Family were targeted in a car attack by a man called Karst Tates. Tates crashed his car into a parade in Apeldoorn, narrowly missing a bus carrying the Queen. Five people were killed instantly; and two victims and the assailant Tates died later. Other victims of the crash were in a critical life threatening situation. One week after the attack another victim had succumbed to sustained injuries. The royal party were unharmed, but the Queen and members of her family saw the crash at close range and were visibly shaken. Within hours, Queen Beatrix made a rare televised address to express her shock and condolences. The man apparently told police he was deliberately targeting the royal family.[11] It is thought to be the first physical attack on Dutch royalty in modern times.

Royal finances

The royal palaces are the property of the Dutch state and given for the use of the reigning monarch;[12] While the House of Orange-Nassau possesses a large number of personal belongings, items such as paintings, historical artifacts and jewellery are usually associated with the performance of royal duties and/or the decoration of royal residences. As such, these items have a cultural significance beyond that of simple artworks and jewellery, and have therefore been placed in the hands of trusts: the House of Orange-Nassau Archives Trust and the House of Orange-Nassau Historic Collections Trust. Part of the collection is on permanent loan to Het Loo Palace Museum in Apeldoorn and the Rijksmuseum in Amsterdam. Queen Juliana had sold the remaining royal palaces

and had put the cultural assets (paintings, antiques, books, etc.) into non-personal trusts.

The Crown Jewels, comprising the crown, orb and sceptre, Sword of State, royal banner, and ermine mantle have been placed in the Crown Property Trust. The trust also holds the items used on ceremonial occasions, such as the carriages, table silver, and dinner services. Placing these goods in the hands of a trust ensures that they will remain at the disposal of the monarch in perpetuity.[13] The Royal Archives house the personal archives of the royal family.[14] This includes books, photographs, and artworks, as well as the books of the House of Orange-Nassau and the music library. The library was begun in 1813, following the return of the Orange-Nassaus to the Netherlands. King William I allowed the Stadtholder's library to remain part of the Royal Library in The Hague. The library houses a collection of some 70,000 books, journals and brochures. The music library has 6,000 scores, going back to the mid 18th century.

The *Royal House Finances Act* (1972)[15] as amended in 2008 sets allowances for the King (or Queen Regnant), the Heir to the Throne, and the former sovereign who has abdicated. Provision is also made for their spouses (and in the case of death, for the surviving spouse). The allowances have two components: income (A-component) and personnel and materials (B-component). Annual increases or decreases are provided for: the A component is linked to changes in the annual salary of the Vice-President of the Council of State; the B-component is linked to changes in civil service pay and the cost of living.

In 2009, the Government decided that the annual State Budget of the Netherlands should show in a transparent way all the costs of the Royal House, some of which had previously been borne by various Government Ministries.[16] Three sets of costs are now separately allocated in the annual budget for the Royal House (Budget I of the annual State Budget). These are:

- Allowances paid under the Royal House Finances Act. They comprise the income and personnel and materials components mentioned above.
- Expenses incurred in the performance of official duties. They include costs which had been previously been borne by the budgets of three Government Ministries (Interior, Transport and Water Management, Health and Welfare) and which are now attributed to the Royal budget in the interest of transparency. They also include the costs relating to royal flights and the royal yacht, Groene Draeck.
- Other expenses relating to the management of the Royal House. They relate to expenses for the Government Information Service (AZ/RVD) in connection with the Royal House, the cost of the Royal Military Household, the Queen's Cabinet and the travel and other costs incurred by royal visits to Netherlands Antilles and Aruba

Costs relating to the security of members of the Royal House, State Visits, and the maintenance and upkeep of the Royal Palaces (which are considered to be national monuments) continue to be funded by the budgets of the appropriate Government Ministries and are not included in the budget for the Royal House.[17]

According to the State Budget for 2010, the budgetary allocation for the Royal House in 2010 is €39.643 million.[18] There are the following categories of expenditure:

- Allowances paid to the Queen, the Prince of Orange and Princess Máxima under the Royal House Finances Act. They total some €7.102 million in 2010.
- Expenses incurred in the performance of official duties. They total some €26.818 million in 2010.
- Other expenses relating to the management of the Royal House. They total some €5.723 million in 2010.

Personal wealth

In 2009, *Forbes* estimated her wealth at US$300 million but gave no details to substantiate this figure.[19]

Titles, styles, and honours

Main article: List of titles and honours of Beatrix of the Netherlands



Royal Monogram of Queen Beatrix

Queen Beatrix has held titles throughout her life, as a granddaughter or daughter of a monarch, and eventually as the Sovereign. Queen Beatrix's official title is *Her Majesty Beatrix, by the Grace of God, Queen of the Netherlands, Princess of Orange-Nassau, etc. etc. etc*. The triple 'etc.' refers to the title Princess of Lippe-Biesterfeld and many dormant titles still formally borne by the Queen. The Queen signs official documents with only "Beatrix". In common parlance she is *The Queen* or *Her Majesty*. But when in conversation with the Queen, the practice is to initially address her as "Your Majesty" or in Dutch as "Uwe Majesteit"[20] and thereafter as "Madam" or in Dutch as "Mevrouw" which is the official etiquette though she prefers to be called "Your Majesty" at all times.

Beatrix has received honours and awards from countries around the world, both during her life as princess as well as the monarch. In capacity as the Sovereign she is Grand Master of the Military Order of William (*Militaire Willemsorde*) and the other Dutch orders of merit. She is the 975th Member and Lady of the Most Noble Order of the Garter, the 1,187th Dame of the Order of the Golden Fleece in Spain and has received numerous other medals and decorations.

Coat of Arms

Main article: Coat of Arms of the Netherlands

Issue

Name	Birth	Marriage		
		Date	*Spouse*	*Issue*
Prince Willem-Alexander	27 April 1967	2 February 2002	Máxima Zorreguieta Cerruti	Princess Catharina-Amalia Princess Alexia Princess Ariane
Prince Friso	25 September 1968	24 April 2004	Mabel Wisse Smit	Countess Luana Countess Zaria
Prince Constantijn	11 October 1969	19 May 2001	Laurentien Brinkhorst	Countess Eloise Count Claus-Casimir Countess Leonore

Ancestry

See also: Dutch monarchs family tree

Prime Ministers during the Queen's reign

Prime Ministers during the Queen's reign

Polity	Prime Minister	Start year	End year
Aruba	Henny Eman	1986	1989[22]
	Nelson O. Oduber	1989	1994
	Henny Eman	1994	2001
	Nelson O. Oduber	2001	2009
	Mike Eman	2009	present
Netherlands	Dries van Agt	1977	1982
	Ruud Lubbers	1982	1994
	Wim Kok	1994	2002
	Jan Peter Balkenende	2002	2010
	Mark Rutte	2010	present
Netherlands Antilles	Dominico Martina	1979	1984
	Maria Liberia Peters	1984	1986
	Dominico Martina	1986	1988
	Maria Liberia Peters	1988	1993
	Susanne Camelia-Römer	1993	
	Alejandro Felippe Paula		
	Miguel Arcangel Pourier	1994	1998
	Susanne Camelia-Römer	1998	1999
	Miguel Arcangel Pourier	1999	2002
	Etienne Ys	2002	2003
	Ben Komproe	2003	
	Mirna Louisa-Godett	2003	2004
	Etienne Ys	2004	2006
	Emily de Jongh-Elhage	2006	2010
Curaçao	Gerrit Schotte	2010	present
Sint Maarten	Sarah Wescot-Williams	2010	present

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External links

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- Queen Beatrix: Official website (http://www.koninklijkhuis.nl/globale-paginas/taalrubrieken/english/members-of-the-royal-house/her-majesty-the-queen/)

Beatrix of the Netherlands **House of Orange-Nassau** Cadet branch of the **House of Lippe** **Born:** 31 January 1938		
Dutch royalty		
Preceded by **Princess Juliana**	**Heir to the Dutch throne** ***as heiress presumptive*** 1948–1980	Succeeded by **Willem-Alexander, Prince of Orange**
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Juliana**	**Queen of the Netherlands** 1980–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Willem-Alexander, Prince of Orange*
British royalty		
Preceded by **Huberta Deuse**	**Line of succession to the British throne**	Succeeded by **Princess Catharina-Amalia of the Netherlands**

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House of Orange-Nassau

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(February 2010)

The **House of Orange-Nassau** (in Dutch: *Huis van Oranje-Nassau*), a branch of the European House of Nassau, has played a central role in the politics and government of the Netherlands — and at times in Europe — since William I of Orange (also known as "William the Silent" and "Father of the Fatherland") organized the Dutch revolt against Spanish rule, which after the Eighty Years' War led to an independent Dutch state.

Several members of the house served during this war and after as governor or stadtholder (Dutch *stadhouder*) during the Dutch Republic. However, in 1815, after a long period as a republic, the Netherlands became a monarchy under the House of Orange-Nassau.

The dynasty was established as a result of the marriage of Hendrik III of Nassau-Breda from Germany and Claudia of Châlon-Orange from French Burgundy in 1515. Their son René inherited in 1530 the Principality of Orange from his mother's brother, Philibert of Châlon. As the first Nassau to be the Prince of Orange, René could have used "Orange-Nassau" as his new family name. However, his uncle, in his will, had stipulated that René should continue the use of the name Châlon-Orange. History knows him therefore as René of Châlon. After the death of René in 1544 his cousin William of Nassau-Dillenburg inherited all his lands. This "William I of Orange" - in English better known as William the Silent - became the founder of the House of Orange-Nassau.[1]

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House of Orange-Nassau



Royal Coat of arms of the Netherlands

Country	Netherlands, England, Scotland, Ireland, Luxembourg, Orange, Nassau
Ancestral house	House of Nassau
Titles	Count of Nassau-Dillenburg, Prince of Orange, Stadtholder of various provinces of the Dutch Republic, King of England, Scotland and Ireland, Princely Count of Nassau-Dietz, Fürst of Nassau-Orange, Fürst of Nassau-Orange-Fulda, King or Queen of the Netherlands (main title), Duke of Limburg, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, 1815-1890
Founder	William I of Orange (William the Silent)
Current head	Queen Beatrix of the Netherlands
Founding	1544
Dissolution	Since 1962 extinct in the original agnatic line

The House of Nassau [edit]

The Castle of Nassau was founded around 1100 by Count Dudo-Henry of Laurenburg (German: *Dudo-Heinrich von Laurenburg*), the founder of the House of Nassau. In 1120, Dudo-Henry's sons and successors, Counts Robert I (German: *Ruprecht*; also translated Rupert) and Arnold I of Laurenburg, established themselves at Nassau Castle with its tower. They renovated and extended the castle complex in 1124.[1]

The first man to be called the count of Nassau was Henry I, who lived in the first half of the 13th century. The Nassau family married into the family of the neighboring Counts of Arnstein (now Kloster Arnstein). His sons Walram and Otto split the Nassau possessions. The descendants of Walram became known as the Walram Line, which became Dukes of Nassau, and in 1890, the Grand Dukes of Luxembourg. The descendants of Otto became known as the Otton Line, which inherited parts of the Nassau county, properties in France, and in the Netherlands. [1]

The House of Orange-Nassau stem from the Otton Line. The second person was Engelbert I, who offered his services to the Duke of Burgundy, married in 1403 the Dutch noblewoman Johanna van Polanen and so inherited lands in the Netherlands, with the barony of Breda as the core of the Dutch possessions & the family fortune. [2]



1544 - "Orange-Nassau" symbolized by adding the "Châlon-Orange" arms in an escutcheon to the "Nassau" arms

The importance of the Nassaus grew throughout the 15th and 16th century. Generated by

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Nassau-Breda was appointed stadtholder of Holland and Zeeland by Charles of Ghent in the beginning of the 16th century. Hendrik was succeeded by his son René of Châlon-Orange in 1538, who was, as his full name stated, the Prince of Orange. When René died prematurely on the battlefield in 1544 his possessions passed to his cousin, William I of Orange. From then on, the family members called themselves "Orange-Nassau." [2][1] [3] [4]>

See also Adolf of Germany

The Dutch rebellion [edit]

Main article: Dutch Revolt

and

Main article: Eighty Years' War



"The Nassau Cavalcade", members of the house of Orange and Nassau on parade in 1621 from an engraving by Willem Delff. From left to right in the first row: Prince Maurice, Prince Philip William and Prince Frederick Henry.[5]

Although Charles V resisted the Protestant Reformation, he ruled the Dutch territories wisely with moderation and regard for local customs, and he did not persecute his Protestant subjects on a large scale. His son Philip II inherited his antipathy for the Protestants but not his moderation. Under the reign of Philip, a true persecution of Protestants was initiated and taxes were raised to an outrageous level. Discontent arose and William of Orange (with his vague Lutheran childhood) stood up for the Protestant (mainly Calvinist) inhabitants of the Netherlands. Things went badly after the Eighty Years' War started in 1568, but luck turned to his advantage when Protestant rebels attacking from the North Sea captured Brielle, a coastal town in present-day South Holland in 1572. Many cities in Holland began to support William. During the 1570s he had to defend his core territories in Holland several times, but in the 1580s the inland cities in Holland were secure. William of Orange was considered a threat to Spanish rule in the area and was assassinated in 1584 by a hired killer sent by Philip.[6] [4] [3]

William was succeeded by his second son Maurits, a Protestant who proved an excellent military commander. His abilities as a commander and the lack of strong leadership in Spain after the death of Philip II (1598) gave Maurits excellent opportunities to conquer large parts of the present-day Dutch territory. [3] [7] In 1585 Maurits was elected stadtholder of the Provinces of Holland and Zealand as his father's successor and as a counterpose to Elizabeth's delegate, the Earl of Leicester. In 1587 he was appointed captain-general (military commander-in-chief) of the armies of the Dutch Republic. In the early years of the 17th century there arose quarrels between stadtholder and oligarchist regents — a group of powerful merchants led by Johan van Oldebarnevelt — because Maurits wanted more powers in the Republic. Maurits won this power struggle by arranging the judicial murder of Oldebarnevelt. [4] [7]

Expansion of dynastic power [edit]



Willem II (1626-50), prince of Orange, and his wife Princess Maria Stuart of England (1631-60).

Maurits died unmarried in 1625 and left no legitimate children. He was succeeded by his half-brother Frederick Henry (Dutch: *Frederik Hendrik*), youngest son of William I. Maurits urged his successor on his deathbed to marry as soon as possible. A few weeks after Maurits's death, he married Amalia van Solms-Braunfels. Frederick Henry and Amalia were the parents of a son and several daughters. These daughters were married to important noble houses such as the house of Hohenzollern, but also to the Frisian Nassaus, who were stadtholders in Friesland. His only son, William, married Mary, Princess Royal and Princess of Orange, the eldest daughter of Charles I of Scotland and England. These dynastic moves were the work of Amalia. [1] [8]

Exile and resurgence [edit]

Frederick Henry died in 1647 and his son succeeded him. As the Treaty of Munster was about to be signed, thereby ending the Eighty Years War, William tried to extend his powers beyond the military to make his function valuable at peace, at the great distress of the regents. When Andries Bicker and Cornelis de Graeff, the great regents of the city of Amsterdam refused some mayors he appointed, he besieged Amsterdam. The siege provoked the wrath of the regents. William died of smallpox on November 6, 1650, leaving only a posthumous son, William III (*November 14, 1650). Since there was no Prince of Orange upon the death of William II, the regents used this opportunity to leave the stadtholdership vacant. This inaugurated the era in Dutch history that is known as the First Stadtholderless Period. [9] A quarrel about the education of the young prince arose between his mother and his grandmother Amalia (who outlived her husband by 28 years). Amalia wanted an education which was pointed at the resurgence of the House of Orange to power, but Mary wanted a pure English education. The Estates of Holland, under Jan de Witt and Cornelis de Graeff, meddled in the education and made William a "child of state" to be educated by the state. The doctrine used in this education was keeping William from the throne. William became indeed very docile to the wishes of the regents and the Estates. [8] [9]

The Dutch Republic was attacked by France and England in 1672. The military function of stadtholder was no longer superfluous, and with the support of the Orangists, William was restored, and he became the stadtholder as "William III". William successfully repelled the invasion and seized royal power. He became more powerful than his predecessors from the Eighty Years War. [8] [9] In 1677, William married his cousin Mary Stuart, the daughter of the future king James II of England. In 1688, William embarked on a mission to depose his Catholic father-in-law from the thrones of England, Scotland and Ireland. He and his wife were crowned the King and Queen of England on April 11, 1689. With the accession to the thrones of the three kingdoms, he became one of the most powerful sovereigns in Europe, and the only one to defeat Louis XIV of France. [8] Many members of the House of Orange were devoted admirers of the King-Stadtholder afterwards. [3] William III died childless after a riding accident on March 8, 1702, leaving the House of Orange extinct, and leaving Scotland, England and Ireland to his sister-in-law Queen Anne.

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The second stadtholderless era [edit]

The regents found that they had suffered under the powerful leadership of King William III and declared the stadtholdership vacant for the second time. Since William III died childless in 1702 the principality became a matter of dispute between Prince John William Friso of Nassau-Dietz of the Frisian Nassaus and King Frederick I of Prussia, who both claimed the title Prince of Orange. Both descended from Frederick Henry, Prince of Orange. The King of Prussia was his grandson through his mother, Countess Luise Henriette of Nassau. Frederick Henry in his will had appointed this line as successor in the case the main House of Orange-Nassau would die out. John William Friso was a great-grandson of Frederick Henry and was appointed heir in William III's will. The principality was captured by the forces of King Louis XIV of France under François Adhémar de Monteil, Count of Grignan, in the Franco-Dutch War in 1672, and again in August 1682. With the Treaty of Utrecht that ended the wars of Louis XIV, the territory was finally ceded to France by Frederick I in 1713. The treaty also decided that both claimants and their descendents were allowed to bear the title. [2] John William Friso drowned in 1711 in the Hollands Diep near Moerdijk, and he left his posthumously-born son Willem IV of Nassau. William IV was proclaimed the stadtholder of Guelders, Overijssel, Drenthe, and Utrecht in 1722. When the French invaded Holland in 1747, William IV was restored as the stadtholder of the entire Dutch Republic, hereditary in both the male and the female lines. [1]



The collateral house of Nassau: the four brothers of Willem I, prince of Orange: Jan (1536-1606), sitting, Hendrik (1550-74), Adolf (1540-68) and Lodewijk (1538-74), counts of Nassau.

The end of the republic [edit]

William IV died in 1751, leaving his three-year-old son, Willem V of Orange, as the stadtholder. Since Willem V was still a minor, the regents reigned for him. He developed to be an indecisive person, a character defect which would follow Willem V for his whole life. His marriage to Wilhelmina of Prussia relieved this defect to some degree. In 1787, Willem V survived a coup by the Patriots (democratic revolutionaries) after the Kingdom of Prussia intervened. When the French invaded Holland in 1795, Willem V was forced to flee, and he was never to return to Holland. [1] [3]

After 1795, the House of Orange-Nassau faced a difficult period, surviving in exile at other European courts, especially those of Prussia and of England. In 1802 William V's son William VI unconditionally renounced the stadtholdership in return for a few territories from Napoleon Bonaparte (Treaty of Amiens), which was erected into the Principality of Nassau-Orange-Fulda. [3] [10] Willem V died in 1806.

The Monarchy (since 1815) [edit]

A new spirit: the United Kingdom of the Netherlands [edit]

After a repressed Dutch rebel action, Prussian and Cossack troops drove out the French in 1813, with the support of the Patriots of 1785. Although most of the leaders were the same men who had driven out William V, it was virtually taken that any new government would have to be headed by his son, William VI, prince of Orange (known in Dutch as *Willem Frederik*). All agreed that it would be better in the long term for the Dutch to restore William themselves rather than have him imposed by the allies. [1]

At the invitation of the provisional government, William VI returned to the Netherlands on November 30. This move was strongly supported by the United Kingdom, which sought ways to strengthen the Netherlands and deny future French aggressors easy access to the Low Countries' Channel ports. On December 6, William proclaimed himself hereditary sovereign prince of the Netherlands (having previously declined the offer of kingship considering a stadtholdership could give him more power). In 1814 the former Austrian Netherlands (now Belgium) was added to his realm. On March 15, 1815 with the support of the powers gathered at the Congress of Vienna, William proclaimed himself King William I. He was also made grand duke of Luxembourg, and the title 'Prince of Orange' was changed to 'Prince of Oranje'. The two countries remained separate despite sharing a common monarch. [3]

As king of the United Kingdom of the Netherlands, William tried to establish one common culture. This provoked resistance in the southern parts of the country, which had been culturally separate from the north since 1581. He was considered an enlightened despot.[3]

The Prince of Orange held rights to Nassau lands (Dillenburg, Dietz, Beilstein, Hadamar, Siegen) in central Germany. On the other hand the King of Prussia, Frederick William III--brother-in-law and first cousin of William I, had beginning from 1813 managed to establish his rule in Luxembourg, which he regarded as his inheritance from Anne, Duchess of Luxembourg who had died over three centuries earlier. At the Congress of Vienna, the two brothers-in-law agreed to a trade—Frederick William received William I's ancestral lands while William I received Luxembourg. Both got what was geographically nearer to their center of power.[3]

In 1830 Belgium declared its independence and William fought a disastrous war until 1839 when he was forced to settle for peace. With his realm halved, he decided to abdicate in 1840. Royal power was curbed during the reign of his son William II in a constitution ordered by the King to prevent the Revolution of 1848 from spreading to his country.[3]

William III and the threat of extinction [edit]

William II died in 1849. He was succeeded by his son, King William III, a rather conservative, even a reactionary man. William III was sharply opposed to the new 1848 constitution, and he continually tried to form his own royal governments. In 1868, he tried to sell Luxembourg to France, which was the source of a quarrel between Prussia and France.[3]

Dutch Royalty
House of Orange-Nassau



William I

Children

William II

Prince Frederick

Princess Paulina

Marianne, Princess Albert of Prussia

Grandchildren

Louise, Queen of Sweden and Norway

Prince William

Prince Frederick

Marie, Princess of Wied

William II

Children

William III

Prince Alexander

Prince Henry

Prince Ernest Casimir

Sophie, Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach

William III

Children

William, Prince of Orange

Prince Maurice

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William III had a rather unhappy marriage with Sophie of Württemberg, and his heirs died young. This raised the possibility of the extinction of the House of Orange-Nassau. After the death of Queen Sophie in 1877, William remarried, to Emma of Waldeck and Pyrmont in 1879. One year later, Queen Emma gave birth to their daughter and the royal heiress, Wilhelmina. [3]

Since females were not allowed to hold power in Luxembourg, due to Salic law, Luxembourg passed to the House of Nassau-Weilburg, a collateral line to the House of Orange. The Dutch Royal Family faced the threat of a complete extinction until 1909, when Wilhemina gave birth to her daughter, Juliana. The Dutch royal house remained quite small until the latter 1930s and the early 1940s, during which Juliana gave birth to four children. Although the House of Orange died out in its male line with the death of Queen Wilhelmina, the name "Orange" continues to be used by the Dutch royalty.[3]

A modern monarchy [edit]

Wilhelmina was queen of the Netherlands for 58 years, from 1890 to 1948. Because she was only 10 years old in 1890, her mother, Queen Emma, was the regent until Wilhelmina's 18th birthday in 1898. The Netherlands remained neutral in World War I, during her reign, and this country was not invaded by Germany, as neighboring Belgium was. [11][*dead link*]

Nevertheless, Queen Wilhelmina became a symbol of the Dutch resistance during World War II. The moral authority of the Monarchy was restored because of her rule. After fifty years on the throne as the Queen, Wilhelmina decided to abdicate in favour of her daughter, Juliana. Juliana had the reputation of making the monarchy less "aloof", and under her reign the Monarchy became known as the "cycling monarchy". Members of the royal family were often seen bicycling through the cities and the countryside under Juliana. [11]

A royal marriage policy quarrel occurred starting in 1966, when the future Queen Beatrix decided to marry Claus von Amsberg, a German diplomat. The marriage of a member of the royal family to a German was quite controversial in the Netherlands, which had suffered under Nazi German occupation in 1940 - 45. This reluctance to accept a German consort probably was exacerbated by von Amsberg's former membership in the Hitler Youth under the Nazi regime in his native country, and also his following service in the German Wehrmacht.[11]

Permission was needed from the civilian government for Beatrix to marry anyone, but after some argument, it was granted. As the years went by, Prince Claus was fully accepted by the Dutch people. In time, he became one of the most popular members of the Dutch monarchy, and his death in 2002 was widely mourned.[11]

On April 30, 1980, Queen Juliana abdicated in favor of her daughter, Beatrix. In the early years of the twenty-first century, the Dutch monarchy seems to be popular with a large part of the population. The first-born son of Beatrix and her husband, Prince Claus, Crown Prince Willem-Alexander, was born on April 27, 1967 - the first male heir to the Dutch throne in almost 100 years. Willem-Alexander married Máxima Zorreguieta in 2002. They are already the parents of three daughters: Catharina-Amalia, Alexia, and Ariane. When Beatrix of the Netherlands passes away, or abdicates the throne, the Crown Prince will take the throne, most likely as King William IV. [11]

After a long struggle with neurological illness, Queen Juliana died on March 20, 2004, and her husband, Prince Bernhard, died on December 1 of that same year.[11]

Alexander, Prince of Orange
Wilhelmina
Wilhelmina
Children
Juliana
Juliana
Children
Beatrix
Princess Irene
Princess Margriet
Princess Christina
Beatrix
Children
Willem-Alexander, Prince of Orange
Prince Friso
Prince Constantijn
Grandchildren
Princess Catharina-Amalia
Princess Alexia
Princess Ariane
Countess Luana
Countess Zaria
Countess Eloise
Count Claus-Casimir
Countess Leonore

The Royal Family and the Royal House [edit]

A distinction is made in the Netherlands between the royal family and the Royal House.

The royal family is the Orange-Nassau family. This includes people born into the family or who have married into the family. They are entitled to bear the title "prince or princess of Oranje-Nassau." However, not every member of which is a member of the Royal House, and entitled to bear the designation "prince or princess of the Netherlands". By Act of Parliament, the members of the Royal House are [11]:

- the monarch (King or Queen);
- the former monarch (on abdication);
- the members of the royal family in the line of succession to the throne;
- the spouses of the above.

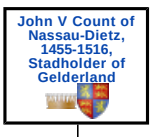
Members of the Royal House can lose their membership and designation as prince or princess of the Netherlands if they marry without the consent of the Dutch Parliament. For example, this happened with Prince Friso when he married Mabel Wisse Smit. This is written down explicitly in the part of the constitution of the Netherlands that controls the Monarchy of the Netherlands.[11]

Family Tree [edit]

The house of Orange and Nassau is traceable to the 10th century, and a detailed family tree can be found at [1]. A detailed family tree of the House of Orange-Nassau from the 15th century can be found on the Dutch Wikipedia at at Dutch monarchs family tree.

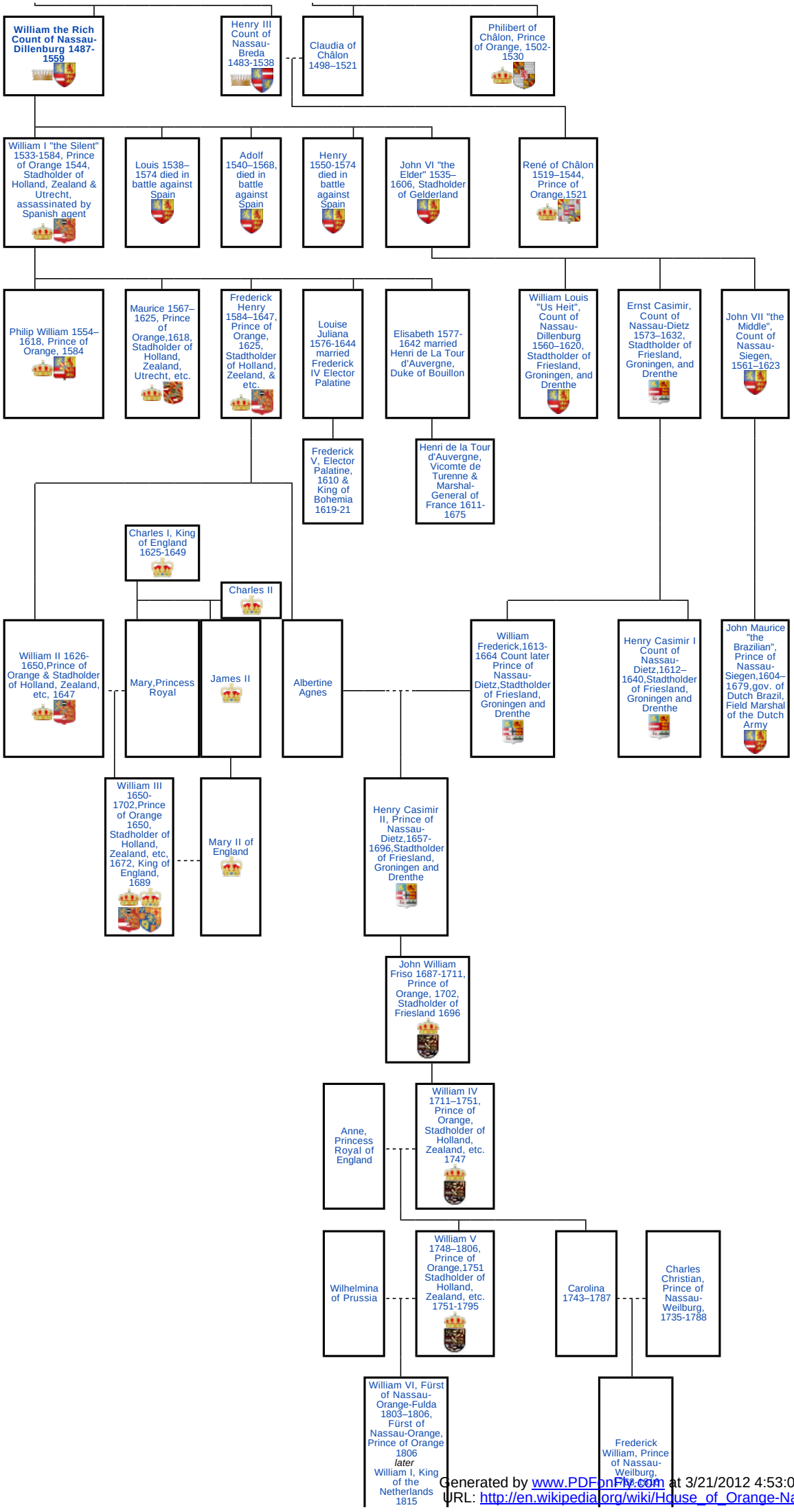
A summary family tree of the House of Orange-Nassau[11]from the joining of the house of Nassau-Breda/Dillenburg and the House of Châlon-Arlay to the end of the Dutch Republic. The family spawned many famous statesmen and generals, including two of the acknowledged "first captains of their age", Maurice of Nassau and the Marshal de Turenne.

}

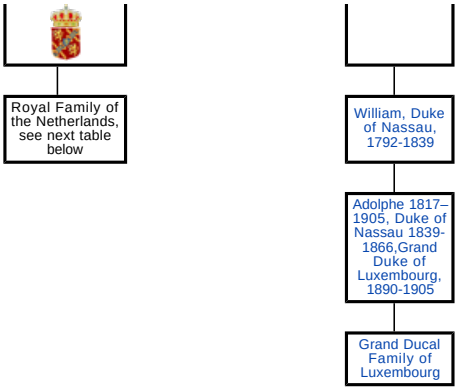




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The house of Orange-Nassau was relatively unlucky in establishing a hereditary dynasty in an age that favoured hereditary rule. The Stuarts and the Bourbons came to power at the same time as the Oranges, and the Vasas were able to establish a hereditary kingship in Sweden. The House of Orange was no less gifted than those houses, in fact, some might argue more so, as their ranks included some the foremost statesmen and captains of the time. Although the institutions of the United Provinces became more republican and entrenched as time went on, William the Silent had been offered the countship of Holland and Zealand, and only his assassination prevented his accession to those offices. This fact did not go unforgotten by his successors.[1]

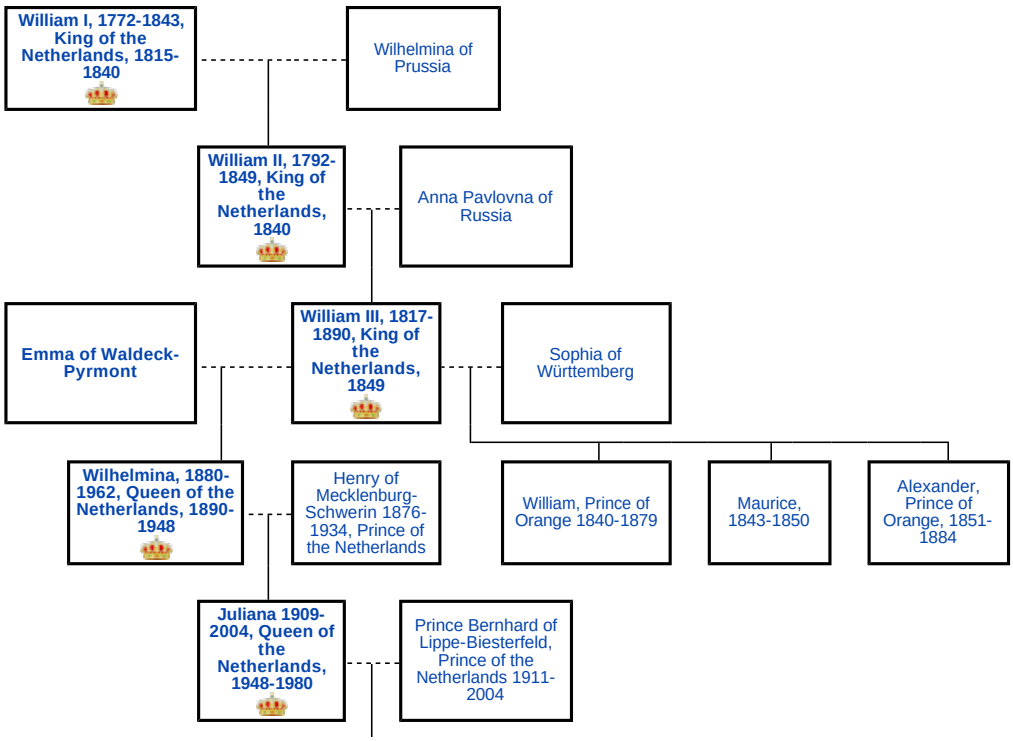
The Prince of Orange was also not just another noble among equals in the Netherlands. First, he was the traditional leader of the nation in war and in rebellion against Spain. He was uniquely able to transcend the local issues of the cities, towns and provinces. He was also a soveriegn ruler in his own right (see Prince of Orange article). This gave him a great deal of prestige, even in a republic. He was the center of a real court like the Stuarts and Bourbons, French speaking, and extravagant to a scale. It was natural for foreign ambassadors and dignitaries to present themselves to him and consult with him as well as to the States General to which they were officially credited. The marriage policy of the princes, allying themselves twice with the Royal Stuarts, also gave them acceptance into the royal caste of rulers.[12]



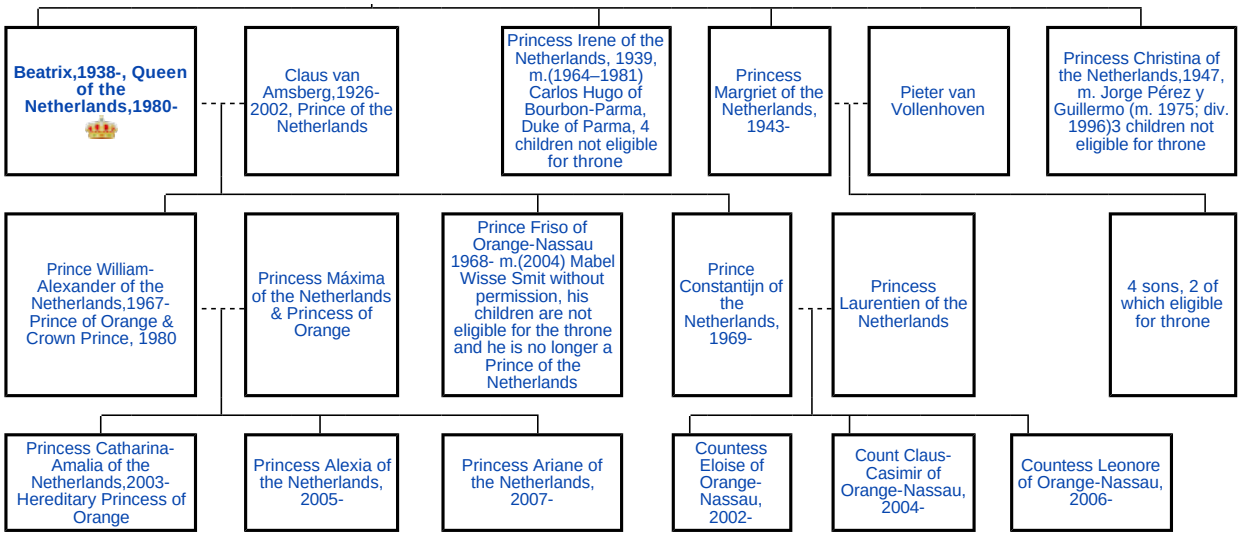
Painting by Willem van Honthorst (1662), showing four generations of Princes of Orange: William I, Maurice and Frederick Henry, William II, and William III.

Besides showing the relationships among the family, the tree above then also points out an extraordinary run of bad luck. In the 211 years from the death of William the Silent to the conquest by France, there was only one time that a son directly succeeded his father as Prince of Orange, Stadholder and Captain-General without a minority (William II). When the Oranges were in power, they also tended to settle for the actualities of power, rather than the appearances, which increasingly tended to upset the ruling regents of the towns and cities. On being offered the dukedom of Gelderland by the States of that province, William III let the offer lapse as liable to raise too much opposition in the other provinces.[12]:75–83

In 1814, William VI of Orange became King of the Netherlands. The institution of the monarch in the Netherlands is considered an office under the Dutch Constitution. There are none of the religious connotations to the office as in some other monarchies. A Dutch sovereign is inaugurated rather than crowned/"coronated". It was initially more of a crowned/hereditary presidency, and a continuation of the status quo ante of the pre-1795 hereditary stadholderate in the republic. In practice today, the monarch has considerably less power. This summary genealogical tree shows how the now Royal house of Orange-Nassau is related[11]:



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Coats of Arms [edit]

The gallery below show the coats of arms used by members of the house of Orange-Nassau. Their growing complexity and use of crowns shows how arms are used to reflect the growing political position and royal aspirations of the family. A much more complete armorial is given at the Armorial de la Maison de Nassau, section Lignée Ottonienne at the French Wikipedia, and another one at Wapen van Nassau, Tak van Otto at the Dutch Wikipedia.

The ancestral coat of arms of the Ottonian line of the house of Nassau is shown below. Their distant cousins of the Walramian line added a red coronet to distinguish them. There is no specific documentation in the literature on the origin of the arms. The lion was always a popular noble symbol, originating as a symbol of nobility, power, and royal aspirations in western culture going all the way back to Hercules. Blue because of its nearness to purple in the northern climes (red was the other choice) was a also a popular color for those with royal aspirations. The billets could have been anything from blocks of wood to abstractions of the reenforcements holding the shield together. The fact that these were arms were very similar to those of the counts of Burgundy (Franche-Comté) did not seem to cause too much confusion.



Arms of the Ottonian Branch of the House of Nassau.[13]



Achievement of the Ottonian Branch House of Nassau (since the 13th century).[14]

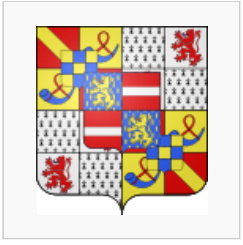
Henry III of Nassau-Breda came to the Netherlands in 1499 as heir to his uncle, Engelbrecht II of Nassau-Breda. His and his uncle's arms are shown below. When Philbert, prince of Orange died in 1530, his sister's son René of Breda inherited the Princedom of Orange on condition that he used the name and coat of arms of the Châlon-Orange family. History knows him therefore as René of Châlon instead of as "René of Nassau-Breda." The 1st and 4th grand quarters show the arms of the Chalons-Arlay (the gold bend) princes of Orange (the bugle). The blue and gold cross is the arms of Jeanne of Geneva, who married one of the Chalons princes. The 2nd and 3rd show the quarterings of Brittany and Luxembourg-St. Pol. The inescutcheon overall is his paternal arms quarterd of Nassau and Breda.[2] William the Silent's father, William the Rich, was rich only in children. He bore the arms shown below. Clockwise from upper left they displayed the arms of Nassau (1st quarter), Katzenelenbogen (3rd quarter), Dietz (2nd quarter), Vianden (4th quarter).



Arms of Engelbrecht II and Henry III of Nassau-Breda. [14]



Arms of the counts of Nassau-Dietz, one of the cadet lines.[14]



Coat of arms of Rene of Chalons as Prince of Orange.[14]



Arms of William the Rich, count of Nassau-Dillenburg.[14]

The princes of Orange in the 16th and 17th century used the following sets of arms. On becoming prince of Orange, William placed the Châlon-Arlay arms in the center ("as an inescutcheon") of his father's arms. He used these arms until 1582 when he purchased the marquisate of Veere and Vlissingen. It had been the property of Philip II since 1567, but had fallen into arrears to the province. In 1580 the Court of Holland ordered it sold. William bought it as it gave him two more votes in the States of Zeeland. He owned the government of the two towns, and so could appoint their magistrates. He already had one as First Noble for Philip William, who had inherited Maartensdijk. This made William the predominant member of the States of Zeeland. It was a smaller version of the countship of Zeeland (& Holland) promised to William, and was a potent political base for his descendants. William then added the shield of Veere and Buren

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to his arms as shown in the arms of Frederick Henry, William II and William III with the arms of the marquisate in the top center, and the arms of the county of Buren in the bottom center. William also started the tradition of keeping the number of billets in the upper left quarter for Nassau at 17 to symbolize the original 17 provinces of the Burgundian/Habsburg Netherlands, which he always hoped would form one united nation.[1]



Coat of arms of William the Silent as Prince of Orange from 1544 to 1582, and his eldest son Philip William[14]



The coat of arms used by Maurice showing the county of Moers (top left center and bottom right center) and his mother's arms of Saxony (center)[12][15][16]



The coat of arms used by William the Silent from 1582 until his death, Frederick Henry, William II, and William III as Prince of Orange[14]



An alternate coat of arms sometimes used by Frederick Henry, William II, and William III as Prince of Orange showing the county of Moers in the top center rather than Veere.[17]



Coat of arms of King William III of England as King of England.

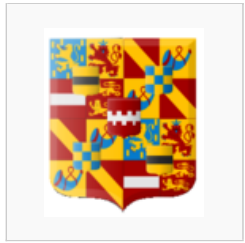
The princes of Orange also had personal arms before they became reigning prince. Maurice never changed his as he rarely used the tile of "Prince of Orange". Some others are:



Personal arms of Frederick Henry before becoming Prince of Orange. At the center is his mother's arms of Coligny.



Alternate personal arms of Frederick Henry before becoming Prince of Orange. At the center is his mother's arms of Coligny.



Personal arms of William II of Orange before becoming Prince of Orange. At the center are the arms of the County of Buren.

The main house of Orange-Nassau also spawned several illegitimate branches. These branches contributed to the political and economic history of England and the Netherlands. Justinus van Nassau was the only extramarital child of William of Orange. He was a Dutch army commander known for unsuccessfully defending Breda against the Spanish, and the depiction of his surrender on the famous picture by Diego Velázquez, *The Surrender of Breda*. Louis of Nassau, Lord of De Lek and Beverweerd was a younger illegitimate son of Prince Maurice and Margaretha van Mechelen. His descendants were Counts of Nassau-LaLecq. One of his sons was the famous general Henry de Nassau, Lord of Overkirk, King William III's Master of the Horse, and one of the most trusted generals of John Churchill, 1st Duke of Marlborough. His descendants became the Earls of Grantham in England. Frederick van Nassau, Lord of Zuylestein, an illegitimate son of Frederick Henry, Prince of Orange, gave rise to the Earls of Rochford in England. The 4th earl of Rochford was a famous English diplomat and a statesman.



Arms of Justinus van Nassau.[14]



Arms of the branch Nassau-LaLecq.[14]



Arms of the branch Nassau-Zuylestein.[14]

The house of Orange-Nassau also had many younger branches in the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries descended from William the Silent's younger brother Count John of Nassau-Dillenburg. The division and re-uniting of this patrimony is complex and outlined at the article on

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the County of Nassau-Dillenburg. One branch, the Nassau-Dietz branch in the 17th century, succeeded to the Dutch title of prince of Orange and the stadholderate in the 18th century. They also survived the other braches and inherited the whole German patrimony. The arms are:[18]



Arms of the counts, later princes of Nassau-Dietz. They were usually elected stadholders of Friesland, and sometimes Groningen. They gave rise to the kings of the Netherlands. They show the county of Spiegelberg and the baronie of Liesveld on the bottom.[19]



Arms of the Princes of Nassau-Dietz (Henry Casimir II)at the end of the 17th century with the cross of the Teutonic Order in the center.[19]



Through the marriage in 1646 of Henry of Nassau-Siegen and Maria Magdalena of Limburg-Styrum the lordship of Wisch came into de protestant line of the house of Nassau-Siegen. The center shield shows Limburg-Styrum, with the county of Limburg in the 1st quarter, and then clockwise the lordships of Bronkhorst, Borculo, and Wisch.



Arms of the counts, later princes of Nassau-Siegen. They use the arms of Nassau-Dillenburg. These were used by Johm Maurice "the Brazilian" as well as the branch of the Nassau-Siegens that went back to loyalty to the King of Spain and resided in Brussels.

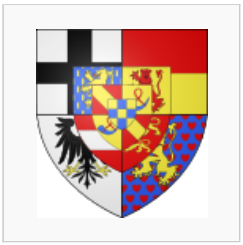


Arms of the counts, later princes of Nassau-Schaumburg, showing the county of Holzapfel-Schaumburg in the center.

When John William Friso became Prince of Orange, he used the arms below. However, he was never recognized outside of Holland and areas friendly to Holland as Prince of Orange. His son, William IV, recognized as Prince of Orange, seems to have used the original arms of William the Silent.[18] When the princes of Orange fled the Netherlands during the Batavian Republic and the Kingdom of Holland, and when France occupied the Netherlands, they were compensated by Napoleon with the Principality of Nassau-Orange-Fulda. These principalities were confiscated when Napoleon invaded Germany (1806) and William VI supported his Prussian relatives. He succeeded his father as prince of Orange later that year, after William V's death.



Arms of Johan Willem Friso as Prince of Orange.[19]



Arms of William VI of Orange as prince of Orange-Nassau-Fulda. The bottom most shield shows clockwise from top left the principality of Fulda, the lordship of Corvey, the county of Weingarten, and the lordship of Dortmund.[18]

When William VI of Orange returned to the Netherlands in 1813 and was proclaimed Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands, he quartered the former Arms of the Dutch Republic (1st and 4th quarter) with the "Châlon-Orange" arms (2nd and 3rd quarter), which had come to symbolize Orange. As an inescutcheon he placed his ancestral arms of Nassau. When he became King in 1815, he combined the Dutch Republic Lion with the billets of the Nassau arms and added a royal crown to from the Coat of arms of the Netherlands. In 1907, Queen Wilhelmina replaced the royal crown on the arms with a coronet.

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Arms of the States-General of the Dutch Republic. The sword symbolizes the determination to defend the nation, and the bundle of 7 arrows the unity of the 7 United Provinces of the Dutch Republic.



Arms of William VI as sovereign prince of the Netherlands.[14]



First arms of the Kingdom and Kings of the Netherlands from 1815-1907.[11]



Arms of the Kingdom and Kings of the Netherlands since 1907.[11]

Wilhelmina further decreted that in perpetuit her descendants should be styled "princes and princesses of Orange-Nassau" and that the name of the house would be "Orange-Nassau" (in Dutch "Oranje-Nassau". Only those members of the members of the Dutch Royal House that are part of the smaller "Royal Family" can use the title of prince or princess of the Netherlands.[11] Since then, individual members of the House of Orange-Nassau are also given their own arms by the reigning monarch, similar to the United Kingdom. This is usually the royal arms, quartered with the arms of the principality of Orange, and an inescutcheon of their paternal arms.



Personal coat of arms of William Alexander and his brothers. [11]



Personal arms of Juliana. The inescutcheon is her father's arms of Mecklenburg. [11]



Personal arms of Beatrix and her sisters. The inescutcheon is their father's arms of Lippe. [11]



Personal Arms of the children of princess Margriet of the Netherlands (Princes Maurice, Bernhard, Floris and Pieter-Christian). The inescutcheon is their father's arms of van Vollenhoven. [11]

Standards [edit]

The Dutch Royal Family also makes extensive use of royal standards that are based on their coats of arms, but not identical to them (as the British Royal Family does). Some examples from the Royal Family's website are:[11]

The standards of the ruling king or queen:



Royal Flag of the Netherlands until 1908



Current Royal Standard of the Netherlands

The standards of the current sons of Queen Beatrix and their wives and the Queen's husband:



Royal Sandard of the Princes of the Netherlands (Sons of Queen Beatrix)



Standard of Claus von Amsberg as Royal consort of the Netherlands



Standard of Princess Maxima of the Netherlands



Standard of Princess Laurentien of the Netherlands

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The standards of the sisters of Queen Beatrix and their children:



Standard of the Princesses of the Netherlands (Daughters of Queen Juliana)



Standard of the Princes of Oranje-Nassau (Sons of Princess Margriet)

The standards of former members of the Royal Family:



Standard of Juliana of the Netherlands as Princess



Standard of Bernhard of Lippe-Biesterfeld as Royal consort of the Netherlands



Standard of Hendrik of Mecklenburg-Schwerin as Royal consort of the Netherlands



Standard of Queen Mother Emma of the Netherlands



Standard of Marie of Wied, Princess of the Netherlands

Monograms [edit]

As most Royal Families, the Dutch Royal Family also makes use of royal monograms. Some examples from the Royal Family's website are:[11]

The monograms of the ruling kings or queens:



Queen Beatrix



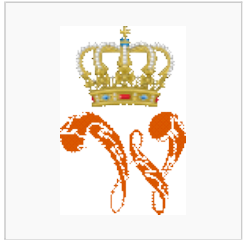
Queen Juliana



Queen Juliana, Variant



Queen Wilhelmina



William I-III



William I

The monograms of some members of the Royal Family;

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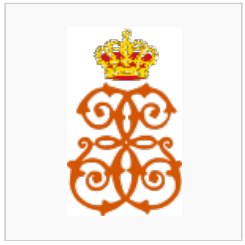
Queen Anna Pavlovna



Queen Sophie



Queen Emma



Queen Emma, Variant



Prince Henry



Prince Bernhard



Queen Juliana and Prince Bernhard



Prince Claus



Prince Willem-Alexander



Princess Maxima



Willem-Alexander and Maxima



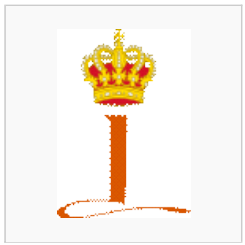
Prince Friso



Prince Friso and Princess Mabel



Prince Constantijn



Princess Laurentien



Prince Constantijn and Princess Laurentien

See also

[edit]

For further about the Dutch Monarchy and the Dutch Royal House:

- Dutch monarchy
- House of Nassau
- Prince of Orange
- Orange Institution
- William III of England

Traditionally, members of the Nassau family were buried in Breda, but as that city was in Spanish hands when William died, he was buried in a new crypt the New Church in Delft. His monument on his tomb was originally very modest, but it was replaced in 1623 by a new one, made by Hendrik de Keyser and his son Pieter. Since then, most of the members of the **House of Orange-Nassau**, including all Dutch monarchs have been buried in the same church. His great-grandson William the third, King of England and Scotland and Stadtholder in the Netherlands, was buried in Westminster Abbey

- Crypt of the House of Orange-Nassau in Delft
- Burial Monument to William the Silent
- Crypt of the Frisian Nassaus in Leeuwarden
- Crypt of the Nassau-LaLecqs in Ouderkerk aan den IJssel
- Original Crypt of Netherland Nassaus in Breda
- Crypt of Engelbrecht II van Nassau in Breda
- Crypt of the Nassau-Bergens in Bergen
- Crypt of the Nassau-Siegens in Siegen

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6. ^ Motley, John Lothrop (1855). *The Rise of the Dutch Republic*. Harper & Brothers.
7. ^ a b Motley, John Lothrop (1860). *History of the United Netherlands from the Death of William the Silent to the Synod of Dort*. London: John Murray.
8. ^ a b c d Geyl, Pieter (2002). *Orange and Stuart 1641-1672* (reprint ed.). Phoenix.
9. ^ a b c Rowen, Herbert H. (1978). *John de Witt, grand pensionary of Holland, 1625-1672*. Princeton University Press.
10. ^ He acquired Fulda, Corvey, Weingarten and Dortmund. He lost the possessions again after changing sides from France to Prussia in 1806. Cf. J. and A. Romein 'Erflaters van onze beschaving', Querido, 1979
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16. ^ Rietstap, Johannes Baptist (1861). *Armorial général, contenant la description des armoiries des familles nobles et patriciennes de l'Europe: précédé d'un dictionnaire des termes du blason*. G.B. van Goor. p. 746. "a la exception de celebre prince Maurice qui portai les armes ..."
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19. ^ a b c ""Coat of Arms as depicted on the "Familiegraf van de Oranje-Nassau's in de Grote of Jacobijnerkerk te Leeuwarden"". *Familiegraf van de Oranje-Nassau's in de Grote of Jacobijnerkerk te Leeuwarden*. Retrieved 9 November 2011.

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(January 2008)

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- Pieter Geyl, "Orange and Stuart 1641-1672" Phoenix Press, 2002>

External links [edit]

- Dutch Royal House – official website

— Royal house — House of Orange-Nassau		
Vacant Title last held by **House of Habsburg-Lorraine** ***as ruling house of the Duchy of Luxembourg***	**Ruling house of Luxembourg** 1815–1890	Succeeded by **House of Nassau-Weilburg**
Vacant Title last held by **House of Bonaparte** ***as ruling house of the Kingdom of Holland***	**Ruling house of the Netherlands** 1815–	Succeeded by **Incumbent**

VTE	**Royal houses of Europe**
Nordic countries	
Denmark	Early Danish Kings House of Pomerania Palatinate-Neumarkt Oldenburg Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
Finland	Kainuu Bjelbo Mecklenburg Oldenburg Vasa Pfalz-Zweibrücken Hesse Holstein-Gottorp Romanov
Norway	Fairhair House of Pomerania Palatinate-Neumarkt Oldenburg Bernadotte Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
Sweden	Munsö Stenkil Sverker Eric Bjelbo Mecklenburg House of Pomerania Palatinate-Neumarkt Oldenburg Vasa Palatinate-Zweibrücken Hesse-Kassel Holstein-Gottorp Bernadotte
United Kingdom	
England	Mercia Wuffing Kent Sussex Essex Bernicia Deira Northumbria Uí Ímair Wessex Denmark Normandy Plantagenet Lancaster York Tudor Stuart **Orange-Nassau**
Scotland	Fergus Óengus Strathclyde Mann and the Isles Alpin Northumbria Bernicia Uí Ímair Galloway Dunkeld Fairhair Balliol Bruce Stuart **Orange-Nassau**
Wales	Dinefwr Aberffraw Gwynedd Mathrafal Cunedda

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Ireland	Ulaid Dál Cuinn/Connachta Laigin Uí Fidgenti Uí Liatháin Eóganachta (including Mac Cárthaigh) Dáirine / Érainn (including Corcu Loígde) Dál gCais Bruce Tudor Stuart **Orange-Nassau**
Great Britain	Stuart Hanover Saxe-Coburg and Gotha Windsor
Eastern Europe	
Albania	Angevin Arianiti Kastrioti Wied Osman Zogu
Armenia	Orontid Artaxiad Arsacid Bagratid Artsruni Rubenids Hethumids Lusignans Savoy Romanov
Bosnia	Kotromanić Osman Habsburg-Lorraine
Bulgaria	Dulo Cometopuli Asen Terter Shishman Osman Battenberg Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Croatia	Trpimirović Domagojević Svačić Árpád Angevin Osman Luxembourg Habsburg Habsburg-Lorraine Bonaparte *Savoy* *(disputed)*
Georgia	Mukhrani Bagrationi Romanov
Greece	Doukas Komnenos Angelos Laskaris Palaeologos Osman Wittelsbach Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
Moldavia	Bogdan-Muşat Movileşti Drăculeşti Ghica Cantacuzene Cantemireşti Romanov Racoviță Mavrocordato Ypsilanti Soutzos Mourousi Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen House of Basarab
Montenegro	Vojislavljević Balšić Crnojević Petrović
Romania	House of Basarab Bogdan-Muș at Movileș ti Drăculeș ti Ghica Cantacuzene Cantemireș ti Romanov Racoviț ă Mavrocordato Ypsilantis Soutzos Mourousi Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen Romania/Royal Family
Russia	Rurikovich Borjigin Godunov Shuysky Vasa Romanov
Serbia	Vlastimirović Vojislavljević Vukanović Nemanjić Lazarević Branković Balšić Crnojević Obrenović Osman Karađorđević
Turkey	Seljuq Osman
Ukraine	Rurikovich Gediminids Giray Romanov Habsburg-Lorraine
Western Europe	
Austria	Babenberg Habsburg Habsburg-Lorraine
Belgium	Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Bohemia	Přemyslid Luxembourg Jagiellon Habsburg Habsburg-Lorraine
France	Merovingian Carolingian Capet Valois Bourbon Bonaparte Orléans
Germany	Ascania Carolingian Conradines Ottonian Luitpolding Salian Hohenstaufen Welf Habsburg Hanover Saxe-Coburg and Gotha Nassau Luxembourg Wittelsbach Schwarzburg Brunswick-Lüneburg House of Pomerania Hohenzollern Württemberg Oldenburg Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg **Orange-Nassau** Nassau-Weilburg Mecklenburg Vasa Pfalz-Zweibrücken Hesse Holstein-Gottorp Romanov Bonaparte Wettin Schwarzburg Lippe
Hungary	Árpád Přemyslid Wittelsbach Angevin Luxembourg Hunyadi Jagiellon Szapolyai Habsburg Habsburg-Lorraine
Gaelic Ireland	Laigin Síl Conairi Ulaid Dáirine Osraige Cruthin Dál nAraidi Connachta Uí Fiachrach Uí Briúin Uí Néill Síl nÁedo Sláine Clann Cholmáin Eóganachta Chaisil Glendamnach Raithlind Uí Dúnlainge Uí Ímair (Norse) Uí Ceinnselaig Dál gCais Ó Briain Mac Carthaig Ó Conchobhair Ó Ruairc De Burgh (Norman) FitzGerald (Norman) Ó Domhnaill Ó Néill
Italy	Este Savoy Colonna Medici Borghese Sforza Borromeo Montefeltro Orsini Visconti Gonzaga Farnese Della Rovere Acciaioli Grimaldi Pamphili Barberini Malatesta Gens Iulia Torlonia Bonaparte Murat Bourbon-Parma Bourbon-Two Sicilies
Liechtenstein	Liechtenstein
Lithuania	Mindaugas Gediminids Jagiellon Valois Bathory Vasa Wiśniowiecki Sobieski Wettin Leszczyński Poniatowski Romanov
Luxembourg	**Orange-Nassau** Nassau-Weilburg Bourbon-Parma
Monaco	Grimaldi
Netherlands	Bonaparte **Orange-Nassau**
Poland	Piast Přemyslid Samborides Griffins Jagiellon Valois Bathory Vasa Wiśniowiecki Sobieski Wettin Leszczyński Poniatowski Romanov
Portugal	Vímara Peres Borgonha Aviz and House of Aviz-Beja Habsburg Braganza and Braganza-Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Spain	Asturian Barcelona Jiménez Pérez Burgundy Trastámara Habsburg Bourbon Bonaparte Bourbon Savoy Bourbon

Categories: Dutch monarchy | Dutch noble families | European royal families | German noble families | History of the Netherlands | House of Lippe | House of Mecklenburg-Schwerin | House of Nassau | House of Orange-Nassau

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Norway

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Norway /ˈnɔrweɪ/ (Norwegian: *Norge* (Bokmål) or *Noreg* (Nynorsk)), officially the **Kingdom of Norway**, is a Nordic unitary constitutional monarchy whose territory comprises the western portion of the Scandinavian Peninsula, Jan Mayen, and the Arctic archipelago of Svalbard and Bouvet Island.[note 1] Norway has a total area of 385,252 square kilometres (148,747 sq mi) and a population of about 5 million.[9] It is the second least densely populated country in Europe. The majority of the country shares a border to the east with Sweden; its northernmost region is bordered by Finland to the south and Russia to the east; in its south Norway borders the Skagerrak Strait across from Denmark. The capital city of Norway is Oslo. Norway's extensive coastline, facing the North Atlantic Ocean and the Barents Sea, is home to its famous fjords.

Two centuries of Viking raids tapered off following the adoption of Christianity by King Olav Tryggvason in 994. A period of civil war ended in the 13th century when Norway expanded its control overseas to parts of the British Isles, Iceland, and Greenland. Norwegian territorial power peaked in 1265, but competition from the Hanseatic League and the spread of the Black Death weakened the country. In 1380, Norway was absorbed into a union with Denmark that lasted more than four centuries. In 1814, Norwegians resisted the cession of their country to Sweden and adopted a new constitution. Sweden then invaded Norway but agreed to let Norway keep its constitution in return for accepting the union under a Swedish king. Rising nationalism throughout the 19th century led to a 1905 referendum granting Norway independence. Although Norway remained neutral in World War I, it suffered heavy losses to its shipping. Norway proclaimed its neutrality at the outset of World War II, but was nonetheless occupied for five years by the Third Reich. In 1949, neutrality was abandoned and Norway became a founding member of NATO. Discovery of oil and gas in adjacent waters in the late 1960s boosted Norway's economic fortunes. In referenda held in 1972 and 1994, Norway rejected joining the EU. Key domestic issues include immigration and integration of ethnic minorities, maintaining the country's extensive social safety net with an aging population, and preserving economic competitiveness.[2][10]

Norway is a unitary parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy, with King Harald V as its head of state and Jens Stoltenberg as its prime minister. It is a unitary

Kingdom of Norway
***Kongeriket Norge* (Bokmål)**
***Kongeriket Noreg* (Nynorsk)**



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: Royal: *Alt for Norge*
("Everything for Norway")
1814 Eidsvoll oath: *Enig og tro til Dovre faller*
("United and loyal until the mountains of Dovre crumble")

Anthem: *Ja, vi elsker dette landet* (de facto)
("Yes, we love this country")

Royal anthem: *Kongesangen*
("The King's Song")



Location of **Norway** (dark green)
[Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Oslo 59°56′N 10°41′E
Official language(s)	Norwegian (Bokmål and Nynorsk)

state with administrative subdivisions on two levels known as counties (fylke) and municipalities (kommuner). The Sámi people have a certain amount of self-determination and influence over traditional territories through the Sámi Parliament and the Finnmark Act. Although having rejected European Union membership in two referenda, Norway maintains close ties with the union and its member countries, as well as with the United States. Norway remains one of the biggest financial contributors to the United Nations,[11] and participates with UN forces in international missions, notably in Afghanistan, Kosovo, Sudan and Libya. Norway is a founding member of the United Nations, NATO, the Council of Europe, and the Nordic Council; a member of the European Economic Area, the WTO, and the OECD; and is also a part of Schengen Area.

Norway has extensive reserves of petroleum, natural gas, minerals, lumber, seafood, fresh water, and hydropower. The country has the fourth-highest GDP per capita in the world. On a per-capita basis, it is the world's largest producer of oil and natural gas outside the Middle East,[12][13] and the petroleum industry accounts for around a quarter of the country's gross domestic product.[14] The country maintains a Nordic welfare model with universal health care, subsidized higher education, and a comprehensive social security system. From 2001 to 2006,[15] and then again from 2009 through 2011, Norway has had the highest human development index ranking in the world.[16][17]

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  - 2.7 Union with Denmark
  - 2.8 Union with Sweden (19th century)
  - 2.9 Independence
  - 2.10 World War I and II
  - 2.11 Post-war history
- 3 Geography
  - 3.1 Climate
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Recognised regional languages	Northern Sami, Lule Sami, Kven and Southern Sami
Ethnic groups	86.2% **Norwegians**[1] 2% Sami[2] 11.8% other[1]
Demonym	Norwegian
Government	Unitary parliamentary constitutional monarchy
- King	King Harald V
- Prime Minister	Jens Stoltenberg (AP)
- President of the Storting	Dag Terje Andersen (AP)
- Chief Justice	Tore Schei
- Current coalition	Red-Green Coalition
Legislature	Storting
Establishment	
- Unification	872
- Constitution	17 May 1814
- Dissolution of union with Sweden	7 June 1905
- Restoration from German occupation	8 May 1945
Area	
- Total	385,252 km^2 (61st[1]) 148,746 sq mi
- Water (%)	7.0[3]
Population	
- 2012 census	4,985,870[3]
- Density	15.5/km^2 (213th) 35/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate
- Total	$255.285 billion[4]
- Per capita	$52,012[4]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$414.462 billion[4]
- Per capita	$84,443[4]
Gini (2000)	25.8 (low) (5th)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.943[5] (very high) (1st)
Currency	Norwegian krone (NOK)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)

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- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Date formats	dd.mm.yyyy
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	NO
Internet TLD	.no[2]
Calling code	47

1 Includes Svalbard and Jan Mayen. (Without these two areas, the area of Norway is 323,802 km^2, placing it 67th in the world.[6])

2 Two more TLDs have been assigned, but to date not used: .sj for Svalbard and Jan Mayen; .bv for Bouvet Island.

3 This percentage is for the mainland and also includes glaciers[7]

Etymology

Modern etymologists believe the country's name means "the northward route" (the "way north" or the "north way"), which in Old Norse would have been *nor veg* or **norð vegr*. The Old Norse name for Norway was *Nóregr*, the Anglo-Saxon *Norþ weg* and mediaeval Latin *Northvegia*. The present name of the Kingdom of Norway in Bokmål is "Kongeriket Norge" and in Nynorsk "Kongeriket Noreg", both only a couple of letters removed from the original "northern way": *Nor(d)-(v)e.g.*

History

Main articles: History of Norway and History of Scandinavia

Prehistory

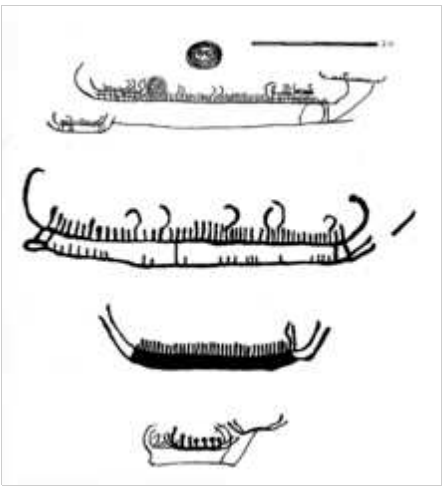
Main article: Scandinavian prehistory

The first inhabitants were the Ahrensburg culture (11th to 10th millennia BC) which was a late Upper Paleolithic culture during the Younger Dryas, the last spell of cold at the end of the Weichsel glaciation. The culture is named after village of Ahrensburg, 25 km (15.53 mi) northeast of Hamburg in the German state of Schleswig-Holstein where wooden arrow shafts and clubs have been excavated.[18] The earliest traces of human



Approximate extent of the Corded Ware culture.

occupation in Norway are found along the coast, where the huge ice shelf of the last ice age first melted between 11,000 and 8,000 BC. The oldest finds are stone tools dating from 9,500 to 6,000 BC, discovered in Finnmark (Komsa culture) in the north and Rogaland (Fosna culture) in the southwest. However, theories about two altogether different cultures (the Komsa culture north of the Arctic Circle being one and the Fosna culture from Trøndelag to Oslo Fjord being the other) were rendered obsolete in the 1970s. More recent finds along the entire coast revealed to archaeologists that the difference between the two can simply be ascribed to different types of tools and not to different cultures. Coastal fauna provided a means of livelihood for fishermen and hunters, who may have made their way along the southern coast about 10,000 BC when the interior was still covered with ice. It is now thought that these so-called "Arctic" peoples came from the south and followed the coast northward considerably later. Some may have come along the ice-free coast of the Kola Peninsula, but the evidence of this is still poor.


Nordic Bronze Age rock carvings at Steinkjer, Central Norway

In the southern part of the country are dwelling sites dating from about 5,000 BC. Finds from these sites give a clearer idea of the life of the hunting and fishing peoples. The implements vary in shape and mostly are made of different kinds of stone; those of later periods are more skillfully made. Rock carvings (i. e. petroglyphs) have been found, usually near hunting and fishing grounds. They represent game such as deer, reindeer, elk, bears, birds, seals, whales, and fish (especially salmon and halibut), all of which were vital to the way of life of the coastal peoples. The carvings at Alta in Finnmark, the largest in Scandinavia, were made at sea level continuously from 4,200 to 500 BC and mark the progression of the land as it rose from the sea after the last ice age (Rock carvings at Alta).

Bronze Age

Main article: Nordic Bronze Age

Between 3000 and 2500 BC new settlers (Corded Ware culture) arrived in eastern Norway. They were Indo-European farmers who grew grain and kept cows and sheep. The hunting-fishing population of the west coast was also gradually replaced by farmers, though hunting and fishing remained useful secondary means of livelihood.

From about 1500 BC bronze was gradually introduced, but the use of stone implements continued; Norway had few riches to barter for bronze goods, and the few finds consist mostly of elaborate weapons and brooches that only chieftains could afford. Huge burial cairns built close to the sea as far north as Harstad and also inland in the south are characteristic of this period. The motifs of the rock carvings differ from those typical of the Stone Age. Representations of the Sun, animals, trees, weapons, ships, and people are all strongly stylized, probably as fertility symbols connected with the religious ideas of the period.

Iron Age

Main article: Pre-Roman Iron Age



Sæbø sword from Sæbø, Hordaland (800 AD)

Little has been found dating from the early Iron Age (the last 500 years BC). The dead were cremated, and their graves contain few burial goods. During the first four centuries AD the people of Norway were in contact with Roman-occupied Gaul. About 70 Roman bronze cauldrons, often used as burial urns, have been found. Contact with the civilized countries farther south brought a knowledge of runes; the oldest known Norwegian runic inscription dates from the 3rd century. At this time the amount of settled area in the country increased, a development that can be traced by coordinated studies of topography, archaeology, and place-names. The oldest root names, such as nes, vik, and bø ("cape," "bay," and "farm"), are of great antiquity, dating perhaps from the Bronze Age, whereas the earliest of the groups of compound names with the suffixes vin ("meadow") or heim ("settlement"), as in Bjorgvin (Bergen) or Saeheim (Seim), usually date from the 1st century AD.

Migration Age

Main article: Migration Age

The destruction of the Western Roman Empire by the Germanic tribes (5th century) is characterized by rich finds, including chieftains' graves containing magnificent weapons and gold objects. Hill forts were built on precipitous rocks for defense. Excavation has revealed stone foundations of farmhouses 60 to 90 feet (18 to 27 metres) long—one even 150 feet (46 metres) long—the roofs of which were supported on wooden posts. These houses were family homesteads where several generations lived together, with people and cattle under one roof. From this period and later (600–800), nascent communities can be traced. Defense works require cooperation and leadership, so petty states of some kind with a defense and administrative organization must have existed.

These states were based on either clans or tribes (e.g., the Horder of Hordaland in western Norway). By the 9th century each of these small states had things, or tings (local or regional assemblies), for negotiating and settling disputes. The thing meeting places, each eventually with a horg (open-air sanctuary) or a hov (temple; literally "hill"), were usually situated on the oldest and best farms, which belonged to the chieftains and wealthiest farmers. The regional things united to form even larger units: assemblies of deputy yeomen from several regions. In this way, the lagting (assemblies for negotiations and lawmaking) developed. The Gulating had its meeting place by Sognefjord and may have been the centre of an aristocratic confederation along the western fjords and islands called the Gulatingslag. The Frostating was the assembly for the leaders in the Trondheimsfjord area; the earls Jarls of Lade, near Trondheim, seem to have enlarged the Frostatingslag by adding the coastland from Romsdalsfjord to the Lofoten Islands. A lagting developed in the area of Lake Mjøsa in the east and eventually established its meeting place at Eidsvoll, becoming known as the Eidsivating. The area around Oslofjord, although at times closely tied to Denmark, developed a lagting—with its meeting place at Sarpsborg called the Borgarting.

Viking Age

Main article: Viking Age

The Viking Age was characterized by expansion and emigration by Viking seafarers. According to tradition, Harald Fairhair (Harald Hårfagre) unified them into one in 872 after the Battle of Hafrsfjord in Stavanger, thus becoming the first king of a united Norway. (The date of 872 may be somewhat arbitrary. In fact, the actual date may be just prior to 900).[19] Harald's realm was mainly a South Norwegian coastal state. Harald Fairhair ruled



The helmet found at Gjermundbu near Haugsbygd, Buskerud, is the only Viking Age helmet that has been found.

with a strong hand and, according to the sagas, many Norwegians left the country to live in Iceland, the Faroe Islands, Greenland, and parts of Britain and Ireland. The modern-day Irish cities of Dublin, Limerick, and Waterford were founded by Norwegian (and Danish) settlers.[20] Norse traditions were slowly replaced by Christian ones in the 10th and 11th Centuries. This is largely attributed to the missionary kings Olav Tryggvasson and St. Olav. Haakon the Good was Norway's first Christian king, in the mid-10th century, though his attempt to introduce the religion was rejected. Born sometime in between 963–969, Olav Tryggvasson set off raiding in England with 390 ships. He attacked London during this raiding. Arriving back in Norway in 995, Olav landed in Moster.[21] There he built a church which became the first Christian church ever built in Norway.[21] From Moster, Olav sailed north to Trondheim were he was acclaimed King of Norway by the Eyrathing in 995.[21]



The Gokstad ship at the Viking Ship Museum in Oslo, Norway.



The Norwegian Kingdom at its greatest extent, c. 1265

Feudalism never really developed in Norway and Sweden, as it did in the rest of Europe.[22] However, the administration of government took on a very conservative feudal character.[22] The Hanseatic League forced the royalty to cede to them greater and greater concessions over foreign trade and the economy.[22] The League had this hold over the royalty because of the loans the Hansa had made to the royalty and the large debt the kings were carrying.[22] The League's monopolistic control over the economy of Norway put pressure on all classes, especially the peasantry, to the degree that no real burgher class existed in Norway.[22]

Kalmar Union

Main article: Kalmar Union

Upon the death of Haakon V, King of Norway, in 1319, three year-old Magnus Erikson inherited the throne as King Magnus VII of Norway.[23] At the same time a movement to make Magnus King of Sweden proved successful.[23] (At this time both the kings of Sweden and of Denmark were elected to the throne by their respective nobles.)[23] Thus, with his election to the throne of Sweden, both Sweden and Norway were united under King Magnus VII.[23]

In 1349, the Black Death radically altered Norway, killing between 50% and 60% of its population[24] and

leaving it in a period of social and economic decline.[25] The plague left Norway very poor.[26] Although the death rate was comparable with the rest of Europe, economic recovery took much longer because of the small, scattered population.[25] Before the plague, total population was only about 500,000 people.[27] After the plague, many farms lay idle while the population slowly increased.[25] The few surviving farms' tenants found their bargaining positions with their landlords greatly strengthened.[25]


Kalmar Union c. 1500 AD

King Magnus VII ruled Norway until 1350, when his son, Haakon, was placed on the throne as Haakon VI.[28] In 1363, Haakon VI married Margaret, the daughter of King Valdemar IV of Denmark.[25] Upon the death of Haakon VI, in 1379, his son, Olaf IV, was only 10 years-old.[25] Olaf had already been elected to the throne of Denmark on May 3, 1376.[25] Thus, upon Olaf's ascension to the throne of Norway, Denmark and Norway entered personal union.[29] Olaf's mother and Haakon's widow, Queen Margaret, managed the foreign affairs of Denmark and Norway during the minority of Olaf IV.[25]

Margaret was working toward a union of Sweden with Denmark and Norway by having Olaf elected to the Swedish throne. She was on the verge of achieving this goal when Olaf IV suddenly died.[25] However, Denmark made Margaret temporary ruler upon the death of Olaf. On February 2, 1388, Norway followed suit and crowned Margaret.[25]

Queen Margaret knew that her power would be more secure if she were able to find a king to rule in her place. She settled on Eric of Pomerania, grandson of her sister. Thus at an all-Scandinavian meeting held at Kalmar, Erik of Pomerania was crowned king of all three Scandinavian countries. Thus, royal politics resulted in personal unions between the Nordic countries, eventually bringing the thrones of Norway, Denmark, and Sweden under the control of Queen Margaret when the country entered into the Kalmar Union.

Union with Denmark

Main article: Denmark–Norway

After Sweden broke out of the Kalmar Union in 1521, Norway remained with Denmark until 1814, a total of 436 years. During the national romanticism of the 19th century, this period was by some referred to as the "400-Year Night", since all of the kingdom's royal, intellectual, and administrative power was centred in Copenhagen in Denmark. With the introduction of Protestantism in 1536, the archbishopric in Trondheim was dissolved, and Norway effectually became a tributary to Denmark, and the church's incomes were distributed to the court in Copenhagen instead. Norway lost the steady stream of pilgrims to the relics of St. Olav at the Nidaros shrine, and with them, much of the contact with cultural and economic life in the rest of Europe. Additionally, Norway saw its land area decrease in the 17th century with the loss of the provinces Båhuslen, Jemtland, and Herjedalen to Sweden, as a result of numerous wars between Denmark–Norway and Sweden. To the north, however, its territory was increased by the acquisition of the northern provinces of Troms and Finnmark, at the expense of Sweden and Russia.

The famine of 1695–96 killed roughly 10% of Norway's population.[30] At least nine severe harvest failures were recorded in the Scandinavian countries between 1740 and 1800, each resulting in a substantial rise of the death rate.[31]

Union with Sweden (19th century)

Main article: Union between Sweden and Norway


The 1814 constitutional assembly, painted by Oscar Wergeland

After Denmark–Norway was attacked by the United Kingdom at the Battle of Copenhagen, it entered into an alliance with Napoleon, with the war leading to dire conditions and mass starvation in 1812. As the Danish kingdom found itself on the losing side in 1814, it was forced, under terms of the Treaty of Kiel, to cede Norway to the king of Sweden, while the old Norwegian provinces of Iceland, Greenland and the Faroe Islands remained with the Danish crown.[32]

Norway took this opportunity to declare independence, adopted a constitution based on American and French models, and elected the Crown prince of Denmark and Norway, Christian Frederick, as king on 17 May 1814. This is the famous Syttende Mai (Seventeenth of May) holiday celebrated by Norwegians and Norwegian-Americans alike. *Syttende Mai* is also called *Norwegian Constitution Day*.

Norwegian opposition to the great powers' decision to link Norway with Sweden caused the Norwegian-Swedish War to break out as Sweden tried to subdue Norway by military means. As Sweden's military was not strong enough to defeat the Norwegian forces outright and Norway's treasury was not large enough to support a protracted war, and as British and Russian navies blockaded the Norwegian coast,[33] the belligerents were forced to negotiate the Convention of Moss. According to the terms of the convention, Christian Frederik abdicated the Norwegian throne and authorized the Parliament of Norway to make the necessary constitutional amendments to allow for the personal union that Norway was forced to accept. On November 4, 1814, the Parliament (Storting) elected Charles XIII of Sweden as king of Norway, thereby establishing the union with Sweden.[34] Under this arrangement, Norway kept its liberal constitution and its own independent institutions, except for the foreign service. Following the recession caused by the Napoleonic Wars, economic development of Norway remained slow until economic growth began around 1830.[35]

This period also saw the rise of the Norwegian romantic nationalism, as Norwegians sought to define and express a distinct national character. The movement covered all branches of culture, including literature (Henrik Wergeland [1808–1845], Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson [1832–1910], Peter Christen Asbjørnsen [1812–1845], Jørgen Moe [1813–1882]), painting (Hans Gude [1825–1903], Adolph Tidemand [1814–1876]), music (Edvard Grieg [1843–1907]), and even language policy, where attempts to define a native written language for Norway led to today's two official written forms for Norwegian: Bokmål and Nynorsk.


Harvesting of oats in Jølster, c. 1890. *(Photo: Axel Lindahl/Norwegian*

King Karl XIV Johan, who came to the throne of Norway and Sweden in 1818, was the second king following Norway's break from Denmark and the union with Sweden. Karl Johan was a complex man whose long reign extended to 1844. King Karl Johan protected the constitution and liberties of Norway and Sweden during the age of Metternich. As such, he was regarded as a liberal monarch for that age. However, he was ruthless in his use of paid informers, the secret police and restrictions on the freedom of the press to put down public movements for reform —especially the Norwegian national independence movement.[36]

The Romantic Era that followed the reign of King Karl Johan brought some significant social and political reforms. In 1854, women were given



A Sami (Lapp) family in Norway around 1900.

Museum of Cultural History)

the right to inherit property in their own right just like men.[37] In 1863, the last trace of keeping unmarried women in the status of minors was removed.[37] Furthermore, women were then eligible for different occupations, particularly the common school teacher.[37] However, by mid-century, Norway was still far from a "democracy". Voting was limited to officials, property owners, leaseholders, and burghers of incorporated towns.[38] There was some dissatisfaction with this backwardness.

Still Norway remained a conservative society. Life in Norway (especially economic life) was "dominated by the aristocracy of professional men who filled most of the important posts in the central government."[39] There was no strong bourgeosie class in Norway to demand a breakdown of this aristocratic control of the economy.[40] Thus, even while revolution swept over most of the countries of Europe in 1848, Norway was largely unaffected by revolts that year. Most revolts broke themselves on the granite conservativism of the Norwegian society.[40] Indeed, the Thrane movement was the only "revolt" that broke out in Norway in 1848.

Marcus Thrane was a Utopian socialist.[41] He made his appeal to the labouring classes urging a change of social structure "from below upwards."[41] In 1848, he organized a labour society in Drammen. In just a few months this society had a membership of 500 and the society was publishing its own newspaper.[41] Within two years 300 societies had been organized all over Norway with a total membership of 20,000 persons.[41] The membership was drawn from the lower classes of both the town and country.[41] For the first time these two groups felt they had common cause with each other.[41] In the end, the revolt was easily crushed, Thrane was captured and sentenced to three years in jail for crimes against the safety of the state. Upon his release from jail, after serving his sentence, Marcus Thrane migrated to the United States of America.

In 1898, all men were granted universal suffrage, followed by all women in 1913.

Independence

Main article: Dissolution of the union between Norway and Sweden in 1905

Christian Michelsen, a shipping magnate and statesman, Prime Minister of Norway from 1905 to 1907, played a central role in the peaceful separation of Norway from Sweden on 7 June 1905. After a national referendum confirmed the people's preference for a monarchy over a republic, the Norwegian government offered the throne of Norway to the Danish Prince Carl, and Parliament unanimously elected him king, the first king of a fully independent Norway in 586 years. He took the name of Haakon VII, after the mediaeval kings of independent Norway.

World War I and II

See also: Occupation of Norway by Nazi Germany and Free Norwegian Forces

During World War I, Norway was a neutral country. In reality, however, Norway had been pressured by the United Kingdom to hand over increasingly large parts of its massive merchant fleet to the UK at low rates, as well as to join the trade blockade against Germany.[*citation needed*] Norwegian merchant marine ships with Norwegian sailors were then required to sail under the British flag and risk being sunk by German

submarines.[42] Thus, many Norwegian sailors and ships were lost.[42] Thereafter, the world ranking of the Norwegian merchant marine fell from fourth place in the world to sixth place in the world.[42]



Scenes from the Norwegian Campaign in 1940

Norway also proclaimed its neutrality during World War II, but Norway was invaded by German forces on 9 April 1940. Norway was unprepared for the German surprise attack (see: Battle of Drøbak Sound, Norwegian Campaign, and Invasion of Norway), but military and naval resistance lasted for two months. The armed forces in the north launched an offensive against the German forces in the Battles of Narvik, until they were forced to surrender on June 10 after losing British help diverted to France during the German Invasion of France.

King Haakon and the Norwegian government escaped to Rotherhithe, London, England, and they supported the fight through inspirational radio speeches from London and by supporting clandestine military actions in Norway against the Nazis. On the day of the invasion, the collaborative leader of the small National-Socialist party Nasjonal Samling, Vidkun Quisling, tried to seize power but was forced by the German occupiers to step aside. Real power was wielded by the leader of the German occupation authority, Reichskommissar Josef Terboven. Quisling, as *minister president*, later formed a collaborationist government under German control. Up to 15,000 Norwegians volunteered to fight in German units, including the Waffen-SS.[43]

There were also many Norwegians, and those of Norwegian descent, who joined the Allied forces as well as the Free Norwegian Forces. From the small group that had left Norway in June 1940 consisting of 13 ships, five aircraft and 500 men from the Royal Norwegian Navy who followed the King to the United Kingdom the force had grown by the end of the war to 58 ships and 7,500 men in service in the Norwegian Navy; 5 squadrons of aircraft (including Spitfires, Sunderland flying boats and Mosquitos) in the newly formed Norwegian Air Force; and land forces including the Norwegian Independent Company 1 and 5 Troop as well as No. 10 Commandos.

During the five years of Nazi occupation, Norwegians built a resistance movement which fought the German occupation forces with both civil disobedience and armed resistance including the destruction of Norsk Hydro's heavy water plant and stockpile of heavy water at Vemork, which crippled the German nuclear program (see: *Norwegian heavy water sabotage*). More important to the Allied war effort, however, was the role of the Norwegian Merchant Marine. At the time of the invasion, Norway had the fourth largest merchant marine fleet in the world. It was led by the Norwegian shipping company Nortraship under the Allies throughout the war and took part in every war operation from the evacuation of Dunkirk to the Normandy landings. Each December Norway gives a Christmas tree to the United Kingdom as thanks for the British assistance during World War II. A ceremony takes place to erect the tree in London's famous Trafalgar Square.[44]

Post-war history

From 1945 to 1962, the Labour Party held an absolute majority in the parliament. The government, led by prime minister Einar Gerhardsen, embarked on a program inspired by Keynesian economics, emphasizing state financed industrialization, cooperation between trade unions and employers' organizations. Many measures of state control of the economy imposed during the war were continued, although the rationing of dairy products was lifted in 1949, while price control and rationing of housing and cars continued as long as until 1960.

The wartime alliance with the United Kingdom and the United States was continued in the post-war years.

Although pursuing the goal of a socialist economy, the Labour Party distanced itself from the communists (especially after Soviet seizure of power in Czechoslovakia in 1948), and strengthened its foreign policy and defence policy ties with the U.S. Norway received Marshall Plan aid from the United States starting in 1947, joined the OEEC one year later and became a founding member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in 1949.

Around 1975, both the proportion and absolute number of workers in industry peaked. Since then labour intensive industries and services like factory mass production and shipping have largely been outsourced.

In 1969, the Phillips Petroleum Company discovered petroleum resources at the Ekofisk field west of Norway. In 1973, the Norwegian government founded the State oil company, Statoil. Oil production did not provide net income until the early 1980s because of the large capital investment that was required to establish the country's petroleum industry.

Norway was a founding member of the European Free Trade Area (EFTA). Two referendums on joining the European Union failed by narrow margins in 1972 and 1994. In 1981, a Conservative government led by Kåre Willoch replaced the Labour Party with a policy of stimulating the stagflated economy with tax cuts, economic liberalization, deregulation of markets, and measures to curb the record-high inflation (13.6% in 1981).

Norway's first female prime minister, Gro Harlem Brundtland of the Labour party, continued many of the reforms of her right-wing predecessor, while backing traditional Labour concerns such as social security, high taxes, the industrialization of nature, and feminism. By the late 1990s, Norway had paid off its foreign debt and had started accumulating a sovereign wealth fund. Since the 1990s, a divisive question in politics has been how much of the income from petroleum production the government should spend, and how much it should save.

In 2011 Norway suffered a pair of devastating attacks conducted by Anders Behring Breivik which struck the government quarter in Oslo and a summer camp of the Labour party's youth movement at Utøya island, resulting in 77 deaths and 96 wounded.

Geography

Main articles: Geography of Norway and Geology of Norway

Norway comprises the western part of Scandinavia in Northern Europe. The rugged coastline, broken by huge fjords and thousands of islands, stretches 25,000 kilometres (16,000 mi) and 83,000 kilometres (52,000 mi) including fjords and islands. Norway shares a 1,619-kilometre (1,006 mi) land border with Sweden, 727 kilometres (452 mi) with Finland and 196 kilometres (122 mi) with Russia at the east. To the north, west and south, Norway is bordered by the Barents Sea, the Norwegian Sea, the North Sea and Skagerrak.[45]



A satellite image of continental Norway in winter

At 385,252 square kilometres (148,747 sq mi) (including Svalbard and Jan Mayen), (and 323,802 square kilometres (125,021 sq mi) without) much of the country is dominated by mountainous or high terrain, with a great variety of natural features caused by prehistoric glaciers and varied topography. The most noticeable of these are the fjords: deep grooves cut into the land flooded by the sea following the end of the Ice Age. The longest is Sognefjorden at 204 kilometres (127 mi). Sognefjorden is the world's second deepest fjord, and the world's longest. Hornindalsvatnet is

the deepest lake in all Europe.[46] Frozen ground all year can be found in the higher mountain areas and in the interior of Finnmark county. Numerous glaciers are found in Norway.

Norway lies between latitudes 57° and 81° N, and longitudes 4° and 32° E.

The land is mostly made of hard granite and gneiss rock, but slate, sandstone and limestone are also common, and the lowest elevations contain marine deposits. Because of the Gulf Stream and prevailing westerlies, Norway experiences higher temperatures and more precipitation than expected at such northern latitudes, especially along the coast. The mainland experiences four distinct seasons, with colder winters and less precipitation inland. The northernmost part has a mostly maritime Subarctic climate, while Svalbard has an Arctic tundra climate.

Because of the large latitudinal range of the country and the varied topography and climate, Norway has a larger number of different habitats than almost any other European country. There are approximately 60,000 species in Norway and adjacent waters (excluding bacteria and virus). The Norwegian Shelf large marine ecosystem is considered highly productive.[47]



Norwegian lowland landscape near the Gaulosen branch of Trondheimsfjord



Reine in Lofoten, Northern Norway

Climate

The southern and western parts of Norway experience more precipitation and have milder winters than the southeastern part. The lowlands around Oslo have the warmest and sunniest summers but also cold weather and snow in wintertime (especially inland).

Because of Norway's high latitude, there are large seasonal variations in daylight. From late May to late July, the sun never completely descends beneath the horizon in areas north of the Arctic Circle (hence Norway's description as the "Land of the Midnight Sun"), and the rest of the country experiences up to 20 hours of daylight per day. Conversely, from late November to late January, the sun never rises above the horizon in the north, and daylight hours are very short in the rest of the country.

Biodiversity

The total number of species include 16,000 species of insects (probably 4,000 more species yet to be described), 20,000 species of algae, 1,800 species of lichen, 1,050 species of mosses, 2,800 species of vascular plants, up to 7,000 species of fungi, 450 species of birds (250 species nesting in Norway), 90 species of mammals, 45 fresh-water species of fish, 150 salt-water species of fish, 1,000 species of fresh-water invertebrates and 3,500 species of salt-water invertebrates.[48] About 40,000 of these species have been described by science. The red list of 2010 encompasses 4,599 species.[49]

Seventeen species are listed mainly because they are endangered on a global scale, such as the European beaver, even if the population in Norway is not seen as endangered. The number of threatened and near-threatened species equals to 3,682; it includes 418 fungi species, many of which are closely associated with the small remaining areas of old-growth forests,[50] 36 bird species, and 16 species of mammals. As of 2010, 2,398 species were listed as endangered or vulnerable; of these are 1250 listed as vulnerable (VU), 871 as endangered (EN), and 276 species as critically endangered (CR), among these are the gray wolf, the Arctic fox (healthy population

on Svalbard) and the pool frog.[49]

The largest predator in Norwegian waters is the sperm whale, and the largest fish is the basking shark. The largest predator on land is the polar bear, while the brown bear is the largest predator on the Norwegian mainland, where the common moose (also known as the "European Elk") is the largest animal.

Environment

Stunning and dramatic scenery and landscape is found throughout Norway. The west coast of southern Norway and the coast of northern Norway present some of the most visually impressive coastal sceneries in the world. National Geographic has listed the Norwegian fjords as the world's top tourist attraction.[51] The 2010 Environmental Performance Index put Norway in fifth place, based on the environmental performance of the country's policies.



Rondeslottet in Rondane National Park, Eastern Norway



Feigefossen, Sogn og Fjordane



Muskox in the low alpine tundra at Dovrefjell



Some of the larger islands along the coastline of northern Norway



Norway is mountainous, but there are also some flat areas like Jæren, Toten and Ørlandet



Loen, a small village on the Western coast of Norway

Politics

Main article: Politics of Norway

See also: Norwegian parliamentary election, 2009



Harald V, the King of Norway since 1991

According to the Constitution of Norway, which was adopted on 16 May 1814[52] and inspired by the United States Declaration of Independence and French Revolution of 1776 and 1789, respectively, Norway is a unitary constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary system of government, wherein the King of Norway is the head of state and the Prime Minister is the head of government. Power is separated between the legislative, executive and judicial branches of government, as defined by the Constitution, which serves as the country's supreme legal document.

The Monarch officially retains executive power, however, following the introduction of a parliamentary system of government, the duties of the Monarch have since become strictly representative and ceremonial,[53] such as the formal appointment and dismissal of the Prime Minister and other ministers in the executive government. Accordingly, the Monarch is commander-in-chief of the Norwegian armed forces, supreme authority in the Church of Norway, and serves as chief diplomatic official abroad and a symbol of unity.

In practice, it is the Prime Minister who is responsible for the exercise of executive powers. Since his accession in 1991, Harald V of the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg has been King of Norway, the first since the 14th century who has actually been born in the country.[54] Haakon, Crown Prince of Norway is the legal and rightful heir to the throne and the Kingdom.

Constitutionally, legislative power is vested with both the government and the Parliament of Norway, but the latter is the supreme legislature and a unicameral body.[55] A proposition can become a law or an act by simple majority amongst the 150 representatives, who are elected on the basis of proportional representation from 19 constituencies for four-year terms. An additional 19 seats ("levelling seats") are allocated on a nationwide basis to make the representation in parliament correspond better with the popular vote.

As a result, there are currently 169 Members of Parliament altogether. There is also a 4% election threshold to



The Storting is the Parliament of Norway

gain levelling seats in Parliament.[56] As such, Norway is fundamentally structured as a representative democracy. Effectively called the *Stortinget*, meaning *Grand Assembly*, members of Parliament ratify treaties and can impeach members of the government if their acts are declared unconstitutional, and as such have the power to remove them from office in case of an impeachment trial.

The position of Prime Minister, Norway's head of government, is allocated to the Member of Parliament who can obtain the confidence of a majority in Parliament, usually the current leader of the largest political party or more effectively through a coalition of parties, as a single party normally does not have the support to form a government on its own. However, Norway has often been ruled by minority governments.



Jens Stoltenberg, the Prime Minister of Norway since 2005

The Prime Minister nominates the Cabinet, traditionally drawn from members of the same political party in the Storting, to which they are responsible, and as such forms the executive government and exercises power vested to them by the Constitution.[57] In order to form a government, however, more than half the membership of the Cabinet is required to belong to the Church of Norway. Currently, this means at least ten out of the 19 ministries. This has sparked controversy regarding an ongoing debate of separation of church and state in Norway. The current Prime Minister is Jens Stoltenberg, the leader of the Norwegian Labour Party (AP).



Royal Palace of Norway in Oslo

Through the Council of State, a privy council presided over by the Monarch, the Prime Minister and the Cabinet meet at the Royal Palace and formally consult the Monarch. Besides enacting parliamentary bills, all government bills need the formal approval by the Monarch before and after introduction to Parliament. Approval is also given by the Council to all of the Monarch's actions as head of state. Although all government and parliamentary acts are decided beforehand, the privy council is an example of another symbolic gesture the King obtains.[54]

Members of the Storting are directly elected from party-lists proportional representation in nineteen plural-member constituencies in a national multi-party system.[58] Historically, both the Norwegian Labour Party and Conservative Party have played leading political roles, while the former has remained in power since the 2005 election, in a Red-Green Coalition with the Socialist Left Party and the Centre Party.[59]

Since then, both the Conservative Party and the Progress Party have won great amount of seats in the Parliament, however, as of the 2009 general election, not sufficient enough to overthrow the coalition. This has been the result of poor cooperation between the opposition parties, including the Liberal Party and the Christian Democratic Party. As such, Jens Stoltenberg, the leader of the Labour Party, remains Prime Minister of Norway with the necessary majority attributed to the alliance with the Socialist Left and Centre parties.[60]

Administrative divisions

Main articles: Administrative divisions of Norway, Counties of Norway, Municipalities of Norway, List of towns and cities in Norway, and Dependencies of Norway

Norway, a unitary state, is divided into nineteen first-level administrative counties (*fylker*). The counties are administrated through directly elected county assemblies who elect the County Governor. Additionally, the King and government are represented in every county by a fylkesmann, who effectively acts as a Governor.[61] As such, the Government is directly represented at a local level through the County Governors' offices. The counties are then sub-divided into 430 second-level municipalities (*kommuner*), which in turn are administrated by directly elected municipal council, headed by a mayor and a small executive cabinet. The capital of Oslo is considered both a county and a municipality. Norway also has two integral overseas territories, Jan Mayen and Svalbard. There are three Antarctic and Subantarctic dependencies: Bouvet Island, Peter I Island and Queen Maud Land.

In addition, there are 96 settlements with city status in Norway. In most cases, the city borders are coterminous with the borders of their respective municipalities. Often, Norwegian city municipalities include large non-built up areas; for example, Oslo municipality contains large forests, located north and southeast of the city, and over half of Bergen municipality consists of mountainous areas.[62]

The counties of Norway are:



A geopolitical map of Norway, showing the 19 fylker, the Svalbard (Spitsbergen) and Jan Mayen islands, which are part of the Norwegian kingdom

ISO-code	Arms	County (fylke)	Administrative centre	Most populous municipality
01		Østfold	Sarpsborg	Fredrikstad
02		Akershus	Oslo	Bærum
03		Oslo	City of Oslo	Oslo

ISO-code	Arms	County (fylke)	Administrative centre	Most populous municipality
04		Hedmark	Hamar	Ringsaker
05		Oppland	Lillehammer	Gjøvik
06		Buskerud	Drammen	Drammen
07		Vestfold	Tønsberg	Sandefjord
08		Telemark	Skien	Skien
09		Aust-Agder	Arendal	Arendal
10		Vest-Agder	Kristiansand	Kristiansand
11		Rogaland	Stavanger	Stavanger
12		Hordaland	Bergen	Bergen
13	*Not in use.*[n 1]			
14		Sogn og Fjordane	Leikanger	Førde
15		Møre og Romsdal	Molde	Ålesund
16		Sør-Trøndelag	Trondheim	Trondheim
17		Nord-Trøndelag	Steinkjer	Stjørdal
18		Nordland	Bodø	Bodø
19		Troms	Tromsø	Tromsø
20		Finnmark	Vadsø	Alta

1. ^ County no. 13 was dropped when Bergen merged into Hordaland in 1972.

Judicial system and law enforcement

Norway uses a civil law system where laws are created and amended in Parliament and the system regulated through the Courts of Justice of Norway. It consists of the Supreme Court of 19 permanent judges and a Chief Justice, appellate courts, city and district courts, and conciliation councils.[63] The judiciary, although traditionally a third branch of government, is independent of executive and legislative branches. While the Prime Minister nominates Supreme Court Justices for office, their nomination must be approved by Parliament and formally confirmed by the Monarch in the Council of State. Usually, judges attached to regular courts are formally appointed by the Monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister.

The Courts' strict and formal mission is to regulate the Norwegian judicial system, interpret the Constitution, and as such implement the legislation adopted by Parliament and monitor the legislative and executive powers to ensure that they themselves comply with the acts of legislation that have been previously adopted.[63]

Law enforcement in Norway is carried out by the Norwegian Police Service. The Norwegian Police Service is a Unified National Police Service made up of 27 Police Districts and several specialist agencies like Økokrim and Kripos, each headed by a Chief of Police. The Police Service is headed by the National Police Directorate, which in turn is subordinate to the Ministry of Justice and the Police, the Police Directorate is headed by a National Police Commissioner. The only exception is the Norwegian Police Security Agency who answers directly to the Ministry of Justice and the Police.

In its 2007 Worldwide Press Freedom Index, Reporters Without Borders ranked Norway at a shared 1st place (with Iceland) out of 169 countries.[64] The death penalty was abolished in Norway in 1902. Death penalty for high treason in war and war-crimes was also abolished in 1979.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Norway

See also: Norway and the European Union and Whaling in Norway



Royal Norwegian Navy *Fridtjof Nansen* class frigate

Norway maintains embassies in 86 countries.[65] 60 countries maintain an embassy in Norway, all of them in the capital, Oslo.

Norway is a founding member of the United Nations (UN), the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the Council of Europe and the European Free Trade Association (EFTA). Scandinavia has traditionally been considered more reluctant in relation to the process of European integration than other European countries. Norway did however follow suit when neighbouring Nordic countries issued applications for accession to the European Union (EU) in 1962, 1967 and 1992, respectively. While Denmark, Sweden and Finland obtained membership, the treaties of accession which had been negotiated were rejected by the Norwegian electorate in 1972 and 1994. After the failed 1994 referendum, Norway maintained its membership in the European Economic Area (EEA), an arrangement which had been seen as a prerequisite for countries about to accede to the EU in 1995. This continues to grant the country access to the internal market of the Union, on the condition that Norway implements those of the Union's pieces of legislation which are deemed relevant to the internal market (counting approximately seven thousand as of 2010)[66] Successive Norwegian governments have, since 1994, requested Norway's participation in parts of the EU's cooperation which go beyond the provisions of the EEA agreement. Non-voting participation by Norway has been granted in for instance the Union's Common Security and Defence Policy, the Schengen Agreement, the European Defence Agency as well as 19 separate programmes.[67]

Norway has been considered a notable participant in international development, having been involved in the 1990s brokering which lead to the ill-fated Oslo Accords regarding the Israeli–Palestinian conflict.

Military

Main article: Norwegian Armed Forces


Norwegian Leopard tanks in the snow in Målselv

The Norwegian Armed Forces currently numbers about 23,000 personnel, including civilian employees. According to the current (as of 2009) mobilization plans, the strength during full mobilization is approximately 83,000 combatant personnel. Norway has conscription for males (6–12 months of training) and voluntary service for females.[68] The Armed Forces are subordinate to the Norwegian Ministry of Defence and the Commander-in-Chief is[*citation needed*] King Harald V. The military of Norway is divided into the following branches: the Army, the Royal Navy, the Royal Air Force and the Home Guard.

Partly due to Norway's inability to maintain its traditional policy of

neutrality in World War II (joining the Allied war effort after being invaded by Nazi Germany in April 1940), the country was one of the founding nations of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) on 4 April 1949. At present, Norway contributes in the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.[69] Additionally, Norway has contributed in several missions in contexts of the United Nations, NATO, and the Common Security and Defence Policy of the European Union.

Economy

Main articles: Economy of Norway, Energy in Norway, and European Economic Area



GDP and GDP growth

Norwegians enjoy the second highest GDP per-capita (after Luxembourg) and fourth highest GDP (PPP) per-capita in the world. Today, Norway ranks as the second wealthiest country in the world in monetary value, with the largest capital reserve per capita of any nation.[*citation needed*] According to the CIA World Factbook, Norway is a net external creditor of debt.[2] Norway maintained first place in the world in the UNDP Human Development Index (HDI) for six consecutive years (2001–2006),[5] and then reclaimed this position in 2009 and 2010.[16] Cost of living is about 90% higher in Norway than in the United States and 50% higher than the United Kingdom.[*citation needed*] The standard of living in Norway is among the highest in the world. Foreign Policy Magazine ranks Norway last in its Failed States Index for 2009, judging Norway to be the world's most well-functioning and stable country. Continued oil and gas exports coupled with a healthy economy and substantial accumulated wealth lead to a conclusion that Norway will remain among the richest countries in the world in the foreseeable future.

The Norwegian economy is an example of a mixed economy, a prosperous capitalist welfare state featuring a combination of free market activity and large state ownership in certain key sectors. The Norwegian welfare state makes public health care free (above a certain level), and parents have 46 weeks paid[70] parental leave. The income that the state receives from natural resources includes a significant contribution from petroleum production and the substantial and carefully managed income related to this sector. Norway has a very low unemployment rate, currently 3.1%.[71] 30% of the labour force are employed by the government, the highest in the OECD.[72] 22% are on welfare and 13% are too disabled to work, the highest proportions in the world.[73] The hourly productivity levels, as well as average hourly wages in Norway are among the highest in the world.[*citation needed*] The egalitarian values of the Norwegian society ensure that the wage difference between the lowest paid worker and the CEO of most companies is much smaller than in comparable western economies.[*citation needed*] This is also evident in Norway's low Gini coefficient. The state has large ownership positions in key industrial sectors, such as the strategic petroleum sector (Statoil and Aker Solutions), hydroelectric energy production (Statkraft), aluminium production (Norsk Hydro), the largest Norwegian bank (DnB NOR), and telecommunication provider (Telenor). Through these big companies, the government controls approximately 30% of the stock values at the Oslo Stock Exchange. When non-listed companies are included, the state has even higher share in ownership (mainly from direct oil license ownership). Norway is a major shipping nation and has the world's 6th largest merchant fleet, with 1,412 Norwegian-owned merchant vessels.

Referendums in 1972 and 1994 indicated that the Norwegian people wished to remain outside the European Union (EU). However, Norway, together with Iceland and Liechtenstein, participates in the European Union's single market via the European Economic Area (EEA) agreement. The EEA Treaty between the European Union



Bryggen in Bergen is on the list of UNESCO World Heritage Sites

countries and the EFTA countries– transposed into Norwegian law via "EØS-loven"[74]– describes the procedures for implementing European Union rules in Norway and the other EFTA countries. This makes Norway a highly integrated member of most sectors of the EU internal market. However, some sectors, such as agriculture, oil and fish, are not wholly covered by the EEA Treaty. Norway has also acceded to the Schengen Agreement and several other intergovernmental agreements between the EU member states.

The country is richly endowed with natural resources including petroleum, hydropower, fish, forests, and minerals. Large reserves of petroleum and natural gas were discovered in the 1960s, which led to a boom in the economy. Norway has obtained one of the highest standards of living in the world in part by having a large amount of natural resources compared to the size of the population. In 2011, 28% of state revenues were generated from the petroleum industry.[75]



Agriculture is a significant sector, in spite of the mountainous landscape (Flakstad)

Resources

Export revenues from oil and gas have risen to 45% of total exports and constitute more than 20% of the GDP.[76] Norway is the fifth largest oil exporter and third largest gas exporter in the world, but it is not a member of OPEC. To reduce overheating in the economy from oil revenues and minimize uncertainty from volatility in oil price, and to provide a cushion for the effect of aging of the population, the Norwegian government in 1995 established the sovereign wealth fund ("Government Pension Fund — Global"), which would be funded with oil revenues, including taxes, dividends, sales revenues and licensing fees.



Oil production has been a big part of the Norwegian economy since the 1970s, with a dominating state ownership (Statfjord oil field)

The government controls its petroleum resources through a combination of state ownership in major operators in the oil fields (with approximately 62% ownership in Statoil in 2007) and the fully state-owned Petoro, which has a market value of about twice Statoil, and SDFI. Finally, the government controls licensing of exploration and production of fields. The fund invests in developed financial markets outside Norway. The budgetary rule ("Handlingsregelen") is to spend no more than 4% of the fund each year (assumed to be the normal yield from the fund).

As of March 2011, the Government Pension Fund of Norway controlled assets valued at is approximately US$570 billion (equal to US$114,000 per capita) which is about 140% of Norway's current GDP. Currently it is the second-largest state-owned sovereign wealth fund, second only to the Abu Dhabi Investment Authority; Conservative estimates tell that the fund may reach US$800–900 billion by 2017. Projections indicate that the Norwegian pension fund may become the largest capital fund in the world. The fund controls approximately 1.25% of all listed shares in Europe and more than 1% of all the publicly traded shares in the world. The Norwegian Central Bank operates investment offices in London, New York and Shanghai. Guidelines implemented in 2007 allow the fund to invest up to 60% of the capital in shares (maximum of 40% prior), while the rest may be placed in bonds and real-estate. As the stock markets tumbled in September 2008, the fund was able to buy more shares at low prices. In this way, the losses incurred by the market turmoil was recuperated by

November 2009.

Other natural resource-based economies, such as Russia, are trying to learn from Norway by establishing similar funds. The investment choices of the Norwegian fund are directed by ethical guidelines; for example, the fund is not allowed to invest in companies that produce parts for nuclear weapons. The highly transparent investment scheme is lauded by the international community.



Stockfish has been exported from Lofoten in Norway for at least 1,000 years

The future size of the fund is of course closely linked to the price of oil and to developments in international financial markets. The Norwegian trade surplus for 2008 reached approximately US$80 billion. With an enormous amount of cash invested in international financial markets, Norway has financial muscles to avert many of the worst effects of the financial crisis that hit most countries in the fall of 2008. As most western countries struggle with burgeoning foreign debt, Norway remains a nation of stowed-away wealth, financial stability and economic power to meet the challenges of the worldwide economic crisis. In spite of the crisis, Norway still runs a 9% state budget surplus, being the only western country to run a surplus as of July 2009.

In 2000, the government sold one-third of the state-owned oil company Statoil in an IPO. The next year, the main telecom supplier, Telenor, was listed on Oslo Stock Exchange. The state also owns significant shares of Norway's largest bank, DnB NOR and the airline SAS. Since 2000, economic growth has been rapid, pushing unemployment down to levels not seen since the early 1980s (unemployment in 2007: 1.3%). The international financial crisis has primarily affected the industrial sector, but unemployment has remained low and is at 3.3% (86 000 people) in August 2011. Norway is among the least affected countries of the international economic downturn. Neighbouring Sweden is experiencing substantially higher actual and projected unemployment numbers as a result of the ongoing recession, and in the 1st quarter of 2009 the GNP of Norway surpassed Sweden's for the first time in history, despite a population numbering about half of Sweden's.

Norway is also the world's second largest exporter of fish (in value, after China)[77] and the 6th largest arms exporter in the world.[78][79] Hydroelectric plants generate roughly 98–99% of Norway's electric power.[80]

Transport

Main articles: Transport in Norway, Rail transport in Norway, and List of airports in Norway

Due to the low population density, narrow shape and long coastlines, public transport in Norway is less developed than in many European countries, especially outside the cities. As such, Norway has old water transport traditions, but the Norwegian Ministry of Transport and Communications has in recent years implemented rail, road and air transport through numerous subsidiaries in order to develop the country's infrastructure.[81] Most recently there has been discussion of the possibility of creating a new high-speed rail system between the nation's largest cities.[82][83]

Norway's main railway network consists of 4,114 kilometres (2,556 mi) of standard gauge lines, of which 242 kilometres (150 mi) is double track and 64 kilometres (40 mi) high-speed rail (210 km/h) while 62% is electrified at 15 kV 16⅔ Hz AC. The railways transported 56,827,000 passengers 2,956 million passenger kilometres and 24,783,000 tonnes of cargo 3,414 million tonne kilometres.[84] The entire network is owned by the Norwegian National Rail Administration,[85] while all domestic passenger trains except the Airport Express Train are operated by Norges Statsbaner (NSB).[86] Several companies operate freight trains.[87]

Investment in new infrastructure and maintenance is financed through the state budget,[85] and subsidies are provided for passenger train operations.[88] NSB operates long-haul trains, including night trains, regional services and four commuter train systems, around Oslo, Trondheim, Bergen and Stavanger.[89]



NSB type 73 at Oslo Central Station, the largest railway station in the country

There are approximately 92,946 kilometres (57,754 mi) of road network in Norway, of which 72,033 kilometres (44,759 mi) are paved and 664 kilometres (413 mi) are motorway.[90] There are four tiers of road routes; national, county, municipal and private, with only the national roads numbered en route. The most important national routes are part of the European route scheme, and the two most prominent are the E6 going north-south through the entire country, while E39 follows the West Coast. National and county roads are managed by the Norwegian Public Roads Administration.[91]



Norwegian and Scandinavian aircraft at Oslo Airport, Gardermoen

Of the 97 airports in Norway,[90] 52 are public,[92] and 46 are operated by the state-owned Avinor.[93] Seven airports have more than one million passengers annually.[92] 41,089,675 passengers passed through Norwegian airports in 2007, of which 13,397,458 were international.[92]

The central gateway by air to Norway is Oslo Airport, Gardermoen,[92] located about 50 kilometres (31 mi) north of Oslo with departures to most European countries and some intercontinental destinations.[94][95] It is hub for the two major Norwegian airlines Scandinavian Airlines System[96] and Norwegian Air Shuttle,[97] and for regional aircraft from Western Norway.[98]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Norway



Demographics in Norway

Norway's population numbers roughly 4.9 million.[9] Most of the population are Norwegians, a North Germanic people.

The Sami people traditionally inhabit central and northern parts of Norway and Sweden, as well as in northern Finland and in Russia on the Kola Peninsula. Another national minority are the Kven people who are the descendants of Finnish speaking people that moved to northern Norway in the 18th up to the 20th century. Both the Sami and the Kven were subjected to a strong assimilation policy by the Norwegian government from the 19th century up to the 1970s.[101] Because of this "Norwegianization process", many families of Sami or Kven ancestry now self-identify as

Historical populations

Year	Pop.	±%
1500	140,000	—
1665	440,000	+214.3%
1735	616,109	+40.0%
1801	883,603	+43.4%
1855	1,490,047	+68.6%
1900	2,240,032	+50.3%
1950	3,278,546	+46.4%
2000	4,478,497	+36.6%
2010	4,858,199	+8.5%
2060?	7,032,687	+44.8%

***Source**: Statistics Norway (http://www.ssb.no/fob2001/nos_d316/)*
.[99][100]

ethnic Norwegian.[102]

Other groups recognized as national minorities of Norway are Jews, Forest Finns, and Norwegian Romani Travellers (a branch of the Romani people, not to be confused with non-recognized Indigenous Norwegian Travellers[*citation needed*]).

Urbanization

Most populous urban areas of Norway

Rank	Core city	County	Urban population	Municipal population
1	**Oslo**	Oslo	876,391	590,041
2	**Bergen**	Hordaland	257,752	253,600
3	**Stavanger/Sandnes**	Rogaland	189,828	121,610
4	**Trondheim**	Sør-Trøndelag	160,072	168,257
5	**Fredrikstad/Sarpsborg**	Østfold	101,698	72,760
6	**Drammen**	Buskerud	96,563	60,145
7	**Grenland**	Telemark	86,923	50,595
8	**Kristiansand**	Vest-Agder	67,547	80,109
9	**Tromsø**	Troms	55,057	64,782
10	**Tønsberg**	Vestfold	47,465	39,758
11	**Ålesund**	Møre og Romsdal	46,471	41,385
12	**Haugesund**	Rogaland	42,850	33,022
13	**Moss**	Østfold	41,725	28,200
14	**Sandefjord**	Vestfold	40,877	43,648
15	**Bodø**	Nordland	36,482	46,049
16	**Arendal**	Aust-Agder	32,439	41,241
17	**Hamar**	Hedmark	30,015	27,593
18	**Larvik**	Vestfold	23,899	41,211
19	**Halden**	Østfold	22,986	28,063
20	**Lillehammer**	Oppland	20,097	26,124

CityPopulation (http://www.citypopulation.de/Norway-UA.html#Stadt_alpha)


Oslo


Bergen


Stavanger


Trondheim


Fredrikstad


Drammen


Skien


Kristiansand


Tromsø


Tønsberg


Ålesund

Migration

Emigration

Main article: Norwegian American

There are almost 4.7 million Norwegian Americans according to the 2006 U.S. census.[103] The number of Americans of Norwegian descent living in the U.S. today is roughly equal to the current population of Norway. In the 2006 Canadian census, 432,515 Canadian citizens claimed Norwegian ancestry.[104]



Norman Borlaug, father of the Green Revolution.

Immigration

Main article: Immigration to Norway

In recent years, immigration has accounted for most of Norway's population growth. According to Statistics Norway (SSB), a record 61,200 immigrants arrived in the country in 2007, an increase of 35% from 2006. At the beginning of 2010, there were 552,313 people in Norway of some immigrant background (including those born of immigrant parents), comprising 11.4% of the total population. 210,725 were from Western countries (Europe, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) and 341,588 were from other countries. The largest immigrant groups by country of origin, in order of size, are Poles, Swedes, Pakistanis, Iraqis, Somalis, Germans, Vietnamese, and Danes.[105]

Pakistani Norwegians are the largest non-European minority group in Norway, and most of their 31,000 members live around Oslo. The Iraqi immigrant population has increased significantly in recent years. After the enlargement of the EU in 2004, there has also been an influx of immigrants from Central and Eastern Europe, particularly Poland. The large 2007 immigrant group was primarily from Poland, Germany, Sweden, Lithuania and Russia.[106][107]

In 2011 there were approximately 600,900 people of some non-Norwegian background residing in Norway, or 12.2% of the total population. In 2010, the immigrant community grew by 57,000, which accounted for 90% of Norway's population growth; some 27% of newborn children were of immigrant background.[1] The policies of immigration and integration are subjected to major controversy in Norway. These statistics indicate that Norway's population is now 82.0% ethnic Norwegian, a figure that has steadily decreased since the late 20th century. Some 12.2% of the population is of solely immigrant background, while 5.7% of the population is of mixed Norwegian-foreign ancestry. People of other European ethnicity are 5.8% of the total, while Asians (including Pakistanis, Iraqis, and Turks) are 4.3%, Africans 1.5%, and others 0.6%.

Ethnicity	Population[108]	Percent
Norwegians	4,305,886[note 2]	86.2%
Swedes	78,830	1.6%
Poles	65,294	1.3%
Danes	53,630	1.0%
Germans	40,847	0.8%
British	36,312	0.7%
Pakistanis	35,722	0.7%

Rindal and Beiarn municipalities have the highest percentage of Norwegians, 99.5% and 99.1%, respectively.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Norway

Norwegians are registered at baptism as members of the Church of Norway; many remain in the state church to be able to use services such as baptism, confirmation, marriage and burial, rites which have strong cultural standing in Norway. About 79.2%[109] of Norwegians were members of the Church of Norway as of January 1, 2010. However, only 20% of Norwegians say that religion occupies an important place in their life (according to a recent Gallup poll), the fourth-lowest such percentage in the world (only Estonia, Sweden and Denmark are lower).[110] In the early 1990s, it was estimated that between 4.7% – 5.3% of Norwegians attended church on a weekly basis.[111] This figure has dropped to about 2% – the lowest such percentage in Europe – according to 2009 and 2010 data[112][113]


Nidaros Cathedral in Trondheim

There are, by November 2011, about 98,000 registered Catholics in Norway.[114] But there are also lots of Catholics who aren't registered with their personal identification number; the real number is probably about 230,000 Catholics, 70% of whom were born abroad.[115][116] Annuario Pontificio 2011 use a number of 229,652 Catholics. That constitutes about 5% of the population, making Norway the most Catholic country in Northern Europe.[117]

In 2010, 10% of the population was religiously unaffiliated, while another 9% (431 000 people), were members of religious and life stance communities outside the Church of Norway.[118] Other Christian denominations total about 4.9%[118] of the population, the largest of which is the Catholic Church, with 83,000 members.[119] Others include Pentecostals (39,600),[119] the Evangelical Lutheran Free Church of Norway (19,600),[119] Methodists (11,000),[119] Baptists (9,900),[119] Orthodox (9,900)[119] Brunstad Christian Church (6,800),[119] Adventists (5,100),[119] Assyrians and Chaldeans, and others. The Swedish, Finnish and Icelandic Lutheran congregations in Norway have about 27,500 members in total.[119] Other religions comprise less than 1% each, including 4,000 members in the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, and 12,000 Jehovah's Witnesses.[119]

Among non-Christian religions, Islam is the largest with the population of 106,735.[120] It is practiced mainly by Somali, Arab, Albanian, and Turkish immigrants, as well as Norwegians of Pakistani descent. Other religions comprise less than 1% each, including 819 adherents of Judaism.[121] Indian immigrants introduced Hinduism to Norway, which in 2011 has slightly more than 5,900 adherents, or 1% of non-Lutheran Norwegians.[121] Sikhism has approximately 3,000 adherents with most living in Oslo, with two Gurdwaras; Gurdwara Sri Guru Nanak Dev Ji and Gurdwara Sikh Sangat. Sikhs first came to Norway in the early 1970s. The troubles in Punjab after Operation Bluestar and the genocide of Sikhs after the assassination of Indira Gandhi led to an increase of Sikhs moving to Norway. Drammen also has a sizeable population of Sikhs with the largest Gurdwara in north Europe completed in Lier. There are eleven Buddhist organizations, grouped under the Buddhistforbundet organization, with slightly over 14,000 members,[121] which make up 0.2% of the population. The Baha'i religion has slightly more than 1,000 adherents.[121][121] Around 1.7% (84,500) of Norwegians adhere to the secular Norwegian Humanist Association.

From 2006 to 2011, the fastest-growing religious faith in Norway was Orthodox Christianity, which grew in membership by 80.0%; however, its share of the total population remains small, at 0.20%. One of the reasons is

huge immigration from Eritrea and Ethiopia and to a lesser extent from Eastern European and Middle Eastern countries. Other fast-growing religions were the Roman Catholic Church (78.7%), Hinduism (59.6%), Islam (48.1%), and Buddhism (46.7%).[122]

According to the Eurobarometer Poll 2005, at that time 32% of Norwegian citizens responded that "they believe there is a god".[123] A study conducted three years previously by Gustafsson and Pettersson (2002), similarly found that 72% of Norwegians did not believe in a 'personal God.'[124]

Like other Scandinavian countries, the Norse followed a form of native Germanic paganism known as Norse paganism. By the end of the 11th century, when Norway had been Christianized, the indigenous Norse religion and practices were prohibited. Remnants of the native religion and beliefs of Norway survive today in the form of names, referential names of cities and locations, the days of the week, and other parts of the everyday language. Modern interest in the old ways has led to a revival of the pagan religious practices in the form of Asatru. The Norwegian Åsatrufellesskapet Bifrost formed in 1996; as of 2011, the fellowship has about 300 members. Foreningen Forn Sed formed in 1999 and has been recognized by the Norwegian government as a religious organization.

Parts of the Sami minority retained their shamanistic religion well into the 18th century when they were converted to Christianity by Dano-Norwegian missionaries.

Religion	Members	Percent	As of 2011[120]
Christianity	**4,115,675**	**83.6%**	
Lutheranism	3,911,622	79.4%	
Roman Catholicism	83,018	1.6%	
Pentecostalism	39,599	0.8%	
Jehovah's Witnesses	11,739	0.2%	
Methodism	11,055	0.2%	
Baptists	9,922	0.2%	
Orthodox Christianity	9,894	0.2%	
Seventh-day Adventist Church	5,066	0.1%	
Other Christianity	33,760	0.6%	
Non-Christian religions	**133,219**	**2.7%**	
Islam	106,735	2.1%	
Buddhism	14,580	0.2%	
Hinduism	5,858	0.1%	
Sikhism	2,975	0.06%	
Bahá'í Faith	1,064	0.02%	
Judaism	819	0.01%	
Other religions	1,188	0.02%	
Non-religious and unknown	**671,411**	**13.6%**	
Humanism	84,481	1.7%	
Total	**4,920,305**	**100.0%**	

Education

Main article: Education in Norway



The main building of the Norwegian University of Science and Technology in Trondheim

Higher education in Norway is offered by a range of seven universities, five specialized colleges, 25 university colleges as well as a range of private colleges. Education follows the Bologna Process involving Bachelor (3 years), Master (2 years) and PhD (3 years) degrees.[125] Acceptance is offered after finishing upper secondary school with general study competence.

Public education is virtually free, regardless of nationality,[126] with an academic year with two semesters, from August to December and from January to June. The ultimate responsibility for the education lies with the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research.

Languages

Main article: Languages of Norway

See also: Norwegian language and Sami languages



Distribution of Norwegian dialect groups: North Norwegian (yellow), Trøndelag Norwegian (navy blue), West Norwegian (orange) and East Norwegian (pale blue).

The North Germanic Norwegian language has two official written forms, *Bokmål* and *Nynorsk*. Both of them are recognized as official languages, in that they are both used in public administration, in schools, churches, and media, and Bokmål is the written language used by the vast majority of about 80–85%. Around 95% of the population speak Norwegian as their native language, although many speak dialects that may differ significantly from the written language. In general, most Norwegian dialects are inter-intelligible, although some may require significant efforts on the part of a listener to understand. Several Uralic Sami languages are spoken and written throughout the country, especially in the north, by the *Sami people*. Speakers have a right to get education in Sami language no matter where they are living and receive communication from the government in various Sami languages. The Kven minority speak the Uralic Kven language/Finnish. There is advocacy for making Norwegian Sign Language an official Norwegian language.

In the 19th and 20th century, Norwegian language was subject to strong political and cultural controversy, which led to the creation of Nynorsk in the 19th century and to the formation of alternative spelling standards in the 20th century, notably the Riksmål standard, which is more conservative (that is, more similar to Danish) than Bokmål.

Norwegian is similar to the other languages in Scandinavia, Swedish and Danish. All three languages are mutually intelligible and can be, and commonly are, employed in communication between inhabitants of the Scandinavian countries. As a result of the cooperation within the Nordic Council, inhabitants of all Nordic countries, including Iceland and Finland, have the right to communicate with the Norwegian authorities in their own language.

Any Norwegian student who is a child of immigrant parents is encouraged to learn the Norwegian language. The Norwegian government offers language instructional courses for immigrants wishing to obtain Norwegian citizenship. From 1 September 2008, an applicant for Norwegian citizenship must also give evidence of proficiency in either the Norwegian or Sami language or give proof of having attended classes in Norwegian for 300 hours, or meet the language requirements for university studies in Norway (which is met by being proficient in one of the Scandinavian languages).

The main foreign language taught in Norwegian elementary school is English. The majority of the population are fluent in English, especially those born after World War II. German, French and Spanish are also commonly taught as a second or, more often, third language. Russian, Japanese, Italian, Latin and rarely Chinese (Mandarin) are available in some schools, mostly in the cities. Traditionally, English, German and French were considered the main foreign languages in Norway. These languages, for instance, had been used on Norwegian passports until the 1990s, and university students have a general right to use these languages when submitting their theses.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Norway



The various regions of Norway have their own bunads; traditional costumes

The unique Norwegian farm culture, sustained to this day, has resulted not only from scarce resources and a harsh climate but also from ancient property laws. In the 18th century, it brought about a strong romantic nationalistic movement, which is still visible in the Norwegian language and media. In the 19th century, Norwegian culture blossomed as efforts continued to achieve an independent identity in the areas of literature, art and music. This continues today in the performing arts and as a result of government support for exhibitions, cultural projects and artwork.[127]

Norway has been, in many regards, an early adopter of women's rights, minority rights, and LGBT rights.[128] For example, in 1990 Norway was the first country to recognize the ILO-convention 169 on indigenous people, and in 1913 become one of the first countries to grant women universal suffrage (without conditions on civil status). It was also the first independent nation to allow women to run for elected office.

In regards to LGBT rights, Norway was the first country in the world to enact an anti-discrimination law protecting the rights of gays and lesbians. In 1993 Norway became the second country to legalize civil union partnerships for same-sex couples, and on January 1, 2009, Norway became the sixth country to grant full marriage equality to same-sex couples.

However, only in 1990 was the Norwegian constitution altered to grant absolute primogeniture to the Norwegian throne, meaning that the eldest child, regardless of gender, takes precedence in the line of succession. This was not done retroactively, meaning that even now the current successor to the throne is not the eldest child to the King, but the eldest son. The Norwegian constitution Article 6 states that “For those born before the year 1990 it shall [..] be the case that a male shall take precedence over a female.”[129]

An ardent promoter of human rights, Norway is home to the annual Oslo Freedom Forum conference, a gathering described by The Economist as “on its way to becoming a human-rights equivalent of the Davos economic forum.”[130]

Cinema

Main article: Cinema of Norway

Not until fairly recently has the Norwegian cinema received international recognition, but as early as 1951 a documentary film of the *Kon-Tiki* expedition won an Oscar Academy Award. In 1959, Arne Skouen's *Nine Lives* was nominated, but failed to win. Another notable film is *Flåklypa Grand Prix* (English: *Pinchcliffe Grand Prix*), an animated feature film directed by Ivo Caprino. The film was released in 1975 and is based on characters from Norwegian cartoonist Kjell Aukrust. It is the most widely seen Norwegian film of all time.

There was however a real breakthrough in 1987 with Nils Gaup's *Pathfinder* which told the story of the Sami. It was nominated for an Oscar and was a huge international success. Berit Nesheim's *The Other Side of Sunday* was also nominated for an Oscar in 1997.

Since the 1990s, the film industry has thrived with up to 20 feature films each year. Particular successes were *Kristin Lavransdatter*, *The Telegraphist* and *Gurin with the Foxtail*. Knut Erik Jensen was among the more successful new directors together with Erik Skjoldbjærg remembered for *Insomnia*.[131]

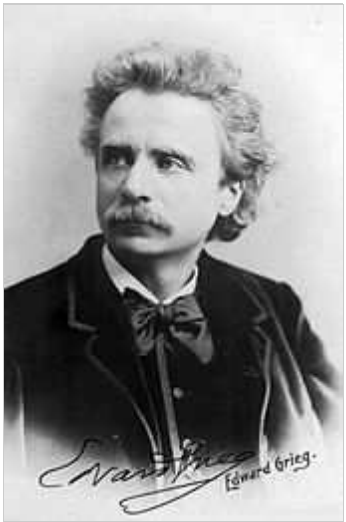
In late 2008, the movie *Max Manus* opened at Norwegian theatres. The movie was a WW2 drama, telling the story of the Norwegian resistance hero Max Manus who led many successful sabotage operations against the German occupation. The movie became the highest grossing Norwegian movie ever.

Other notable successful Norwegian films, include Orion's Belt (film), Cold Prey, Cold Prey 2, Cold Prey 3 and The Troll Hunter

Music

Main article: Music of Norway

Along with the classical music of romantic composers Edvard Grieg; Rikard Nordraak and Johan Svendsen, and the modern music of Arne Nordheim, Norwegian black metal has become something of an export article in recent years.



Edvard Grieg, composer and pianist

Norway's classical performers include Leif Ove Andsnes, one of the world's more famous pianists, Truls Mørk, an outstanding cellist, and the great Wagnerian soprano Kirsten Flagstad.

Since the 1990s, Norway's biggest cultural export is black metal. The lo-fi, dark and raw form of heavy metal exploded in Norway during the 1990s and launched the careers of bands such as Darkthrone, Mayhem, Burzum, Emperor, Gorgoroth and Immortal, as well as later bands such as Dimmu Borgir. This development has since become an important part of extreme metal, but many events that took place in the early 1990s related to the black metal movement such as several church burnings and a prominent murder case caused some concern amongst the Norwegian citizens at large.

The jazz scene in Norway is also thriving. Jan Garbarek, Terje Rypdal, Mari Boine, Arild Andersen, and Bugge Wesseltoft are internationally recognized while Paal Nilssen-Love, Supersilent, Jaga Jazzist and Wibutee are becoming world-class artists of the younger generation.[132]


Hardingfele, a fiddle from Norway

Norway has a strong folk music tradition which remains popular to this day.[133] Among the most prominent folk musicians are Hardanger fiddlers Andrea Een, Olav Jørgen Hegge and Annbjørg Lien, vocalists Agnes Buen Garnås, Kirsten Bråten Berg and Odd Nordstoga.[134]

Other internationally recognized bands are a-ha and Röyksopp. The group a-ha initially rose to fame during the mid 1980s after being discovered by musician and producer John Ratcliff and has had continued global success in the 1990s and 2000s (decade).

In recent years, various Norwegian songwriters and productionteams have contributed to other international artists releases. Most notabilly the Norwegian productionteam Stargate (production team) who has produced songs for Rihanna, Beyonce Knowles, Shakira, Jennifer Lopez and Lionel Richie among others. Espen Lind who has written and produced songs for Beyonce Knowles, Lionel Richie, Ne-Yo, Chris Brown, Jessica Simpson and Leona Lewis. Lene Marlin who has written songs for Rihanna and Lovebugs (band)

Norway enjoys many music festivals throughout the year, all over the country. Norway is the host of one of the world's biggest Extreme sport festivals with music; Ekstremsportveko – a festival held annually in Voss. Oslo is the host of many festivals, such as: Øyafestivalen and by:Larm. Oslo used to have a summerparade similar to the German Love Parade. In 1992 the city of Oslo wanted to adopt the French music festival "Fête de la Musique". Fredrik Carl Størmer established the festival. Even in its first year, "Musikkens Dag" gathered thousands of people and artists in the streets of Oslo. "Musikkens Dag" is now renamed "Musikkfest Oslo. Norway also have a festival named trænafestivalen each year on the island Træna.

Literature

Main article: Norwegian literature

See also: List of Norwegian writers

History of Norwegian literature starts with the pagan Eddaic poems and skaldic verse of the 9th and 10th centuries with poets such as Bragi Boddason and Eyvindr skáldaspillir. The arrival of Christianity around the year 1000 brought Norway into contact with European mediaeval learning, hagiography and history writing. Merged with native oral tradition and Icelandic influence this was to flower into an active period of literature production in the late 12th and early 13th centuries. Major works of that period include *Historia Norwegiæ*, *Þiðrekssaga* and *Konungs skuggsjá*.


Knut Hamsun

Little Norwegian literature came out of the period of the Scandinavian Union and the subsequent Dano-Norwegian union (1387—1814), with some notable exceptions such as Petter Dass and Ludvig Holberg. In his play Peer Gynt, Ibsen characterized this period as "Twice two hundred years of darkness/brooded o'er the race of monkeys", although the latter line is not as frequently quoted as the former. During the union with Denmark, written Norwegian was replaced by Danish.

Two major events precipitated a major resurgence in Norwegian literature. In 1811 a Norwegian university was


Henrik Ibsen

established in Christiania. Seized by the spirit of revolution following the American and French Revolutions, the Norwegians signed their first Constitution in 1814. Soon, the cultural backwater that was Norway brought forth a series of strong authors recognized first in Scandinavia, and then worldwide; among them were Henrik Wergeland, Peter Christen Asbjørnsen, Jørgen Moe and Camilla Collett.

By the late 19th century, in the Golden Age of Norwegian literature, the so-called *Great Four* emerged: Henrik Ibsen, Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson, Alexander Kielland, and Jonas Lie. Bjørnson's "peasant novels", such as "En glad gutt" (A Happy Boy) and "Synnøve Solbakken" are typical of the national romanticism of their day, whereas Kielland's novels and short stories are mostly realistic. Although an important contributor to early Norwegian romantic nationalism (especially the ironic Peer Gynt), Henrik Ibsen's fame rests primarily on his pioneering realistic dramas such *The Wild Duck* and *A Doll's House*, many of which caused moral uproar because of their candid portrayals of the middle classes.

In the 20th century, three Norwegian novelists were awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature: Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson in 1903, Knut Hamsun for the book "Markens grøde" ("Growth of the Soil") in 1920, and Sigrid Undset in 1928. Further important contributions to Norwegian literature were made by writers like Dag Solstad, Jon Fosse, Cora Sandel, Olav Duun, Olav H. Hauge, Gunvor Hofmo, Stein Mehren, Kjell Askildsen, Hans Herbjørnsrud, Aksel Sandemose, Bergljot Hobæk Haff, Jostein Gaarder, Erik Fosnes Hansen, Jens Bjørneboe, Kjartan Fløgstad, Lars Saabye Christensen, Johan Borgen, Herbjørg Wassmo, Jan Erik Vold, Rolf Jacobsen, Olaf Bull, Jan Kjærstad, Georg Johannesen, Tarjei Vesaas, Sigurd Hoel, Arnulf Øverland and Johan Falkberget.

Architecture

Main article: Architecture of Norway

Norway has always had a tradition of building in wood. Indeed, many of today's most interesting new buildings are made of wood, reflecting the strong appeal that this material continues to hold for Norwegian designers and builders.[135]


Urnes Stave Church has been listed by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site

Norway's conversion to Christianity some 1,000 years ago led to the introduction of stonework architecture, beginning with the construction of Nidaros Cathedral in Trondheim.


The small town Røros has

In the early Middle Ages, stave churches were constructed throughout Norway. Many of them remain to this day and represent Norway's most important contribution to architectural history. A fine example is Urnes Stave Church which is now on UNESCO's World Heritage List. Another notable example of wooden architecture is the Bryggen Wharf in Bergen, consisting of a row of narrow wooden structures along the quayside.

In the 17th century, under the Danish monarchy, cities such as Kongsberg with its Baroque church and Røros with its wooden buildings were established.

After Norway's union with Denmark was dissolved in 1814, Oslo became the capital. Architect Christian H. Grosch designed the oldest parts of the University

small streets and old houses.

of Oslo, the Oslo Stock Exchange, and many other buildings and churches.

At the beginning of the 20th century, the city of Ålesund was rebuilt in the Art Nouveau style. The 1930s, when functionalism dominated, became a strong period for Norwegian architecture, but it is only in recent decades that Norwegian architects have truly achieved international renown. One of the most striking modern buildings in Norway is the Sami Parliament in Kárášjohka designed by Stein Halvorson and Christian Sundby. Its debating chamber is an abstract timber version of a Lavvo, the traditional tent used by the nomadic Sami people.[136]

Art

Main article: Norwegian art

For an extended period, the Norwegian art scene was dominated by artwork from Germany and Holland as well as by the influence of Copenhagen. It was in the 19th century that a truly Norwegian era began, first with portraits, later with even more impressive landscapes. Johan Christian Dahl (1788–1857), originally from the Dresden school, eventually returned to paint the landscapes of western Norway, defining Norwegian painting for the first time."[137]

Norway's new-found independence from Denmark encouraged painters to develop their Norwegian identity, especially with landscape painting by artists such as Kitty Kielland, a female painter who studied under Hans Gude; Harriet Backer, 1845–1932, another pioneer among female artists, influenced by impressionism. Frits Thaulow, an impressionist, was influenced by the art scene in Paris as was Christian Krohg, a realist painter, famous for his paintings of prostitutes.[138]



Brudeferd i Hardanger by Adolph Tidemand og Hans Gude, 1848

Of particular note is Edvard Munch, a symbolist/expressionist painter who became world famous for The Scream which is said to represent the anxiety of modern man.

Other artists of note include Harald Sohlberg, a neo-romantic painter remembered for his paintings of Røros; and Odd Nerdrum, a figurative painter who maintains his work is not art but kitsch.

Cuisine

Main article: Norwegian cuisine

Norway's culinary traditions show the influence of long seafaring and farming traditions with salmon (fresh and cured), herring (pickled or marinated), trout, codfish and other seafood balanced by cheeses, dairy products and breads (predominantly dark/darker).

Lefse is a Norwegian potato flatbread, most common around Christmas. Some traditional Norwegian dishes include lutefisk, smalahove, pinnekjøtt and fårikål.[139]

See also

- Outline of Norway
- Nordic countries

- Scandinavia

References

Notes

1. ^ The Spitsbergen Treaty (also known as the Svalbard Treaty) of February 9, 1920, recognizes the full and absolute sovereignty of Norway over the arctic archipelago of Spitsbergen (now called Svalbard). Peter I Island is dependent territory (Norwegian: *biland*) of Norway but is not considered part of the Kingdom. Norway also lays claim to a section of Antarctica known as Queen Maud Land.[8]
2. ^ Includes persons with no foreign born parent

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History of Norway

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The history of human settlement in what is present day Norway goes back at least 11,000 years, to the late Paleolithic. Archaeological finds in the county of Møre og Romsdal have been dated to 9,200 BC and are probably the remains of settlers from Doggerland, an area now submerged in the North Sea, but at the time a landbridge that connected the present day British Isles with Jutland. The Fosna-Hensbacka culture inhabited parts of Norway about 8300 BC to 7300 BC. Petroglyphs dating from the Neolithic Age (in Norway 4000 BC to 1800 BC) show scenes of hunter-gatherers. More permanent settlements developed during the Bronze Age (1800 BC to 400 BC) and Iron Age. The earliest runes (an inscription in North Germanic) that have been found were inscribed on an arrowhead dating from about 200 AD. Many more inscriptions appear until 800 AD; a number of small kingdoms developed during these centuries.

The period from 800–1066 saw significant expansion, and is referred to as the Viking age. During this period, Norwegians, as well as Swedes and Danes, traveled abroad on longships, as raiders, explorers, settlers and traders. By the middle of the 11th century, the Norwegian kingdom was firmly established, although there was still only a very rudimentary administrative framework. The Black Death arrived in Norway in 1349, killing perhaps half the population, after which Norway entered into a period of decline.

Between 1396 and 1536 Norway was a part of the Kalmar Union, and from 1536 to 1814 Norway was effectually a tributary to Denmark, named as the personal union Denmark–Norway. Denmark–Norway entered into an alliance with Napoleon, with the war leading to dire conditions and mass starvation in 1812. In 1814 Denmark–Norway was defeated in the Napoleonic wars and the king was forced to cede Norway to the king of Sweden in the Treaty of Kiel (January 14). Sweden and Norway adopted a loose union, in which Norway was permitted to maintain its own Constitution.

This period also saw the rise of the Norwegian romantic nationalism cultural movement, as Norwegians sought to define and express a distinct national character. The union with Sweden was dissolved in 1905. Norway remained neutral during World War I. Norway claimed neutrality again during World War II, but was occupied by German forces from April 9, 1940 until May 8, 1945.

Norway joined NATO in 1949 and in 1960 the European Free Trade Area as one of the seven founding members.[1] Two plebiscites to join the European Union failed by narrow margins in 1972 and 1994. Norway has been a close ally of the United States. Large reserves of petroleum and natural gas were discovered in the 1960s, which led to a continuing boom in the economy. Whaling was once an important industry and commercial fishing continues to be so.

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Etymology

Modern etymologists believe the country's name means "the northward route" (the way north or the north way), which in Old Norse would be *nor veg* or **norð vegr*. The Old Norse name for Norway was *Nóregr*, in Anglo-Saxon *Norþ weg*, and in mediaeval Latin *Northvegia*. The present name of the Kingdom of Norway in Norwegian Bokmål is "Kongeriket Norge" and in Norwegian Nynorsk "Kongeriket Noreg", both only a couple of letters removed from the original "northern way"; "Nor(d)-(v)e.g.

Pre-historic age (10,000 BC–800 AD)

Main article: Nordic Stone Age

Main article: Nordic Bronze Age

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Burial mound on Karmøy

Settled since the end of the last ice age, modern-day Scandinavia contains finds from the Stone age and Bronze age, such as rock carvings.

Pytheas description of Thule as a land six days sailing north of Britain, where there is no nightfall in summer, might be the first written reference to what we today know as Norway. Later Scandinavia is known for its Iron Age culture. From around the time of the Roman Empire until about 800 AD, many stone inscriptions can be found, written in Runes. Apparently, the petty kingdoms developed during these centuries.

See also: Komsa, Fosna-Hensbacka culture, Funnelbeaker culture, Hamburg culture, Nøstvet and Lihult

cultures, and Maglemosian culture



Rock carvings at Alta

The Viking Age (800–1066)

See also: Viking Age and Unification of Norway

The period from 800–1066 AD is referred to in Norwegian history as the Viking age. During this period, Norwegians, as well as Swedes and Danes, traveled abroad on longships, as raiders, explorers, settlers and traders. Viking raids affected large parts of Europe. The Norwegian Vikings mainly traveled west, to Britain and Ireland. Emigrants from Norway colonized Shetland, Orkney, the Faroe Islands and Iceland. From Iceland, Greenland was also colonized, and voyages were even made to North America, where remains of Viking dwellings have been found in Newfoundland.



The Oseberg Viking Ship which is exhibited in the Viking Ship Museum in Oslo

Several historic works, known as the kings' sagas were written in Norway and Iceland in the 12th and 13th centuries, the best known of which is Snorri Sturluson's *Heimskringla* (c. 1220). These provide our main sources for the early history of Norway. However, their accuracy for the earliest period is uncertain, and a much debated topic among modern historians. The stories about the earliest times are partly legendary in nature, and can hardly be taken as accurate history.

The period of the Viking age coincides with the first consolidation of a single Norwegian kingdom. By the time of the first historical records of these events, about the 700s AD, Norway was divided into several petty kingdoms. It is also assumed that Danish rulers often held sway in the Oslofjord-area.

King Harald Fairhair is the king who is credited by later tradition as having unified Norway into one kingdom. According to the sagas, he ruled Norway from approximately 872 to 930. Modern historians assume that his rule was limited to the coastal areas of southern Norway. Kings of Norway until King Olav IV, who died in 1387, claimed descent from Harald Fairhair. After Harald's death, the unity of the kingdom was not preserved, and for the next century, the kingdom was variously ruled, wholly or in part, by descendants of King Harald or by earls under the suzerainty of Denmark.

During this period, Christianity was introduced to Norway, probably mainly from the British Isles. In terms of church organization, Norway remained part of the Archdiocese of Bremen until 1152 or 1153. The first Norwegian king to have adopted Christianity was, according to the sagas, Harald Fairhair's son, King Haakon the Good (c. 934–961). Haakon did not force his subjects to accept the new religion. His successors, Olaf Tryggvason (c. 995–1000), and Olaf Haraldsson (St. Olav) (1015–1028) resorted to forceful means to convert the Norwegian people. Olaf Haraldsson was probably the first King of Norway to extend his rule to the inland regions of eastern Norway, and to have ruled more or less the whole of the present-day country. His death in the battle of Stiklestad in 1030 is traditionally considered a milestone in the history of the Christianisation of the country, although religion was not one of the issues at stake in that battle. After his death, Olaf was revered as a saint. He became the patron saint of Norway, and by the end of the century, Christianity was the only religion allowed in the country. In theory, later kings of Norway were said to hold the kingdom as vassals of St. Olav.

After Olaf's death, Norway was ruled from Denmark, as part of the "North Sea Empire" of King Knut the Great. However, Knut was the last Danish king to rule Norway for more than three centuries, and already in 1035, Olaf's son, Magnus the Good took the throne. His successor, King Harald Hardrada attempted the invasion of England in 1066, but was beaten and killed at the battle of Stamford Bridge, an event which is generally considered the end of the Viking Age.

These maps are mainly based on later saga sources, from the 13th century. Their historical accuracy is questionable.



Norwegian petty kingdoms c. AD 820 at the death of Gudrød the Hunter. The most important kingdoms were Vestfold (red), Hålogaland (purple), Alvheim (yellow) and Agder (green).



Petty kingdoms ca. 860 AD at the death of Halfdan the Black. In red is the kingdom inherited by Harald Fairhair.



Petty kingdoms ca. 872 AD (the unified kingdom shown in red) before the defining Battle of Hafrsfjord.



King Harald I's division of the kingdom ca. 930 AD. The yellow areas are petty kingdoms, the purple is the domain of the Jarls of Lade, orange is the domain the earls of Møre.



The division of the kingdom after the Battle of Svolder (1000) between Sweden (yellow), Denmark (red) and the Jarl of Lade (purple).



Unified Norway during the reign of Saint Olav ca. 1020 AD. In pale red the *Finnmarken* ("Marches of the Sami") most of which paid tribute to the kings of Norway[*citation needed*].

Norway in the High Middle Ages (1066–1380)

By the middle of the 11th century, the Norwegian kingdom was firmly established, although there was still only a very rudimentary administrative framework. The establishment of cities gathered pace, and by the end of the 11th century, the three largest cities of modern-day Norway, Oslo, Trondheim (*Nidaros*) and Bergen (*Bjørgvin*)



Leif Ericson discovers America. Painting by Christian Krogh, 1893.

were flourishing, as well as Tønsberg, the most important city in Eastern Norway until c. 1300. King Olaf Kyrre (1067–1093) was the first Norwegian king to be literate. The Church gradually developed its organization, and the archdiocese of Nidaros was established in 1152 or 1153. By that time, there were five dioceses in mainland Norway, with bishops in Nidaros, Bjorgvin, Stavanger, Oslo and Hamar. The islands of the North Sea, which had been colonized from Norway, were also part of the archdiocese of Nidaros. Orkney, Shetland and the Faeroe Islands were subject to the Norwegian king. The Hebrides and the Isle of Man were made subject to Norway by King Magnus Barefoot c. 1100. The rulers of these islands held the title of "king" themselves, but recognised the suzerainty of the Norwegian king. The extent to which the Norwegian king was able to exercise his rule over all of these islands was highly variable, and dependent on the individual kings.

According to the succession practices of the time, all sons of the king had the same right to inherit from their father, and this also included illegitimate sons. This led to periods when there were several kings at the same time, at several times three, on one occasion even four. The division of the kingdom does not appear to have been geographical, when there was more than one king, all were kings of the whole country, but they divided the royal income. The unclear succession laws, and the frequent divisions of the kingdom, combined with social and economic conflicts, were some of the main causes of the civil war era, the name given to the period between 1130 and 1240. The civil wars started with the disputed succession after King Sigurd the Crusader, who died in 1130, and flared up at shorter or longer intervals for over a century. In the 1160s, the Church got involved, and made King Magnus Erlingsson the first Norwegian king to be crowned, in 1163 or 1164. The first written succession law was written at this time, stipulating one king, who had to be of legitimate birth. However, this law never came into force, as King Magnus was defeated and killed by Sverre Sigurdsson, who became King Sverre. Sverre was excommunicated by the Church, and the country was placed under an interdict. Although constantly challenged by various pretenders, Sverre fended off his rivals, and when he died in 1202, he was the first King of Norway to have died of natural causes since 1130. By this time, the warring factions had coalesced into two groups: The birchlegs, King Sverre's party, and the bagler, who were supported by the Church, and tried to place descendants of King Magnus Erlingsson on the throne. From 1208 to 1217, the country was divided between these two factions by a peace treaty. In 1217, the kings of both factions died, and both accepted the young King Haakon Haakonsson as king. Haakon defeated the last royal pretender in 1240, thus ending the civil war era.

The extent to which the civil wars adversely affected the general population at the time has been debated by recent historians. What is clear is that the country came out of the civil wars in 1240 as a much more unified and consolidated kingdom than it had been in 1130. The rule of King Haakon and his successors until 1319 has sometimes been called *the golden age* of the Norwegian medieval kingdom, by later historians. Under King Haakon Haakonsson, a centralised administration was for the first time built up, with a chancellery in Bergen, which became the first capital city of the country. Clear succession laws were put into place, stipulating one single ruler, who had to be of legitimate birth. The Old Norse language, which had first been written with the Latin alphabet in the 12th century, was used in administration, as well as for the composition of original literature, and the translation of foreign literature. Haakon also brought Iceland and Greenland under Norwegian rule, in the early 1260s, at which point the kingdom of Norway reached its largest territorial extent. Haakon died in 1263 while on campaign against Scotland, defending his claim to the overlordship of the Hebrides and the Isle of Man. His successor, King Magnus the Lawmender gave up that claim in the treaty of Perth, but secured Scotland's recognition of Norwegian rule over Orkney and Shetland. King Magnus promulgated the first national law-code for all of Norway in 1274, a rare thing in Europe at that time. During the late 13th century, the

Norwegian kings attempted to play the part of a great power in international politics, forging wedding alliances with Castile in 1258, and Scotland in 1281. King Eirik II was one of the many claimants for the throne of Scotland in the "Great Cause", claiming succession from his daughter, Margaret. In 1295, he forged an alliance with France and Scotland against England, whereby Norway undertook to supply the King of France with 300 ships and 50 000 troops. It is clear that Norway could not have the manpower to fulfil the terms of this treaty; however, it was never put to the test.



The Kingdom of Norway (white), c. 1265, at its greatest extent.

In 1299, King Haakon V took the throne, and moved the capital of the country to Oslo. Haakon led an active foreign policy, aimed at increasing Norway's influence in Scandinavia[*citation needed*]. These policies, which included complex dynastic ties between the Nordic royal houses, were to lead Norway into several centuries of unions with her neighbours. At his death, Haakon left no male issue, and the throne went to his daughter's son, the King of Sweden, Magnus Eriksson. The union with Sweden was a personal union, and it was agreed that Magnus' two sons would inherit one kingdom each. King Magnus abdicated, and his son, Haakon, became King of Norway. However, Haakon, who married Margrethe, the daughter of the Danish king, also vied for the throne of Sweden. Haakon and Margrethe's son, Olaf, became King of Denmark in 1376. On his father's death in 1380, Olaf also succeeded to the Norwegian throne, as King Olav IV. With brief exceptions, Norway and Denmark were to be ruled by the same king until 1814.

The Kalmar Union and the union with Denmark

After the Black Death Norway entered into a period of decline. The Royal line died out and the country entered into two unequal unions from 1396 until 1814; this period was called "the 400-year-night" by Henrik Ibsen during the national romantic period as Norwegian national awareness was rediscovered in the 19th century. It can be broken into two main periods:

- The union of all Scandinavia referred to as the Kalmar Union, and
- The Danish Period or Union with Denmark.

The Kalmar Union (1396–1523)

Main article: Kalmar Union

King Haakon V died without male heirs in 1319. His daughter married a Swedish prince, whose son Magnus Eriksson inherited both kingdoms. Magnus's son Haakon VI and his infant son Olav IV were Norway's last native kings until Harald V ascended to the throne in 1991. Margrethe, the queen mother, who was the oldest daughter of King Valdemar IV of Denmark, succeeded in uniting Norway with Denmark and Sweden in the Kalmar Union (1397–1523), which ended after 180 years when Sweden seceded in 1536. Norway's power was weakened during this period by the loss of a large part of the population during the Black Death pandemic of 1349–1351.

The Union with Denmark (1523–1814)

Main article: Denmark–Norway

The elite in Norway was so weakened that it was not able to resist the pressures from the Danes. More and more

decisions were taken in Copenhagen and the Norwegian Riksråd was eventually disbanded. The Danish crown was represented by a governor styled *Statholder*, but it was always important for the King to maintain Norway's legal status as a separate hereditary kingdom. The Danish period can be separated into subperiods:



Map of the north Atlantic and Scandinavia from 1570



Map of Norway from 1668

- **The Reformation in Norway** (1537–1596): Norway's power was further weakened by the dissolution of the independent Norwegian church in the reformation of 1537. Norway became a tributary to Denmark.
- **The Northern Wars** (1596–1720): A period of virtually continual war and preparation for war, including the Kalmar War (1611–1613), the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648), the Second Northern War (1655–1658), the Gyldenløve War (1675–1679) and culminating in the Great Northern War (1700–1721). In the treaties of Roskilde and Copenhagen, Norway lost Bohuslen, Jemtland and Herjedalen, in addition to Idre and Serna, two smaller communities of Eastern Norway.
- **The Period of Peace and Economic Growth** (1721–1770): During the 18th century, Norway enjoyed a period of great prosperity and became an increasingly important part of the united kingdoms.
- **National Reawakening and Preparation for Independence** (1770–1814): This period was built on the strong natural independence of the Norwegian farm culture, combined with awareness of the American Revolution (1775–1783) and the French Revolution (1789–1799), building the natural national assertiveness, and culminating in the constitutional convention of 1814.

Maps of Norway at various dates



Denmark–Norway 1595



Norway 1599



Norway 1720



Norway 1761

Union with Sweden (1814–1905)

Main article: Union between Sweden and Norway

See also: Dissolution of the union between Norway and Sweden in 1905

In 1814 Denmark–Norway was defeated in the Napoleonic wars and the king was forced to cede Norway to the king of Sweden in the Treaty of Kiel (January 14). The Norwegian dependencies Iceland, Greenland and the


Constitution Day celebration outside the Royal Palace, Oslo.

Faroe Islands were kept by Denmark. In an attempt to retain control over Norway despite the treaty, the Viceroy and hereditary prince of Denmark–Norway encouraged representatives of various social and political factions to gather at Eidsvoll to declare independence, adopt a constitution and elect hereditary prince Christian Frederik as king. May 17 is still celebrated as the day of the new democratic constitution of independent Norway. Sweden responded later the same year by waging war on Norway. In the peace negotiations, Christian Frederik agreed to relinquish claims to the Norwegian throne and return to Denmark if Sweden would accept the democratic Norwegian constitution and a loose personal union. The Norwegian parliament (*Stortinget*) then elected the Swedish king as king of Norway on November 4, 1814. When residing in Sweden, the king was represented by a governor-general styled *Stattholder*, often noble, repeatedly even the Crown Prince (then called Viceroy). The stattholder office, vacant after 1856, was abolished in 1873.

The union was peacefully dissolved in 1905 after several years of political unrest when Sweden recognised Norwegian independence. The parliament offered the throne to Prince Carl of Denmark, who accepted it after a referendum confirmed the monarchy and rejected a republican form of government. On November 18 he ascended the throne under the Norwegian name of Haakon VII.

Independent monarchy (1905–present)

Norway in World War I

Norway remained neutral during World War I, but 829 Norwegian ships were sunk during the war at sea,[2] with the loss of some 2,000 sailors.[3] Despite their neutrality, the Norwegian government went to considerable lengths to accommodate Britain, on account of both British pressure and an anti-German sentiment. These accommodations came in the form of the very large Norwegian merchant fleet, which delivered essential supplies to Britain, which in return supplied Norway with vital coal. This led to Norway occasionally being called The Neutral Ally.

Interwar years

A political tension developed in Norway during the 1930s. The effects of the international economic depression on Norway created a stalemate within the government. This stalemate created a frustration with moderate governments in Norway and allowed extremists on both the left and the right of Norweigan politics to thrive. The right-wing of Norweigan politics was embodied in the career of Vidkun Quisling. The Norwegan parliament consisted of 150 seats. Between 1930 and 1936, six political parties from across the Norweigan political spectrum competed for these seats. During the general election of 1933, the Labor Party received 500,526 votes from the Norweigan public. The Conservative Party received 272,690 votes, the Liberal Party received 220,001 votes, the Farmers Party received 173,534 votes. On the extremes of Norweigan politices, the right wing was represented by Quisling's *Nasjonal Samling* or the "National Unification Party" which in 1933 received only 27,847 votes and the left wing was represented by the Communist Party of Norway, which in 1933 received only 22,000 votes.[4]

Norway in World War II

Main article: Occupation of Norway by Nazi Germany

See also: Norwegian Campaign, Norwegian resistance movement, Quisling regime, and Legal purge in Norway after World War II



The German cruiser *Blücher* sinking in the Oslofjord on April 9, 1940.

As World War II erupted, Norway insisted on remaining neutral. In a surprise dawn attack on April 9, 1940, Germany launched *Operation Weserübung*. The German forces attacked Oslo and the major Norwegian ports (Bergen, Trondheim, Kristiansand and Narvik) and quickly gained footholds in those cities and the surrounding areas. The Norwegian Army, manning a fort in the Oslofjord, sank the German cruiser *Blücher* at 7:23am after a two hour enagement. This delayed the Nazi German invasion long enough for King Haakon, his government and the parliament to escape the city with much of the treasury, and to resist the invaders, although Oslo itself surrendered to the invaders at 14:00 on 9 April 1940. The Norwegian armed forces, together with allied British, French and Polish forces, kept up an organized military resistance for two months, longer than any other country invaded by Germany, except for the Soviet Union. Eventually, on June 7 the Norwegian forces had to surrender and King and government left Norway to form a government in exile in London.

The Norwegian national socialist politician Vidkun Quisling attempted a coup the same day, but was met with such strong resistance from the people that Nazi Germany deposed him within a week and installed a bureaucratic administration in lieu of a government. In September 1940 the German Reichskommissar Josef Terboven formed a cabinet with himself presiding, and with most ministers recruited among members of Quisling's Nazi party, plus some independent collaborators. In 1942 this administration was replaced with a semi-independent puppet government headed by Quisling, who was promoted to "minister president" of the "National government" by the Reichskommissar. Quisling's name has come to mean "traitor" in several languages.

King Haakon and his government fled to Britain on June 7, the same day the allied forces that had retaken Narvik abandoned it and the French forces returned to a quickly disintegrating France. The continued existence of a legitimate Norwegian government gave the exiles considerably more room for action than the French. The worldwide operations of the large Norwegian merchant fleet were a material aid to the Allies.

The Norwegian resistance movement began on a small scale right after the invasion, but gained in strength, especially after the installation of Quisling's puppet government in late 1940 and its attempt to enforce the native brand of fascism, and to enroll labour, teachers and officials in its organizations (for an anecdote of Norwegian civil resistance, see Paper Clip).

The resistance became very active towards the end of the war, closely and continuously supported by the British SOE. Norwegian resistance (generally termed the 'Home Front'), and its military branch *(milorg)* kept many German divisions tied down in occupation duty, and Norwegian spotters contributed to the destruction of numerous German warships and installations. The Norwegian resistance also smuggled people in and out of Norway during the war (typically to Scotland via the 'Shetland Bus', and to neutral Sweden), and, with the SOE, managed to destroy much of the world's supply of heavy water and cripple the Vemork heavy water plant at Rjukan, thus perhaps preventing Germany from developing an atomic bomb (*Operation Gunnerside*).

Not all Norwegians sided with the government in exile. 2% of the population became members of Quisling's National Socialist party (Nasjonal Samling – NS). Numerous opportunists joined his movement initially, while Germany seemed to be winning the war. Six thousand young Norwegians joined German Waffen-SS divisions to

fight against the Soviet Union on the Eastern Front.

Following the 1941 raid by British Commandos on the minor port of Vaagsoy, Hitler further reinforced Norway, mistakenly thinking that the British might invade northern Norway to put pressure on Sweden and Finland. By the end of the war the German garrison was 372,000 strong (the Norwegian population at the time numbering a little over 3 million). In May 1945, when the *milorg* was advised they no longer need act covertly, they were found to number some 50,000 members.

During the entire occupation, the German authorities built the so called Festung Norwegen. Innumerable bunkers, pillboxes, air strips and submarine hangars dotted the coast to fend off any invaders. Coupled with the large number of German soldiers in Norway, the Allies (especially the Norwegian government in exile) were worried that the remnants of the Nazi party would flee to Norway and make their last stand there.

The Norwegian merchant ships that were in Allied waters at the time of invasion were requisitioned by the exiled Norwegian Government in London. The Norwegian Shipping and Trade Mission was established in London shortly thereafter, and the name abbreviated to Nortraship, following a suggestion from the British Postal Services. The main duties were those of war transports, supply services etc. including the supply of food, ammunition and reinforcements to the front lines, besides evacuating the wounded. Nortraship had 1,081 ships with 33,000 sailors. 570 ships were lost (these numbers vary according to source), along with 3,734 sailors.

By the end of the war, Norwegian naval vessels were also fighting alongside the British. Norway was counted among the victors in World War II and was a founding member of the United Nations. The first UN Secretary General, Trygve Lie, was a Norwegian.

After the liberation, active members of the National Socialist party and those who had collaborated with the enemy were prosecuted and sentenced. Twenty-five Norwegians, including Quisling, were executed for treason and/or war crimes, and 12 Germans were executed for war crimes.

Post-war

Main articles: Foreign relations of Norway, Military of Norway, and Norway and the European Union

A side effect of the large German garrison was the birth of up to 12,000 children born to Norwegian women and German soldiers. Most of these women suffered recriminations after the war, as did their children, who were called *tyskerbarna* ("German children") or "Nazi children". Many children were sent to homes where they had to suffer physical and sexual abuse, some have been used as test subjects for medical experiments.[5][6]

In 1949 Norway became a member of NATO.

The discovery of oil and gas in adjacent waters in the late 1960s boosted Norway's economic fortunes.

The current focus is on containing spending on the extensive welfare system and planning for the time when petroleum reserves are depleted. In referendums held in 1972 and on November 28, 1994, Norway rejected joining the European Union, though it chose to remain associated with it through being part of the wider European Economic Area.

Norway has advanced in its standard of living beyond many of its European counterparts, in large part to its affluent economy. As a result, for the last several years the United Nations has ranked Norway as having the highest standard of living in the world. This ranking compares nations' level of education and income, combined with expected length of life.

Norway also ranked 2nd in a study conducted by World Economic Forum on the gender gap in 58 nations based on measuring the level of equality with men in five areas: Economic participation, economic opportunity, political empowerment, educational attainment, and health and well-being.[7][8]

21st century

Since the year 2000, Norway has focused on culture. A number of museums have been built and now the new Munch museum and the Historic Museum is the government's current focus. The construction of the new financial district is a new mass-scale project in Oslo. As the biggest building project in Scandinavian history the government plans to renovate Bjørvika and eastern Oslo. The Oslo Opera House received two architectural awards in 2008 and 2009. The new "port of Oslo" and "Barcode"buildings are being built, and the new Oslo Central Station will be built in 2014. Oslo has established a large group of telecom and software companies. Some of the probably largest ones are Telenor, Opera Software, Statnett, Netcom and Ementor. A new IT "city" has been built at Fornebu, Bærum near Oslo. Until 2008, Tandberg's headquarer was located at Lysaker, outside Fornebu The area is currently housing the headquarters of Telenor, Microsoft Norway and Oracle Norway.

A three-party minority coalition of the Centre, Christian Democratic, and Liberal parties, headed by Christian Democrat Prime Minister Kjell Magne Bondevik, moved into office in October 1997. That government fell in March 2000, and Jens Stoltenberg took over the government with a cabinet from the Norwegian Labour Party. In 2001, Bondevik once again became Prime Minister in 2001, this time as head of a minority coalition of the Conservatives, Christian Democrats and Liberals. Since 2005, Jens Stoltenberg has been leading a red-green coalition, consisting of Norwegian Labour Party, Socialist Left Party and Center Party.

Norway participated in sending troops to serve in Afghanistan as part of the NATO force that responded to the Taliban government’s support of al-Qaeda. Norway also contributed warplanes to the NATO mission to Libya in 2011.

On July 22, 2011, Norwegian conservative Anders Behring Breivik launched a terror attack on the capital, bombing government offices in Oslo and orchestrating a shooting at Utøya Island in Buskerud, where the Workers' Youth League (the youth wing of the Labour Party) was holding an annual youth camp. Eight people perished in the blast in central Oslo, and sixty-nine people were gunned down at Utøya, mainly children.

See also

- History of Denmark
- History of Europe
- History of Iceland
- History of Sweden
- List of Norwegian monarchs
- List of Norwegian Prime Ministers
- List of Norwegians
- Military history of Norway
- Politics of Norway
- Sami people
- Kven people

Notes

1. ^ Today, only Iceland, Norway, Switzerland, and Liechtenstein remain members of EFTA (of which only Norway and Switzerland are founding members). The Stockholm Convention was subsequently replaced by the Vaduz Convention. This Convention provides for the liberalisation of trade among the member states.
2. ^ "The Neutrals" (http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,761839-2,00.html) . *Time Magazine*: p. 2. 14 August 1939. http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,761839-2,00.html. Retrieved 24 January 2009.
3. ^ Dagre, Tor. "Norway after 1905" (http://www.norway.org/history/after1814/post1905/post1905.htm) . *Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Norway)*. http://www.norway.org/history/after1814/post1905/post1905.htm. Retrieved 2009-02-08.
4. ^ Ralph Hewins, *Quisling: Prophet Without Honor* (John Day Publishing Co.: New York, 1966) p. 129.

Monarchy of Norway

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Norwegian monarch** or **Sovereign** is the head of state of Norway, which is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary system of government. The Norwegian monarchy can trace its line back to the reign of Harald Fairhair and the previous petty kingdoms which were united to form Norway; it has been in unions with both Sweden and Denmark for long periods.

King of Norway

MONARCHY



Arms of His Majesty the King of Norway



Incumbent:
Harald V

Style:	His Majesty
First monarch:	Harald I
Formation:	c. 872

The present sovereign is King Harald V, who has reigned since 17 January 1991. The heir apparent is his only son, Crown Prince Haakon. The Crown Prince undertakes various public ceremonial functions, as does the King's wife, Queen Sonja. The Crown Prince also acts as regent in the King's absence. There are several other members of the Royal Family, including the King's daughter, grandchildren and siblings. The Royal House is a branch of the princely family of Glücksburg, originally from Schleswig-Holstein in Germany,[1] the same royal house as the Danish and former Greek royal families.

While the Constitution of Norway grants important executive powers to the king, these are almost always exercised by the Council of State in the name of the King (King's Council, or cabinet). Formally the King appoints the government according to his own judgement, but parliamentary practice has been in place since 1884. Constitutional practice has replaced the meaning of the word King in most articles of the constitution from the king personally to the elected government. The powers vested in the Monarch are significant, but are treated only as reserve powers and as an important security part of the role of the Monarchy.

The King's functions are mainly ceremonial. He ratifies laws and royal resolutions, receives and sends envoys to foreign countries and hosts state visits. He has a more tangible influence as the symbol of national unity. The annual New Year's Eve speech is one venue where the king traditionally raises issues dealing with negative aspects in society. The King is also High Protector of the Church of Norway (the state church), Supreme Commander of the Norwegian armed forces and Grand Master of the Royal Norwegian Order of St. Olav and the Royal Norwegian Order of Merit.[2][3]

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History

Main article: Hereditary Kingdom of Norway

The position of King of Norway has been in continuous existence since the unification of Norway in 872. Although Norway has officially been a hereditary kingdom throughout that entire time there have been several instances of elective succession, latest in 1905 Haakon VII was elected by the people of Norway to the position of king through a plebiscite. In recent years members of the Socialist Left party have proposed the abolition of the monarchy during each new session of parliament, though without any likelihood of success.[4] This gives the Norwegian monarchy the unique status of being a popularly elected royal family and receiving regular formal confirmations of support from the Storting.

Germanic kingdom



King Harald receives Norway out of his

Prior to and in the early phase of the Viking Age Norway was divided into several smaller kingdoms. These are thought to follow the same tradition as other Germanic monarchies of the time; the king was usually elected by the high ranking farmers of the area and served mainly as judge during the popular assemblies, as a priest during the sacrifices and as a military leader during wars.

Harald Fairhair was the first king of Norway. The date of the first formation of a unified Norwegian kingdom is set to 872 when he

father's hands in this illustration from the 14th century Flateyjarbók.

defeated the last petty kings who resisted him at the Battle of Hafrsfjord, however the consolidation of his power took many years. The boundaries of Fairhair's kingdom were not identical to those of present day Norway, and upon his death the kingship was shared among his sons. Some historians put emphasis on the actual monarchial control over the country and assert that Olaf II alias *Saint Olaf*, who reigned from 1015 and to 1028, was the first king to control the entire country. Olaf is generally held to be the driving force behind Norway's final conversion to Christianity. Furthermore he was in 1031 revered as Rex Perpetuum Norvegiæ (Latin for *Eternal King of Norway*), and subsequently, the 1163 Succession Law stated that all kings after Olaf II's son, Magnus I, were not independent monarchs, but vassals holding Norway as a fief from Saint Olaf.[5]

Middle ages

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the Norwegian kingdom was at its geographical and cultural peak. The kingdom included Norway (including the now Swedish provinces of Jemtland, Herjedalen, Særna, Idre and Båhuslen), Iceland, the Faroe Islands, Greenland, Shetland, Orkney and other smaller areas in the present day United Kingdom. The king had diplomatic relations with most of the European kingdoms and formed alliances with Scotland and Castile, among others. Large castles such as Haakon's Hall and cathedrals, the foremost being Nidaros Cathedral, were built.



Mainland Norway during the reign of Saint Olav ca. 1020 AD. The *Finnmarken* ("Marches of the Sami"), most of which paid tribute to the kings of Norway, are shown in pink.

In the tradition of the Germanic monarchy the king had to be elected by a representative assembly of noblemen. Men eligible for election had to be of royal blood; the eldest son of the previous king was not automatically chosen. During the civil war era the unclear succession laws and the practice of power-sharing between several kings simultaneously gave personal conflicts the potential to become full-blown wars. Over the centuries kings consolidated their power and eventually a strict succession law made Norway a principally hereditary kingdom. In practice the king was elected by the Riksråd in a similar way to Denmark. He adhered to a håndfæstning and governed in the council of Norwegian noblemen according to existing laws.

After the death of Haakon VI of Norway in 1380, his son Olav IV of Norway succeeded to both the thrones of Norway and Denmark and was also elected King of Sweden. After his death at the age of 17 his mother Margrethe united the three Scandinavian kingdoms in personal union under one crown, in the Kalmar Union. Olav's death extinguished the Norwegian male royal line; he was also the last Norwegian king to be born on Norwegian soil for the next 567 years.[5]

The Black Death of 1349–51 was a contributing factor to the decline of the Norwegian monarchy as the noble families and population in general were gravely affected. But the most devastating factor for the nobility and the monarchy in Norway was the steep decline in income from their holdings. Many farms were deserted and rents and taxes suffered. This left the Norwegian monarchy weakened in terms of manpower, noble support, defence ability and economic power.[5]

Surviving the unions

The Kalmar Union was made possible not only by the complex events in the royal dynasties of Scandinavia but was also, among other things, a direct reaction to the expansive and aggressive policies of the Hanseatic League.[5]

On 6 June 1523 Sweden left the union permanently, leaving Norway in an unequal union with a Danish king already embarked on centralising the government of the Union.

In the following centuries the Norwegian monarchy was characterised by a king mostly residing abroad. This weakened the monarchial governing structures of Norway; the Riksråd, for example, was gradually undermined as the Norwegian nobles were not able to enjoy the King's confidence to the same extent as their Danish counterparts. The King was also less able to govern according to Norwegian needs as the distance meant he and his advisors had less knowledge of the conditions in Norway.[6]

Norway was one of few countries where the archdiocese was coterminous with the national territory. The church was therefore an important factor in trying to maintain the separate Norwegian monarchy. In the 16th century the power struggle between the Norwegian nobles and the king culminated at the same time as the reformation. This prompted a set of events in which the struggle against the Danish dominance in Norway was coupled with the struggle against the reformation. When both failed the effects were harsh. The Norwegian Catholic bishops were replaced with Danes and the Norwegian church was subdued and made wholly Danish. The Norwegian Riksråd was abolished in 1536 and more and more foreign men were appointed to important positions in Norway.[6]

The Danish nobles pushed the king to reduce Norway to a Danish province in order for them to gain more control in the election of future kings. However, the hereditary nature of the Norwegian monarchy meant that the King had to maintain the basic principle of Norway being a separate and extant kingdom. If the Danish nobles were to elect as king someone other than the next in line to the throne the Union would be dissolved. This gave the king the upper hand in the negotiations for the håndfesting. Potential heirs to Norway were present both in the royal dynasties of Sweden and Schleswig-Holstein, so if the King of Denmark did not assert his position as King of Norway they would.[6]


King Frederick III

During this time the Danish kings were more preoccupied with securing the traditionally Danish fringe territories and therefore paid little attention to and made few attempts at maintaining the Norwegian interests. As a result Jemtland, Herjedalen, Båhuslen, Shetland and Orkney were lost to Sweden and Scotland. In addition all contact with Greenland ceased.

In 1661 Frederick III introduced absolute monarchy in Denmark and Norway and introduced new laws in both countries to that effect. Up until that time the law of Magnus the law-mender given in 1274 and 1276 had been the law of Norway. Christian IV's Norwegian law was in effect a translation into Danish of that older law. 1661 also marks the point where the last remnants of representational local government were removed and had to be rebuilt. However, that process started almost immediately when local men of means started putting pressure on local governors in order to gain or regain influence on local matters.[6]

Emerging independence

During the Napoleonic Wars the King aligned Denmark–Norway with France. When Napoleon lost the war, the

king was forced to cede Norway to the king of Sweden under the Treaty of Kiel in 1814. It was initially proposed that the Norwegian dependencies of Greenland, Iceland and the Faroes would remain with Norway, but that point was dropped during the negotiations so they became Danish.[7]


The Constituent Assembly at Eidsvoll in 1814.

On hearing news of the treaty, the Prince of the Kingdom of Denmark-Norway, Christian Frederick, the resident viceroy in Norway, participated in founding a Norwegian independence movement. The independence movement was successful, partly due to clandestine support from the Danish Crown, but also because of the strong desire for independence in Norway. On 10 April, a national assembly met at Eidsvoll to decide on a constitution. Norway eventually declared independence on 17 May 1814, electing Christian Frederick as King. A short war with Sweden later that year ended with the Convention of Moss. This led to the ousting of Christian Frederick, and the Norwegian Storting electing Charles XIII of Sweden as King of Norway, creating the union between Sweden and Norway.[7] In turn the king recognised the Norwegian constitution which was only changed to facilitate the union.

The end result was that the Norwegian monarchy became a constitutional monarchy. In this new union the King was much more a King of Norway than under the previous Danish system. The only area of policy not in the hands of the Norwegians was foreign policy.

Norway had been brought along into the new developments of the world as they arrived in Denmark. However, with the break the Norwegians were able to forge a more progressive political development than was the case in Denmark. Denmark introduced a constitutional monarchy 35 years after Norway. Parliamentarism was introduced in Norway 17 years before Denmark and 33 years before Sweden.[8] The union with Denmark also had its adverse effects on the monarchy, among other things it resulted in the crown of Norway experiencing a loss of territory which today amounts to 2 322 755 km².[9] Very few royal undertakings had been located to Norway and the country is thus lacking the monumental palaces of the period as can be seen in Copenhagen and other parts of Denmark.

Union with Sweden

Main article: Union between Sweden and Norway


Royal Standard

The Treaty of Kiel stipulated that Norway was to be ceded by the king of Denmark–Norway to the king of Sweden. This was however rejected in Norway, where calls for self-determination were already mounting. A Norwegian constituent assembly was called, and a liberal constitution was adopted on 17 May 1814. A short war ensued, ending in a new agreement between the Norwegian parliament and the Swedish king.

The Convention of Moss was from a Norwegian point of view a significant improvement over the terms dictated to Denmark-Norway at the treaty of Kiel. Notably, Norway was no longer to be treated as a Swedish conquest but rather as an equal party in a personal union of two independent states. Both the principle and substance of the Norwegian Constitution were preserved, with only such amendments as were required to allow for the union with Sweden. Norway retained its own parliament and separate institutions, except for the common king and foreign service.

The Norwegian Storting would propose Norwegian laws without interference from Sweden, to be approved by the common King in his capacity as King of Norway. The King would occasionally enact laws unfavourable to Sweden. As the Norwegian movement towards full independence gained momentum, the King approved the building of forts and naval vessels intended to defend Norway against a Swedish invasion.

The union was nevertheless marked by the Norwegians' constant and growing discontent with being in a union of any kind. The Storting would propose laws to reduce the king's power or to assert Norwegian independence. This would most often be vetoed by the king, but as he only had the right to veto the same law twice, it would eventually be passed. Already the constitution of 1814 specified that Norway would have a separate flag, and the present design was introduced in 1821. The flags of both kingdoms were defaced with the union mark in 1844 to denote their equal status within the union. It was discarded despite royal objections from the Norwegian flag in 1898. In 1837 local self-government in certain areas of policy was introduced in rural areas as well as towns. Parliamentarism was introduced in 1884.



Jean Baptiste Bernadotte [a.k.a. King Charles XIV John], Marshal of France, King of Sweden (1818). Joseph Nicolas Jouy, after François Kinson. As Crown Prince, Jean Baptiste Bernadotte was primarily responsible for establishing the union.

It also has to be said that the Royal House of Bernadotte tried hard to be a Norwegian Royal House as well. The Royal Palace in Oslo was built during this period. There were separate coronations in Trondheim as stipulated in the Constitution. The royal princes even had a hunting lodge built in Norway in order to spend more private time there.[10] King Oscar II himself spoke and wrote Norwegian fluently.

Full independence

In 1905 a series of disputes between parliament and the King culminated with the matter of separate Norwegian consuls to foreign countries. Norway had grown into one of the world's leading shipping nations while Sweden retained control of both the diplomatic and consulate corps. The Swedes had little insight in the matters Norwegian ships and businessmen needed assistance with abroad and consulates were not even established in several important shipping cities. The demand for separate Norwegian consuls was seen as very important by the Norwegian parliament and society. The Storting proposed a law establishing a separate Norwegian consulate corps. King Oscar II refused to ratify the law and subsequently the Norwegian cabinet resigned. The king was not able to form any other government that had the support of parliament and as such it was deemed on 7 June that he had failed to function as King of Norway.[7][11]



King Haakon VII early during his reign.

The Norwegian people gave their consent in a plebiscite held on 13 August which resulted in an overwhelming 368,208 votes (99.95%) in favor of dissolution of the Union, against 184 (0.05%) opposed, with 85 percent of Norwegian men voting. No women voted, as universal suffrage was not granted until 1913, however Norwegian feminists collected more than 200,000 signatures in favor of dissolution.[7][11]

On 12 and 13 November, in the second constitutional plebiscite in three months, Norwegian voters decided by a nearly 79 percent majority (259,563 to 69,264) to keep the monarchy instead of establishing a republic.[11]

During the summer a Norwegian delegation had already approached the 33-year-old Prince Carl of Denmark, the second son of the Crown Prince Frederick of Denmark. The Norwegian parliament had considered other candidates but ultimately chose Prince Carl, partly because he already had a son to continue the line of succession, but more significantly because Carl was married to Maud of Wales, the daughter of King Edward VII. By bringing in a king with British royal ties, it was hoped that Norway could court Britain's support.[11]

Prince Carl impressed the delegation in many ways, not the least because of his sensitivity to the liberal and democratic movements that had led to Norway's independence. Though the Norwegian constitution stipulated that the Storting could choose a new king if the throne were vacant, Carl was aware that many Norwegians — including leading politicians and high-ranking military officers — favored a republican form of government. Attempts to persuade the prince to accept the throne on the basis of Parliament's choice failed; Carl insisted that he would accept the crown only if the Norwegian people expressed their will for monarchy by referendum and if the parliament then elected him king.

Following the November plebiscite affirming Norwegians' desire for a monarchy, the parliament by an overwhelming majority offered Carl a clear mandate to the Norwegian throne on 18 November. The prince accepted the same evening, choosing the name **Haakon**, a traditional name used by Norwegian kings. The last king with that name was Haakon VI, who died in the year 1380.

The new king therefore became Haakon VII, King of Norway. His two-year-old son Alexander, the heir apparent, was renamed Olav and became Crown Prince Olav. The new royal family arrived in the capital Kristiania (later Oslo) on 25 November. Haakon VII was sworn in as king of Norway on 27 November.[11]

A new monarchy

The early years of the new Norwegian monarchy were marked by a shortage of funds. The Norwegian state was poor and funds were needed elsewhere than in the upkeep of a large court. In that sense it was a stroke of good fortune that Prince Carl had set as a condition for accepting the throne that he would not be forced to keep a large court. However, the royal travels and the upkeep of the royal residences, after the initial refurbishment in 1905, were to some extent neglected. One example of the negative financial situation is that Prince Carl had been promised a Royal Yacht when he accepted the throne, but this was not fulfilled until 1947.[12]

One important incident in the early years of the new monarchy was in 1928 when the King appointed the first Labour government. The Norwegian Labour Party was at that time quite radical and even had the abolition of monarchy as part of their programme. It was the custom for the King to rely on the advice of previous Prime Minister in deciding who to give the assignment as new Prime Minister. In this case the previous conservative Prime Minister was opposed to giving power to the radicals and advised the appointment of someone else. But the King adhered to the established practice of parliamentarism and decided to appoint Christopher Hornsrud the first Labour Prime Minister. The Labour party later dropped the abolition of monarchy from their programme.

During the German occupation of World War II the King was an important symbol of national unity and resistance. His steadfast opposition to the German demands of surrender was important for the fighting spirit of the Norwegian population. The constitutional powers granted to the King in the Norwegian monarchial system made his position very important and enabled the government in exile to continue its work with the utmost legitimacy.

After the war the Norwegian royal house succeeded in maintaining a balance between regality and

approachability. King Olav V was deemed the people's king and the spontaneous show of mourning from the population upon his death in 1991 demonstrated the high standing he had among the Norwegian people. Even republicans were among the masses lighting candles in front of the Palace.[13]

In later years the marriages of the then Crown Prince Harald in 1968 and of Crown Prince Haakon in 2001 sparked considerable controversy, but the lasting effect on the popularity of the monarchy has been minimal. Although decreased from its level of above 90 percent after the war, support for the monarchy seems to remain stable around and mostly above the 70 percent mark.[14]

Constitutional rights and privileges

Although the 1814 constitution grants important executive powers to the king, these are almost always exercised by the Council of State in the name of the King (King's Council, or cabinet). Constitutional practice has replaced the meaning of the word King in most articles from the king personally to the elected government. The reserve powers vested in the Monarch by the constitution are significant and an important security part of the role of the Monarchy, and were last used during World War II.

Immunity

Article 5 states: *The King's person is sacred; he cannot be censured or accused. The responsibility rests with his Council.*[15]

This article applies to the king personally. The king has legal sovereign immunity.

Article 37 states: *The Royal Princes and Princesses shall not personally be answerable to anyone other than the King, or whomever he decrees to sit in judgment on them.*[15]

This means that the Princes and Princesses also have immunity on the discretion of the king. He could decide to let them be judged by the regular courts or he could decide to judge them himself. This has never been tested in practice.

Council of State

The Council of State consists of a Prime Minister and his council, all formally appointed by the King. The Council of State is the Government of Norway. Parliamentarism has been in place since 1884 and entails that the cabinet must not have the parliament against it, and that the appointment by the King is a formality. In practice, the monarch will ask the leader of a parliamentary block that has a majority in the Storting to form a government. The King relies on the advice of the previous prime minister and the President of the Storting in this question. The last time the King appointed a new prime minister contrary to the advice of the previous was in 1928 when he appointed the first Labour government.

Article 12 states: *The King himself chooses a Council from among Norwegian citizens who are entitled to vote.* [...] *The King apportions the business among the Members of the Council of State, as he deems appropriate.*

Article 30 states: [...] *Everyone who has a seat in the Council of State has the duty frankly to express his opinion, to which the King is bound to listen. But it rests with the King to make a decision according to his own judgment.* [...][15]

Veto of laws

The King has to sign all laws in order for them to become valid. He can veto any law. However, if three separate Stortings approves the law it becomes valid even without the King's consent. The King has not vetoed any law in modern times. The last law enacted without the King's consent was the law regarding a pure national flag in 1898.

Article 78 states: *If the King assents to the Bill, he appends his signature, whereby it becomes law.*[15]

If he does not assent to it, he returns it to the Odelsting with a statement that he does not for the time being find it expedient to sanction it. In that case the Bill must not again be submitted to the King by the Storting then assembled. [...][15]

Church of Norway

The Church of Norway, also known as the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Norway, is the state church of Norway, to which 86% of Norwegians are members. The Church of Norway professes the Lutheran branch of Christianity, and is a member of the Porvoo Communion.

The King is the supreme governor and protector of the Church of Norway. He formally decides who is to become bishops and oversees that the church conducts its business according to "the norms prescribed" for them. In practice this authority has been delegated to the Ministry of Church Affairs.[15]

Pardoning criminals

Article 20 states: *The King shall have the right in the Council of State to pardon criminals after sentence has been passed.*[15]

A pardon is the forgiveness of a crime and the penalty associated with it. It may be given if new information on the crime or criminal has come to light after sentencing has begun. A pardon may entail a complete or partial withdrawal of punishment. The practical execution of this right has been delegated to the Ministry of Justice which may dismiss an application for a pardon.[16] The formal approval of a pardon has to be done by the King in Council. In 2004 a total of 51 applications for pardon were approved and 274 were denied.[17]

Appointing senior officials

Article 21 states: *The King shall choose and appoint, after consultation with his Council of State, all senior civil, ecclesiastical and military officials.*[15] The appointment is formally made by the king, but is in practice up to the elected government.

Dismissing the government

Article 22 states: *The Prime Minister and the other Members of the Council of State, together with the State Secretaries, may be dismissed by the King without any prior court judgment, after he has heard the opinion of the Council of State on the subject.*[15]

Chivalric orders

Article 23 states: *The King may bestow orders upon whomever he pleases, as a reward for distinguished services*[...][15]

Norway has two chivalric orders: the Royal Norwegian Order of St. Olav and the Royal Norwegian Order of Merit. In addition the King awards several other distinguished medals for a wide range of accomplishments.

War

Article 25 states: *The King is Commander-in-Chief of the land and naval forces of the Realm.*[15] The King is also Commander-in-Chief of the Air Force. It is not mentioned because there was no Air Force in 1814.

Article 26 states: *The King has the right to call up troops, to engage in hostilities in defence of the Realm and to make peace, to conclude and denounce conventions, to send and to receive diplomatic envoys.*[15]

The King is revered in the armed forces as their highest commander, but there is no doubt as to the complete control of the armed forces by the elected government. The Kings of Norway have traditionally received an extensive military training and to some extent pursued a career within the armed forces before ascending to the throne. During World War II the King took a more active role in the decision-making and while the government still had the last word the King's advice was given much weight. On one occasion during the invasion the King was given an ultimatum from the Germans demanding Norway's surrender. King Haakon VII told the government he would abdicate if they decided to accept. In 1944 Crown Prince Olav was appointed Chief of Defence based on his military leadership abilities.

Coronation

From before recorded Norwegian history the monarch would be installed by acclamation, a ceremony held on the ting where the king swore to uphold the laws of the land and the assembled chieftains swore allegiance to him. The first coronation in Norway and in all Scandinavia took place in Bergen in 1163 or 1164. For a long time both ceremonies were used in Norway. That way the king was invested with powers both from the noblemen and from the church. The coronations also symbolised that the king would hold the kingdom in fief to St. Olav the eternal king of Norway. The last acclamation took place on Akershus Castle in 1648. The last medieval coronation in Norway took place 29 July 1514. Today the king still goes through a ceremony similar to the acclamation when he takes the oath of allegiance to the Constitution in the Storting. The Norwegian Constitution of 1814 determined that any Norwegian coronations from that time onward were to take place in Nidaros Cathedral in Trondheim. This re-established the relationship to the sacred king's burial church. The constitutional article about the coronation was annulled in 1908. When king Olav V ascended the throne in 1957 he still wanted to receive the blessing of the church for his reign and the Benediction of the king was introduced. The benediction is a much simpler ceremony, but it still takes place in Nidaros Cathedral and with the Royal Regalia at the high altar. King Harald V and Sonja also received the benediction in 1991.[18]

Succession

Main article: Line of succession to the Norwegian Throne

The order of succession to the Norwegian throne has followed absolute primogeniture since 1990, as is described in article 6 in the Constitution of Norway:

> *The order of succession is lineal, so that only a child born in lawful wedlock of the Queen or King, or of one who is herself or himself entitled to the succession may succeed, and so that the nearest line shall take precedence over the more remote and the elder in the line over the younger.*
>
> *An unborn child shall also be included among those entitled to the succession and shall immediately take*

> *her or his proper place in the line of succession as soon as she or he is born into the world.*
>
> *The right of succession shall not, however, belong to any person who is not born in the direct line of descent from the last reigning Queen or King or a sister or brother thereof, or is herself or himself a sister or brother thereof.*
>
> [...]
>
> *For those born before the year 1971, Article 6 of the Constitution as it was passed on 18 November 1905 shall, however, apply. For those born before the year 1990 it shall nevertheless be the case that a male shall take precedence over a female.*[15]

Article 6 of the original constitution had specified salic (male-only) succession; so Harald's sisters Ragnhild (b. 1930) and Astrid (b. 1932) and their descendants are excluded from the line of succession. Under the male-preference primogeniture applying to those born between 1971 and 1990, Princess Märtha Louise (b. 1971) places behind her younger brother Haakon and his descendants.

If a monarch were to be without any heirs they are allowed to nominate their successor, but the decision rests with the Storting.

The specific line of succession is as follows:

1. HRH Crown Prince Haakon Magnus, King Harald's son (b. 1973)
2. HRH Princess Ingrid Alexandra, Crown Prince Haakon's daughter (b. 2004)
3. HH Prince Sverre Magnus, The Crown Prince's son (b. 2005)
4. HH Princess Märtha Louise, King Harald's daughter (b. 1971)
5. Maud Angelica Behn, Princess Märtha Louise's daughter (b. 2003)
6. Leah Isadora Behn, Princess Märtha Louise's second daughter (b. 2005)
7. Emma Tallulah Behn, Princess Märtha Louise's third daughter (b. 2008)

As specified in the constitution the line of succession to the throne will never be very long as successors will lose their right when they no longer are a direct descendant of the last reigning monarch or of his or her siblings.

Finances

The King, Queen, Crown Prince and Crown Princess are exempt from paying any taxes and their personal finances are not revealed to the public. Other members of the royal family have lost that privilege upon marriage. It is believed that only the King has a personal fortune of a notable size.

The royal farms generate some revenue, but this is always re-invested in the farms themselves.

In the Norwegian state budget of 2010 the sum of 142.5 million Norwegian kroner was allocated to the Royal Household.[19] 16.5 million was also given to the monarchs as appanage.[20] 20.9 million was in addition allocated to rehabilitazion of royal property.[21] In 2010, the Royal Household of Norway claimed that King Haralds fortune was close to a 100 million Norwegian kroner. [22] 500 million Norwegian kroner was in the late 1990s allocated to the extensive refurbishments of the royal residences that have been taking place and are still under way. The restoration of the Royal Palace in Oslo went far beyond budget because the structural state of the palace was much worse than expected. However, the large expense was criticised in the media.[13]

Residences

The Royal Palace in Oslo is the main official residence of the monarch. It was built in the first half of the 19th century as the Norwegian residence of Norwegian and Swedish king Charles III (Carl Johan, Charles XIV of Sweden) and is used as the official residence of the present Norwegian Monarch.[23] Bygdøy Royal Estate is the official summer residence and is also situated in Oslo. Bygdøy has been under extensive restoration and has therefore not been used regularly since the accention of King Harald V.[24] Oscarshall castle is a "recreational castle" also situated in Oslo, but rarely used. There are also official residences in three other Norwegian cities:



The Royal Palace in Oslo from the front

- Gamlehaugen in Bergen
- Ledaal in Stavanger
- Stiftsgården in Trondheim

All of the official residences are partially open to the public.[25]

The King owns a royal yacht bearing the name HNoMY Norge which is manned and maintained by the Royal Norwegian Navy and used both for official and private travels in Norway and abroad.[26] The Norwegian State Railways maintains a set of royal train carriages.[27]

The crown princely couple resides at Skaugum Manor in Asker municipality outside of Oslo, while the three princesses of Norway live on estates in Oslo, Fredrikstad and Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Both Skaugum and Bygdøy are working farms producing grain, milk and meat where the profits are re-invested in the farms themselves.[28] In 2004 the King transferred management of the farming activities on Bygdøy to the Norwegian Museum of Cultural History.[29]

The royal family also possess several other holiday homes of a private nature.[30]

Titles and styles

- **Since 1991:** *His Majesty* Harald V, Norway's King

Royal coat of arms

The Coat of arms of Norway is one of the oldest in Europe and serves both as the coat of arms of the nation and of the Royal House. This is in keeping with its origin as the coat of arms of the kings of Norway during the Middle Ages.[31]



Painting of the Royal coat of arms of 1905 by Eilif Peterssen.

Håkon the Old (1217–1263) used a shield with a lion. The earliest preserved reference to the colour of the arms is the King's Saga written down in 1220.[31]

In 1280 King Eirik Magnusson added the crown and silver axe to the lion.[31] The axe is the martyr axe of St. Olav, the weapon used to kill him in the battle of Stiklestad in 1030.

The specific rendering of the Norwegian arms has changed through the years,

following changing heraldic fashions. In the late Middle Ages, the axe handle gradually grew longer and came to resemble a halberd. The handle was usually curved in order to fit the shape of shield preferred at the time, and also to match the shape of coins. The halberd was officially discarded and the shorter axe reintroduced by royal decree in 1844, when an authorized rendering was instituted for the first time. In 1905 the official design for royal and government arms was again changed, this time reverting to the medieval pattern, with a triangular shield and a more upright lion.[31]

The coat of arms of the royal house as well as the Royal Standard uses the lion design from 1905. The earliest preserved depiction of the Royal Standard is on the seal of Duchess Ingebjørg from 1318.[32] The rendering used as the official coat of arms of Norway is slightly different and was last approved by the king 20 May 1992.[33]

When used as the Royal coat of arms the shield features the insignias of the Royal Norwegian Order of St. Olav around it and is framed by a royal ermine robe, surmounted by the crown of Norway.

The Royal coat of arms is not used frequently. Instead, the king's monogram is extensively used, for instance in military insignia and on coins.

External links

- Video from NRK of the history of the present monarchy (http://www1.nrk.no/nett-tv/klipp/28570)

See also

- Norwegian Royal Family
- List of Norwegian monarchs
- Royal coronations in Norway
- Politics of Norway
- Abel Prize



Royal monograms carved in a mountain side to mark royal visits to Kongsberg since 1623.

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8. ^ The introduction of parliamentarism is not as clear cut in Denmark and Sweden as in Norway. In Denmark the year 1901 is usually given, but the years 1905 and 1920 are also important in this respect. In Sweden parliamentarism was re-introduced in 1917.
9. ^ This number is found by adding up the areas of Jämtland, Härjedalen, Bohuslän, Iceland, the Faroe Islands,

Harald V of Norway

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Harald V (born 21 February 1937) is the king of Norway. He succeeded to the throne of Norway upon the death of his father Olaf V on 17 January 1991. The son of the then-Crown Prince Olaf and of Princess Märtha of Sweden, Harald was born at the Crown Prince Residence at Skaugum, Akershus, Norway.

A member of the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, originally from Northern Germany, Harald became the first Norwegian-born prince since Olaf IV, who was born in 1370. Harald V is the formal head of the Church of Norway and the Norwegian Armed Forces. He has two children, Crown Prince Haakon and Princess Märtha Louise. His grandchildren are Maud Angelica (2003), Leah Isadora (2005), Emma Tallulah (2008), Princess Ingrid Alexandra (2004), and Prince Sverre Magnus (2005).

Harald has two older sisters: Princess Ragnhild of Norway, Mrs. Lorentzen (Ragnhild Alexandra, born Oslo, 9 June 1930), who lives in Brazil, and Princess Astrid of Norway, Mrs. Ferner (Astrid Maud Ingeborg, born Oslo, 12 February 1932), who lives in Oslo.

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Childhood and education

Prince Harald was born in Skaugum. The young prince was baptised in the Royal Chapel in the Royal Palace in Oslo on 31 March by Bishop Johan Lunde.

Harald V



King of Norway

Reign	17 January 1991 – present
Benediction[1]	23 June 1991
Predecessor	Olaf V
Heir apparent	Crown Prince Haakon
Prime Ministers	***See list***
Spouse	Sonja Haraldsen
Issue	***Detail***
Princess Märtha Louise Crown Prince Haakon	
House	House of Glücksburg
Father	Olaf V of Norway
Mother	Princess Märtha of Sweden
Born	21 February 1937 Skaugum, Norway
Signature	
Religion	Lutheranism[2]

Norwegian Royal Family

In 1940 the entire royal family had to flee their homes because of the German invasion. The dramatic journey northbound was marked by the Germans' repeated attempts to kill the King through bombing. It was deemed safer for the family to split up. The King and Crown Prince Olav would remain in Norway and the Crown Princess was to make her way to Sweden with the three children. The latter party reached Sweden on the night of 10 April, but although Crown Princess Märtha was Swedish-born, they encountered problems at the border station. According to Princess Astrid and others who were present, they were admitted only after the driver threatened to ram the border gate. Another account does not describe the escape so dramatically.[3] However when the King and Crown Prince inquired of Swedish foreign minister Christian Günther whether they could sleep one night in Sweden without being interned, they were denied.[3]

Prince Harald spent the following days in Sälen before relocating to Prince Carl Bernadotte's home in Frötuna on 16 April. On 26 April the group moved to Drottningholm in Stockholm. King Gustaf V has been accounted to have had an amicable relationship with his Norwegian guests, but the topic of the war in Norway was not to be raised. However, influential Swedish politicians including Minster of Justice Westman wanted the Crown Princess and Prince Harald to be sent back to Norway so he could be proclaimed King by the Germans.[3][4] After the King and Crown Prince had to leave Norway on 7 June they felt Sweden might not be the best place for the rest of the family. They started planning for them to be relocated to the USA. On 17 August the Crown Princess and her children left for the USA from Petsamo, Finland, aboard the ship *American Legion*.[3]

Harald and his mother and sisters lived in Washington, D.C., during the war,[5] while his father, Prince Olav, and his grandfather, King Haakon, stayed in London with the Norwegian government-in-exile. One of the notable events he remembers from that time is standing behind Franklin D. Roosevelt when he was sworn in for his fourth term on the South Portico of the White House in 1945. Such childhood experiences are reflected in a trace of an American accent when he speaks





HM The King *
HM The Queen *

- HRH The Crown Prince *
  HRH The Crown Princess *
  - HRH Princess Ingrid Alexandra *
  - HH Prince Sverre Magnus
  - Marius Borg Høiby
- HH Princess Märtha Louise
  Ari Behn
  - Maud Angelica Behn
  - Leah Isadora Behn
  - Emma Tallulah Behn

Extended royal family

HH Princess Ragnhild, Mrs. Lorentzen
Erling S. Lorentzen

HH Princess Astrid, Mrs. Ferner
Johan Ferner

** Member of the Norwegian Royal House*

Monarchical styles of
King Harald V of Norway



Reference style	His Majesty (Norwegian: Hans Majestet)
Spoken style	Your Majesty (Deres Majestet / Dykkar Majestet)

Crown Prince Harald		**Alternative style**	Sir

English.[6] The Doris Kearns Goodwin book *No Ordinary Time: Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt and the Home Front in World War II* contains a picture of the King (then Prince) playing with FDR's dog, Fala, on the North Lawn of the White House in 1944.

Prince Harald visited Norwegian servicemen on training in the United States. The prince also visited outside America, travelling north to visit Norwegians training in Canada's "Little Norway" in Ontario, Canada. He attended The White Hall Country School from 1943. Prince Harald returned to Norway along with his family at the war's end in 1945.

In the autumn of 1945 he was enrolled in third grade of Smestad skole as the first royal to attend a public school. In 1955 he graduated from Oslo katedralskole and in the autumn of that year, Harald began studies at the University of Oslo. Later he attended the Cavalry Officers' Candidate School at Trandum, followed by enrollment at the Norwegian Military Academy, from which he graduated in 1959.

In 1960, Harald entered Balliol College, Oxford where he studied history, economics and politics.[6] He was a keen rower during his student days at Oxford. In 1960 he also made his first official journey abroad, visiting the United States in connection with the fiftieth anniversary of the American Scandinavian Foundation.

Adult life

Crown Prince Harald attended Council of State for the first time on 27 September 1957 and took the oath to the Constitution of Norway on 21 February 1958. In the same year, he also served as regent in the King's absence for the first time.

Harald married a commoner, Sonja Haraldsen, at Oslo Domkirke in Oslo on 29 August 1968, a marriage that sparked much public controversy. The couple have two children, Princess Märtha Louise and His Royal Highness Crown Prince Haakon, heir-apparent to the Norwegian throne.

The King heads the government meetings at Oslo Palace every Friday (Council of State). He also has weekly meetings with the Prime Minister and the Foreign Minister. He receives foreign envoys, and opens parliament every September. According to the Norwegian constitution, he appoints his government. Since 1884 parliamentarism has been in place in Norway, so the government has to have support from Parliament. The King appoints the leader of the parliamentary block with majority as prime minister. When the parliamentary situation is unclear the king relies on the advice of the president of Parliament and the sitting prime minister. He travels extensively throughout Norway and makes official state visits to other countries.

An avid sailor,[7] Harald represented Norway in the yachting events of Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1964[8] and in Mexico City in 1968[6] and the Munich 1972. The Crown Prince carried the Norwegian flag at the opening parade of the 1964 Summer Olympics. In 1994, both the King and Crown Prince Haakon played roles during the opening ceremony of the Lillehammer Olympics. The King declared opened the games, while the Crown Prince lit the cauldron, paying tribute to both the King and his grandfather as Olympians. The King has also represented Norway at opening ceremonies of Olympic Games, among them Torino and Beijing. However, he wasn't present in Vancouver, the Crown Prince attended instead, with the King and Queen attending later in the games.

With his sailing crew he won World Championship bronze, silver and gold medals, in 1988, 1982 and 1987, respectively. In July 2005, the King and his crew aboard the royal sailboat *Fram XV* won the gold medal at the European Championships in Sweden. In the 2007 World Championship the King obtained a sixth place.[9]

Twice during recent years, King Harald has been unable to perform his monarchial duties, owing to hospitalization

and convalescence: in December 2003 to mid-April 2004 due to urinary bladder cancer, and in April to early June 2005 due to aortic stenosis (for details see "The King's health", below). Crown Prince Haakon served as the country's regent on both occasions.

Positions as King of Norway and honorary titles

As King of Norway

The King is the nominal head of the Church of Norway.

He is a Four-star General, an Admiral and formally the Supreme Commander of the Norwegian Armed Forces. The infantry battalion His Majesty the King's Guard are considered the King's and the Royal Family's bodyguards, they guard the Royal residences, including the Royal Palace and the Crown Prince Residence at Skaugum, as well as the Royal Mausoleum at Akershus Castle.



Royal Monogram

Honorary titles

In the British Army, the King was the final Colonel-in-Chief of the Green Howards. It remains to be seen whether there will continue to be an active association between the 2nd Battalion, Yorkshire Regiment (Green Howards) and the Norwegian Royal Family. He is also an honorary Colonel in the British Royal Marines.



Royal Standard

The King is The Grand Master of the Order of St. Olav and the Royal Norwegian Order of Merit. He is a Knight of the Garter, and he is also a Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order, and a recipient of the Royal Victorian Chain as well as numerous other orders of chivalry.

The King is patron of the Anglo-Norse Society in London, together with Queen Elizabeth II, his second cousin. He is also patron of the Norwegian-American Foundation (*Norge-Amerika Foreningen*) and the Norse Federation (*Nordmanns-Forbundet*) in the United States.

He received the honorary degree Doctor of Civil Law from Oxford University in 2006 (as did his father, King Olav, in 1937, and his grandfather, King Haakon, in 1943).[10] The King has earlier been appointed an honorary doctor of law by the University of Strathclyde (1985) in Scotland and by Waseda University (2001) in Japan (2001). He is also an honorary fellow at Balliol College, Oxford.

King Harald V is Honorary President of the Offshore Racing Congress[11] and also the Co-President of Honour of the International Sailing Federation with the King Constantine II of Greece.[12]

Other honors

- Norway – Grand Master of the Royal Norwegian Order of St Olav – Grand Cross with collar of the Royal Norwegian Order of St. Olav
- Norway – Grand Master of the Royal Norwegian Order of Merit – Grand Cross
- Norway – St Olav's medal
- Norway – Defence Service Medal with Laurel

Medal record		
Sailing		
World Championships		
Gold	1987 World Championship	Sailing
Silver	1982 World Championship	Sailing

Bronze	1988 World Championship	Sailing
	European Championships	
Gold	2005 European Championship	Sailing

Branch

- Norway – The Royal House Centenary Medal
- Norway – Haakon VIIs Commemorative Medal 1. October 1957
- Norway – Haakon VIIs Jubilee Medal 1905–1955
- Norway – Haakon VIIs Centenary Medal
- Norway – Olav Vs Commemorative Medal of 30. January 1991
- Norway – Olav Vs Jubilee Medal
- Norway – Olav Vs Centenary Medal
- Norway – Defence Service Medal with three stars
- Norway – Army National Service Medal with three stars
- Norway – Krigsdeltakerforbundet Badge of Honour
- Norway – Norwegian Red Cross Badge of Honour
- Norway – Norwegian Reserve Officers Federal Badge of Honour
- Norway – The Naval Society Medal of Merit in gold
- Norway – Norwegian Shooting Society Badge of Honour
- Norway – The Norwegian Confederation of Sports Centenary Medal
- Norway – Norwegian Shooting Society Commemorative Medal in gold
- Norway – Oslo Military Society Badge of Honour in Gold



- Commonwealth realms – Royal Victorian Chain
- Commonwealth realms – Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order
- United Kingdom – Honorary Freedom of Newcastle upon Tyne[13][14]
- Denmark – Grand Commander of the Order of the Dannebrog
- Denmark – Knight with Collar of the Elephant
- United Kingdom – Stranger Knight of the Order of the Garter
- Finland – Commander Grand Cross of the Order of the White Rose
- Iceland – Grand cross with Collar of the Order of the Falcon
- Sweden – Knight with Collar of the Order of the Seraphim
- Sweden – Gustaf Vs 90th Anniversary Medal
- Sweden – HM King Carl XVI Gustaf 50th Anniversary Medal
- Austria – Decoration of Honour for Merit
- Belgium – Grand Cordon of the Order of Leopold
- Brazil – Grand Collar of the Order of the Southern Cross
- Bulgaria – Grand Cross of the Order of Stara Planina
- Estonia – The Collar of the Cross of Terra Mariana
- France – Grand Cross of the Légion d'honneur
- Germany – Grand Cross 1. class of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany
- Greece – Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Redeemer

- Greece – The Royal House of Greece Centenary Medal
- Hungary – Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Hungarian Republic
- IOC – The Golden Olympic order
- Italy – Grand Cross with Collar of the Italian Order of Merit
- Japan – Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of the Chrysanthemum
- Jordan – Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of al-Hussein bin Ali
- Yugoslavia – Order of the Yugoslav Great Star
- Latvia – Commander Grand Cross with Chain of the Order of the Three Stars
- Lithuania – Grand Cross of the Order of Vytautas the Great
- Luxembourg – Grand Cross of the Order of Adolph of Nassau
- Luxembourg – Grand Cross of the Order of the Gold Lion of the House of Nassau
- Luxembourg – Medal to commemorate the wedding of Grand Duke Jean and Grand Duchess Josephine-Charlotte
- Netherlands – Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion
- Netherlands – Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown
- Netherlands – Commander of the Order of the Golden Ark
- Netherlands – Medal to commemorate the enthronement of Queen Beatrix
- Poland – Grand Cross of the Order of the White Eagle
- Portugal – Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of St. James of the Sword
- Portugal – Grand Cross of the Order of Aviz
- Portugal – Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Infante Dom Henrique
- Romania – Grand Cross of the Order of the Star of Romania
- Spain – 1,192nd Knight and Collar of the Order of the Golden Fleece in 1995
- Spain – Grand Cross Collar of the Order of Charles III
- South Africa – Grand Cross of the Order of Good Hope
- Thailand – Knight Grand Cordon of the Order Chula Chom Klao (First Class)
- Ireland – Freedom of the City of Cork.
- Croatia – Grand Order of King Tomislav
- Spirit of Luther Award, awarded by Luther College of Decorah, IA
- A 230 000 km² area in Antarctica is named Prince Harald Coast in his honour.
- In 2007 King Harald was awarded the Holmenkollen medal with Simon Ammann, Frode Estil, Odd-Bjørn Hjelmeset, and his wife Queen Sonja.

Health

On 1 December 2003, King Harald was announced to be suffering from bladder cancer. A successful operation took place on 8 December at Norway's National Hospital, *Rikshospitalet*, in Oslo: his bladder was removed and a new one constructed. The King was then on sick leave from all official duties. Crown Prince Haakon was Norway's regent during King Harald's illness and convalescence. The King resumed his duties on 13 April 2004.

The King was once known to be a chain-smoker, but quit that habit entirely when he was diagnosed with cancer.

On 1 April 2005, Harald underwent successful heart surgery, an aortic valve replacement, correcting his aortic stenosis. It had been known for some time that he had this condition; however, until early 2005 it had only been of a moderate degree. During the three-hour operation at *Rikshospitalet* the doctors also performed a coronary bypass procedure on the King. On 10 April, it was announced that the King had also undergone a pericardiocentesis to treat a complication of surgery, a pericardial effusion (an accumulation of fluid around the heart).

After the two operations in the spring of 2005, King Harald remained on sick leave for almost two months, Crown Prince Haakon again substituting as the country's regent. The King returned to work on 7 June, a date which carried particular significance in 2005, with Norway celebrating the centennial of the dissolution of the 1814–1905 union with Sweden. The King recuperated well enough to win the European Championships in ocean sailing just

three months after his latest operation.

Following advice from his personal physician, King Harald finally decided in late 2005 to scale down his official duties, primarily effected by taking Wednesdays off and trying to keep weekends free as much as possible. However, he planned to continue attending weekend sports events of interest, and to lead Friday Cabinet meetings and carry out other constitutional duties.

Patronages

- The Royal Norwegian Society of Sciences and Letters
- The National Rifle Association of Norway
- The Norwegian Association of UN Veterans
- The Norwegian Reserve Officers' Federation
- Norges Militære Kameratforeningers Forbund ("The Norwegian Federation of Military Associations")
- The Norse Federation
- The Norway-America Association
- Det Nasjonale Aldershjem for Sjømenn ("The Norwegian Seamen's Retirement Home")
- Norsk Anchorite Klubb ("The Norwegian Anchorite Club")
- The Norwegian Association of Hunters and Anglers
- The Norwegian Bible Society
- The Norwegian Seamen's Church – Church of Norway Abroad
- The Offshore Northern Seas Foundation
- The Bergen Philharmonic Orchestra
- The Norwegian Academy of Technological Sciences
- Bergen International Festival
- The Norwegian Cancer Society
- Lions Clubs International – Norway
- Nasjonalforeningen for folkehelsen ("The National Association for Public Health")
- The Norwegian Olympic Committee and Confederation of Sports
- The Norwegian Choir Association
- The Norwegian Forestry Society
- Friends of the Earth Norway/Norwegian Society for the Conservation of Nature
- Ridderrennet ("The Knights' Race", a Norwegian skiing event for the blind and mobility impaired)
- The Norwegian Society for Sea Rescue
- The Sons of Norway Foundation
- The American-Scandinavian Foundation
- The Anglo-Norse Society
- The Norwegian Lutheran Memorial Church, Minneapolis, Minnesota[15]
- Skogfjorden, the Norwegian language program of Concordia Language Villages, Bemidji, Minnesota
- Oslo Militære Samfund[16]

Ancestors

Patrilineal descent

Patrilineal descent
Harald's patriline is the line from which he is descended father to son. Patrilineal descent is the principle behind membership in royal houses, as it can be traced back through the

generations – which means that if Harald V were to choose an historically accurate house name it would be Oldenburg, as all his male-line ancestors have been of that house.

House of Oldenburg

1. Egilmar I of Lerigau, dates unknown
2. Egilmar II of Lerigau, d. 1142
3. Christian I of Oldenburg, d. 1167
4. Moritz of Oldenburg, d. 1209
5. Christian II of Oldenburg, d. 1233
6. John I, Count of Oldenburg, d. 1275
7. Christian III, Count of Oldenburg, d. 1285
8. John II, Count of Oldenburg, d. 1314
9. Conrad I, Count of Oldenburg, 1300–1347
10. Christian V, Count of Oldenburg, 1340–1423
11. Dietrich, Count of Oldenburg, 1398–1440
12. Christian I of Denmark, 1426–1481
13. Frederick I of Denmark, 1471–1533
14. Christian III of Denmark, 1503–1559
15. John II, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg, 1545–1622
16. Alexander, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg, 1573–1627
17. August Philipp, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1612–1675
18. Frederick Louis, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1653–1728
19. Peter August, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1696–1775
20. Prince Karl Anton August of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1727–1759
21. Friedrich Karl Ludwig, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck, 1757–1816
22. Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, 1785–1831
23. Christian IX of Denmark, 1818–1906
24. Frederick VIII of Denmark, 1843–1912
25. Haakon VII of Norway, 1872–1957
26. Olav V of Norway, 1903–1991
27. Harald V of Norway, b. 1937

Issue

- *Her Highness* Princess **Märtha Louise**, born on 22 September 1971. She was married to Ari Behn, born on 30 September 1972, on 24 May 2002. They have 3 daughters:
  - Maud Angelica Behn, born 29 April 2003
  - Leah Isadora Behn, born 8 April 2005
  - Emma Tallulah Behn, born 29 September 2008

- *His Royal Highness* Crown Prince **Haakon** Magnus, born on 20 July 1973. He married Mette-Marit Tjessem Høiby, born 19 August 1973, on 25 August 2001. She has a son from a previous relationship, Marius Borg Høiby, born 13 January 1997. The Crown Prince and Princess have 2 children:
  - *Her Royal Highness* Princess Ingrid Alexandra, born 21 January 2004, Hereditary Princess of Norway
  - *His Highness* Prince Sverre Magnus, born 3 December 2005

References

1. ^ Coronation discarded by constitutional amendment in 1908. Harald V swore the Royal Oath in the Storting on 21

House of Glücksburg

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg** (Danish: *Slesvig-Holsten-Sønderborg-Lyksborg*, the latter name is also spelled *Glücksborg*), known as the **House of Glücksburg** (or *House of Glücksborg*) for short, is a German ducal house, junior branches of which include the royal houses of Denmark and Norway, the deposed royal house of Greece, and the heir to the thrones of the Commonwealth realms[1][2] (although in the latter case, they are, by royal proclamation, declared to be members of the House of Windsor[3]). The family is named after Glücksburg in northernmost Germany, and is a cadet branch of the House of Oldenburg that is descended from King Christian III of Denmark. However, as the elder line of the House of Oldenburg and the line of the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg became extinct in 1863 and 1931, respectively, the House of Glücksburg is now the senior surviving branch of the House of Oldenburg.

House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

Country	Germany, Denmark, Norway, Greece and Iceland
Ancestral house	House of Oldenburg
Titles	Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, King of Denmark, King of Norway, King of the Hellenes, and King of Iceland
Founder	Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Glücksburg
Current head	Christopher, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein
Founding	1825

This particular line comes from the Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck. The last of them became Duke of Glücksburg and changed his title accordingly to Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg. He was married to Princess Louise Caroline of Hesse-Kassel, a granddaughter of King Frederick V of Denmark.



The family's ancestral castle, Glücksburg Castle, in Glücksburg, Schleswig-Holstein

Neither the Dukes of Beck nor of Glücksburg were sovereign rulers - they held their lands in fief to the sovereign dukes of Schleswig and Holstein (who were also the Kings of Denmark in personal union) and, before 1773, the Dukes of Holstein-Gottorp.

Christian IX of Denmark, the fourth son of Friedrich Wilhelm, was chosen by the childless King Frederick VII of Denmark to be his heir, as Christian was married to Frederick's first cousin, Luise of Hesse-Kassel. Wilhelm, the second son of Crown Prince Christian and Crown Princess Luise, was elected King of the Hellenes on March 30, 1863 to succeed the deposed Wittelsbach Otto of Greece and took the name George I of Greece. His father became King of Denmark as Christian IX on November 15, 1863. Prince Carl, the second son of Frederick VIII of Denmark, Christian IX's eldest son, became King of Norway on November 18, 1905 as Haakon VII of Norway. Christian IX's daughters, Alexandra of Denmark and Dagmar of Denmark (who became Maria Feodorovna), married Edward VII of the United Kingdom and Alexander III of Russia, respectively. As a result, by 1914, descendants of King Christian IX were nearly as prevalent on European thrones as those of Queen Victoria; Christian IX became known as the Father-in-law of Europe.

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Christoph, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, current head of the House of Glücksburg and the entire House of Oldenburg

Male line ancestry of Duke Friedrich Wilhelm

1. Elimar I, Count of Oldenburg
2. Elimar II, Count of Oldenburg
3. Christian I, Count of Oldenburg (Christian the Quarrelsome)
4. Maurice, Count of Oldenburg
5. Christian II, Count of Oldenburg
6. John I, Count of Oldenburg
7. Christian III, Count of Oldenburg
8. John II, Count of Oldenburg
9. Conrad I, Count of Oldenburg
10. Christian V, Count of Oldenburg
11. Dietrich, Count of Oldenburg
12. Christian I of Denmark
13. Frederick I of Denmark
14. Christian III of Denmark
15. John II, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg
16. Alexander, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg
17. August Philipp, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
18. Frederick Louis, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
19. Peter August, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
20. Karl Anton August, Prince of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
21. Friedrich Karl Ludwig, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Beck
22. Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

Senior line, Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg (1825–*present*)

Ducal Family of Schleswig-Holstein

The Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg constitute the senior male line of the family, who hold the headship of both the House of Glücksburg and the entire House of Oldenburg.

- 1816–31 Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
- 1831–78 Karl, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

- 1878–85 Friedrich, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg
- 1885–1934 Friedrich Ferdinand, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, from 1931 Duke of Schleswig-Holstein
- 1934–65 Wilhelm Friedrich, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein
- 1965–80 Peter, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein
- 1980 – present Christoph, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein (b. 1949)
- Heir: Friedrich Ferdinand, Hereditary Prince of Schleswig-Holstein (b. 1985)
- Present line of succession

Junior branches

Junior branches of the House of Glücksburg are descended notably from Duke Friedrich Wilhelm's younger son, who became Christian IX of Denmark.

Monarchs of Denmark, 1863–*present*

The agnatic lineage is *continued* from Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg.

- Christian IX of Denmark (1818–1906, reigned 1863–1906)
- Frederick VIII of Denmark (1843–1912, reigned 1906–12)
- Christian X of Denmark (1870–1947, reigned 1912–47), also king of Iceland 1918–1944
- Frederick IX of Denmark (1899–1972, reigned 1947–72)
- Margrethe II of Denmark (b. 1940, incumbent since 1972)



HH The Dowager Duchess

- **HH The Prince**
  HH The Princess
  - HH The Hereditary Prince
  - HH Princess Sophie
  - HH Prince Constantin
  - HH Prince Leopold
- HH Princess Marita
- HH Prince Alexander
  - HH Princess Helena
  - HH Prince Julian
- HH Princess Ingeborg

Extended family

- The Danish Royal Family
  - The Greek Royal Family
    - The British Royal Family
  - The Norwegian Royal Family
- The Oldenburger Grand Ducal Family

Kings of the Hellenes (Greece), 1863–1973

The Greek line is descended from Prince Vilhelm, a son of Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg (the later Christian IX of Denmark), who became King of the Hellenes as George I. The agnatic lineage is continued from Christian IX of Denmark.

- George I of Greece (1845–1913, reigned 1863–1913)
- Constantine I of Greece (1868–1923, reigned 1913–17, 1920–22)
- Alexander of Greece (1893–1920, reigned 1917–20)
- George II of Greece (1890–1947, reigned 1922–24, 1935–47)
- Paul of Greece (1901–1964, reigned 1947–64)
- Constantine II of Greece (b. 1940, reigned 1964–73)
- Present line of succession



Thirty-drachma coin of 1963,

Heirs to the Commonwealth realms and their ancestors

The heirs to the Commonwealth realms are descended from Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark, a paternal grandson of George I of Greece. However, by Letters Patent of 8 February 1960, Queen Elizabeth II declared that her

children with Prince Philip would belong to the House of Windsor, as would any agnatic descendants who enjoy the style of Royal Highness, and the title of Prince or Princess. (Those who do not have that style and title would bear the surname Mountbatten-Windsor.)[3]

commemorating the centennial of the reign of the House of Glücksburg in Greece. Clockwise from the top: Paul, George II, Alexander, Constantine I and George I.

The agnatic lineage is *continued* from Friedrich Wilhelm, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg.

- Christian IX of Denmark
- George I of Greece
- Prince Andrew of Greece and Denmark
- Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark[2]
- Charles, Prince of Wales[2]
- Prince William, Duke of Cambridge[2]

Kings of Norway, 1905–*present*

The Norwegian branch is descended from Prince Carl of Glücksburg, a younger son of Frederick VIII of Denmark. He took the name Haakon as king.

- Haakon VII of Norway (1872–1957, reigned 1905–57)
- Olav V of Norway (1903–1991, reigned 1957–91)
- Harald V of Norway (b. 1937, incumbent since 1991)
- Heir: Crown Prince Haakon of Norway (b. 1973)
- Present line of succession

Other notable members

Main article: List of members of the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

- Princess Ingeborg of Denmark (1878–1958). Daughter of Frederick VIII of Denmark, wife of Prince Carl, Duke of Västergötland, mother of Princess Margaretha of Sweden, Märtha of Sweden and Astrid of Sweden and Prince Carl, Duke of Östergötland (who themselves are not members of this house, but of that of Bernadotte).
- Princess Elena of Greece and Denmark (1896–1982). Wife of Carol II of Romania and mother of Michael I of Romania.
- Princess Olga of Greece and Denmark (1903–1997). Wife of the Regent Prince Paul of Yugoslavia.
- Princess Irene of Greece and Denmark, Duchess of Aosta (1904–1974). Wife of Aimone of Savoy, Duke of Spoleto.
- Princess Marina, Duchess of Kent (1906–1968). Wife of Prince George, Duke of Kent.
- Princess Cecilie of Greece and Denmark (1911–1937). Wife of Georg Donatus, Hereditary Grand Duke of Hesse and sister of Philip, later the Duke of Edinburgh. She died with her husband and two sons in the crash of Sabena Airlines Junkers JU52 (OO-AUB) at Ostend.
- Alexandra of Greece and Denmark (1921–1993). Wife of Peter II of Yugoslavia.
- Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh (b. 1921), grandson to George I of Greece, son to Prince Andrew of Greece, consort to Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom.
- Queen Sofia of Spain (b. 1938). Wife of King Juan Carlos I of Spain, sister of King Constantine II of Greece.
- Prince Michael of Greece and Denmark (b. 1939). Son of Prince Christopher of Greece and Denmark and Princess Françoise of Orléans (1902–1953); grandson of King George I of the Hellenes.

Coat of arms



Schleswig-Holstein



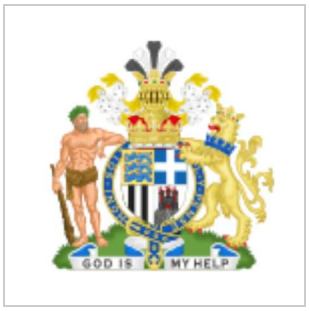
Kingdom of Denmark



Kingdom of Greece



Kingdom of Norway (note: This is the state coat of arms of Norway, as used by any ruler irrespective of family since the middle ages, not the family coat of arms of the House of Glücksburg)



Philip, Duke of Edinburgh

The coat of arms of Norway is the coat of arms of Norway as a state, in use since the 11th century and used by all ruling houses since then, and not the family coat of arms of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg.

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1. ^ http://news.scotsman.com/uk/Prince-Philip-beats-the-record.5183865.jp
2. ^ ***a b c d*** Michel Huberty, *L'Allemagne dynastique*, Volume 7, Giraud, 1994, ISBN 2901138071, ISBN 9782901138075
3. ^ ***a b*** Royal Styles and Titles – 1960 Letters Patent (http://www.heraldica.org/topics/britain/prince_highness_docs.htm#1960)

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Categories: German noble families | House of Glücksburg | European royal families | Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg

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Spain

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Spain (/ˈspeɪn/ ***SPAYN***; Spanish: *España*, pronounced: [esˈpaɲa] (listen)), officially the **Kingdom of Spain** (Spanish: *Reino de España*),[note 7][5] is a sovereign state and a member of the European Union located in southwestern Europe on the Iberian Peninsula. Its mainland is bordered to the south and east by the Mediterranean Sea except for a small land boundary with the British Overseas Territory of Gibraltar; to the north by France, Andorra, and the Bay of Biscay; and to the northwest and west by the Atlantic Ocean and Portugal.

Spanish territory also includes the Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean, the Canary Islands in the Atlantic Ocean off the African coast, and two autonomous cities in North Africa, Ceuta and Melilla, that border Morocco. Furthermore, the town of Llívia is a Spanish exclave situated inside French territory. With an area of 504,030 square kilometres (194,610 sq mi), it is the second largest country in Western Europe and the European Union after France, and the fourth largest country in Europe after Russia, Ukraine and France.

Because of its location, the territory of Spain was subject to many external influences since prehistoric times and through to its dawn as a country. Spain emerged as a unified country in the 15th century, following the marriage of the Catholic Monarchs and the completion of the reconquest, or *Reconquista*, of the Iberian peninsula in 1492. Conversely, it has been an important source of influence to other regions, chiefly during the modern era, when it became a global empire that has left a legacy of over 500 million Spanish speakers today, making it the world's second most spoken first language.

Spain is a democracy organised in the form of a parliamentary government under a constitutional monarchy. It is a developed country with the twelfth largest economy in the world by nominal GDP, and very high living standards, including the tenth-highest quality of life index rating in the world, as of 2005. It is a member of the United Nations, European Union, NATO, OECD, and WTO.

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Kingdom of Spain
Reino de España



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: "Plus Ultra" (Latin)
"Further Beyond"

Anthem: "Marcha Real" (Spanish)[note 1]
"Royal March"



Location of **Spain** (dark green)
– in Europe (green & dark grey)
– in the European Union (green) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Madrid 40°26′N 3°42′W
Official language(s)	Spanish[note 2]
Recognised regional languages	Basque, Catalan/Valencian, Galician and Occitan
Demonym	Spanish, Spaniard
Government	Unitary parliamentary constitutional monarchy
- King	Juan Carlos I
- Prime Minister	Mariano Rajoy
Legislature	Cortes Generales
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	Congress of Deputies
Formation	15th century
- Traditional date	569 (ascension to the throne of Liuvigild)
- Dynastic	1479
- *De facto*	1516
- *De jure*	1715
- *Nation state*	1812
- Constitutional democracy	1978
Area	
- Total	504,030 km^2 (51st) 195,364 sq mi
- Water (%)	1.04
Population	
- 2010 estimate	46,030,109[1] (27th)
- Density	93/km^2 (106th) 231/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$1.413 trillion[2] (13th)
- Per capita	$30,622[2] (28th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$1.536 trillion[2] (12th)
- Per capita	$33,298[2] (26th)
Gini (2005)	32[3]
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.878[4] (very high) (23rd)
Currency	Euro (€)[note 3] (EUR)
Time zone	CET[note 4] (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST[note 5] (UTC+2)

Etymology

The true origins of the name *España* and its cognates "Spain" and "Spanish" are disputed. The ancient Roman name for Iberia, *Hispania*, may derive from poetic use of the term *Hesperia* to refer to Spain, reflecting the Greek perception of Italy as a "western land" or "land of

the setting sun" (*Hesperia*, *Εσπερία* in Greek) and Spain, being still further west, as *Hesperia ultima*.[6]

It may also be a derivation of the Punic *Ispanihad*, meaning "land of rabbits" or "edge", a reference to Spain's location at the end of the Mediterranean; Roman coins struck in the region from the reign of Hadrian show a female figure with a coney at her feet.[7] There are also claims that *España* derives from the Basque word *Ezpanna* meaning "edge" or "border", another reference to the fact that the Iberian peninsula constitutes the southwest of the European continent.[6]

Date formats	dd.mm.yyyy (Spanish; CE)
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	ES
Internet TLD	.es[note 6]
Calling code	34

The humanist Antonio de Nebrija proposed that the word *Hispania* evolved from the Iberian word Hispalis, meaning "city of the western world". Jesús Luis Cunchillos argues that the root of the term *span* is the Phoenecian word *spy*, meaning "to forge metals". Therefore *i-spn-ya* would mean "the land where metals are forged".[8]

History

Main article: History of Spain

The Iberian peninsula enters written records as a land populated largely by the Iberians, Basques and Celts. After an arduous conquest, the peninsula came under the rule of Rome. During the early Middle Ages it came under Germanic rule but later, it was conquered by Moorish invaders from North Africa. In a process that took centuries, the small Christian kingdoms in the north gradually regained control of the peninsula. The last Moorish kingdom fell in the same year Columbus reached the Americas. A global empire began which saw Spain become the strongest kingdom in Europe and the leading world power for a century and a half and the largest overseas empire for three centuries.

Continued wars and other problems eventually led to a diminished status. The Napoleonic invasions of Spain led to chaos, triggering independence movements that tore apart most of the empire and left the country politically unstable. Prior to the Second World War, Spain suffered a devastating civil war and came under the rule of an authoritarian government, whose rule oversaw a period of stagnation but that finished with a powerful economic surge. Eventually democracy was peacefully restored in the form of a parliamentary constitutional monarchy. In 1986, Spain joined the European Union, experiencing a cultural renaissance and steady economic growth.

Prehistory and pre-Roman peoples

Main article: Prehistoric Iberia

Archaeological research at Atapuerca indicates the Iberian Peninsula was populated by hominids 1.2 million years ago.[9] Modern humans first arrived in Iberia, from the north on foot, about 32,000 years ago.[10] The best known artifacts of these prehistoric human settlements are the famous paintings in the Altamira cave of Cantabria in northern Iberia, which were created about 15,000 BCE by cro-magnons.[11]


Altamira Cave paintings,[11] in Cantabria

Archaeological and genetic evidence strongly suggests that the Iberian Peninsula acted as one of several major refugia from which northern Europe was repopulated following the end of the last ice age.

The two main historical peoples of the peninsula were the Iberians and the Celts. The Iberians inhabited the Mediterranean side from the northeast to the southeast. The Celts inhabited the Atlantic side, in the north, center (Celtiberian), northwest and southwest part of the peninsula. Basques occupied the western area of the Pyrenees mountain range and adjacent areas.

In the south of the peninsula appeared the semi-mythical city of Tartessos (c.1100 BC), whose flourishing trade in items made of gold and silver with the Phoenicians and Greeks is documented by Strabo and the Book of Solomon. Between about 500 BC and 300 BC, the seafaring Phoenicians and Greeks founded trading colonies along the Mediterranean coast. The Carthaginians briefly exerted control over much of the Mediterranean side of the peninsula, until defeated in the Punic Wars by the Romans.[12]

Roman Empire and the Gothic Kingdom

Main article: Hispania


Roman Theatre of Mérida, Badajoz

During the Second Punic War, an expanding Roman Empire captured Carthaginian trading colonies along the Mediterranean coast from roughly 210 BC to 205 BC. It took the Romans nearly two centuries to complete the conquest of the Iberian peninsula, though they had control of much of it for over six centuries. Roman rule was bound together by law, language, and the Roman road.[13]

The cultures of the Celt and Iberian populations were gradually romanized (Latinized) at differing rates in different parts of Hispania. Local leaders were admitted into the Roman aristocratic class.[note 8][12] Hispania served as a granary for the Roman market, and its harbors exported gold, wool, olive oil, and wine. Agricultural production increased with the introduction of irrigation projects, some of which remain in use. Emperors Trajan, Theodosius I, and the philosopher Seneca were born in Hispania.[note 9] Christianity was introduced into Hispania in the 1st century CE and it became popular in the cities in the 2nd century CE.[12] Most of Spain's present languages and religion, and the basis of its laws, originate from this period.[13]

The weakening of the Western Roman Empire's jurisdiction in Hispania began in 409, when the Germanic Suevi and Vandals, together with the Sarmatian Alans crossed the Rhine and ravaged Gaul until the Visigoths drove them into Iberia that same year. The Suevi established a kingdom in what is today modern Galicia and northern Portugal. As the western empire disintegrated, the social and economic base became greatly simplified: but even in modified form, the successor regimes maintained many of the institutions and laws of the late empire, including Christianity.


Cathedral of the Holy Saviour, Asturias

The Alans' allies, the Hasdingi Vandals, established a kingdom in Gallaecia, too, occupying largely the same region but extending farther south to the Duero river. The Silingi Vandals occupied the region that still bears a form of their name –*Vandalusia*, modern Andalusia, in Spain. The Byzantines established an enclave, Spania, in the south, with the intention of reviving the Roman empire throughout Iberia. Eventually, however, Hispania was reunited under Visigothic rule.

Muslim Iberia

Main article: Al-Andalus

In the 8th century, nearly all of the Iberian Peninsula was conquered (711–718) by largely Moorish Muslim armies from North Africa. These conquests were part of the expansion of the Umayyad Islamic Empire. Only a small area in the mountainous north-west of the peninsula managed to resist the initial invasion.

Under Islamic law, Christians and Jews were given the subordinate status of dhimmi. This status permitted Christians and Jews to practice their religions as *people of the book* but they were required to pay a special tax and to be subject to certain discriminations.[14][15]

Conversion to Islam proceeded at a steadily increasing pace. The *muladies* (Muslims of ethnic Iberian origin) are believed to have comprised the majority of the population of Al-Andalus by the end of the 10th century.[16][17]

The Muslim community in the Iberian peninsula was itself diverse and beset by social tensions. The Berber people of North Africa, who had provided the bulk of the invading armies,


La Giralda, the bell tower of Seville Cathedral

clashed with the Arab leadership from the Middle East.[note 10] Over time, large Moorish populations became established, especially in the Guadalquivir River valley, the coastal plain of Valencia, the Ebro River valley and (towards the end of this period) in the mountainous region of Granada.[17]


The Alhambra, Granada.

Córdoba, the capital of the caliphate, was the largest, richest and most sophisticated city in western Europe. Mediterranean trade and cultural exchange flourished. Muslims imported a rich intellectual tradition from the Middle East and North Africa. Muslim and Jewish scholars played an important part in reviving and expanding classical Greek learning in Western Europe. The Romanized cultures of the Iberian peninsula interacted with Muslim and Jewish cultures in complex ways, thus giving the region a distinctive culture.[17] Outside the cities, where the vast majority lived, the land ownership system from Roman times remained largely intact as Muslim leaders rarely dispossessed landowners, and the introduction of new crops and techniques led to a remarkable expansion of agriculture.[*citation needed*]

In the 11th century, the Muslim holdings fractured into rival Taifa kingdoms, allowing the small Christian states the opportunity to greatly enlarge their territories.[17] The arrival from North Africa of the Islamic ruling sects of the Almoravids and the Almohads restored unity upon the Muslim holdings, with a stricter, less tolerant application of Islam, and saw a revival in Muslim fortunes. This re-united Islamic state, experienced more than a century of successes that partially reversed Christian gains.

Fall of Muslim rule and unification

Main article: Reconquista

The *Reconquista* ("Reconquest") is the centuries-long period of expansion of Iberia's Christian kingdoms. The Reconquista is viewed as beginning with the Battle of Covadonga in 722, and was concurrent with the period of Muslim rule on the Iberian peninsula. The Christian army's victory over Muslim forces led to the creation of the Christian Kingdom of Asturias along the northwestern coastal mountains. Shortly after, in 739, Muslim forces were driven from Galicia, which was to eventually host one of medieval Europe's holiest sites, Santiago de Compostela and was incorporated into the new Christian kingdom. Muslim armies had also moved north of the Pyrenees, but they were defeated by Frankish forces at the Battle of Poitiers, Frankia. Later, Frankish forces established Christian counties on the southern side of the Pyrenees. These areas were to grow into the kingdoms of Navarre, Aragon and Catalonia.[18] For several centuries, the fluctuating frontier between the Muslim and Christian controlled areas of Iberia was along the Ebro and Duero valleys.


Loarre Castle, Huesca


Ávila city walls

The breakup of Al-Andalus into the competing taifa kingdoms helped the long embattled Iberian Christian kingdoms gain the initiative. The capture of the strategically central city of Toledo in 1085 marked a significant shift in the balance of power in favour of the Christian kingdoms. Following a great Muslim resurgence in the 12th century, the great Moorish strongholds in the south fell to Christian Spain in the 13th century—Córdoba in 1236 and Seville in 1248—leaving only the Muslim enclave of Granada as a tributary state in the south.[19]

In the 13th and 14th centuries, the Marinids Muslim sect based in North Africa invaded and established some enclaves on the southern coast but failed in their attempt to re-establish Muslim rule in Iberia and were soon driven out. The 13th century also witnessed the Crown of Aragon, centred in Spain's north east, expand its reach across islands in the Mediterranean, to Sicily and even Athens.[20] Around this time the universities of Palencia (1212/1263) and Salamanca (1218/1254) were established. The Black Death of 1348 and 1349 devastated Spain.[21]

In 1469, the crowns of the Christian kingdoms of Castile and Aragon were united by the marriage of Isabella I of Castile and Ferdinand II of Aragon. 1478 commenced the completion of the conquest of the Canary Islands and in 1492, the combined forces of Castile and Aragon captured the Emirate of Granada, ending the last remnant of a 781-year presence of Islamic rule in Iberia. The Treaty of Granada guaranteed religious tolerance toward Muslims.[22] The year 1492 also marked the arrival in the New World of Christopher Columbus, during a voyage funded by Isabella. That same year, Spain's Jews were ordered to convert to Catholicism or face expulsion from Spanish territories during the Spanish Inquisition.[23] A few years later, following social disturbances, Muslims were also expelled under the same conditions.[note 11][24]

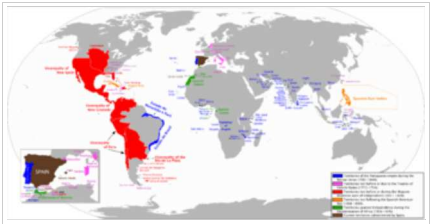

Burgos Cathedral

As Renaissance New Monarchs, Isabella and Ferdinand centralized royal power at the expense of local nobility, and the word *España*, whose root is the ancient name *Hispania*, began to be commonly used to designate the whole of the two kingdoms.[24] With their wide-ranging political, legal, religious and military reforms, Spain emerged as the first world power.

Imperial Spain

Main article: Spanish Empire

The unification of the crowns of Aragon and Castile laid the basis for modern Spain and the Spanish Empire.[25] Spain was Europe's leading power throughout the 16th century and most of the 17th century, a position reinforced by trade and wealth from colonial possessions. It reached its apogee during the reigns of the first two Spanish Habsburgs – Charles I (1516–1556) and Philip II (1556–1598). This period saw the Italian Wars, the revolt of the comuneros, the Dutch revolt, the Morisco revolt, clashes with the Ottomans, the Anglo-Spanish war and wars with France.[26]


The Spanish Empire's historical influence

The Spanish Empire expanded to include great parts of the Americas, islands in the Asia-Pacific area, areas of Italy, cities in Northern Africa, as well as parts of what are now France, Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands. It was the first empire of which it was said that the sun never set.

This was an age of discovery, with daring explorations by sea and by land, the opening-up of new trade routes across oceans, conquests and the beginnings of European colonialism. Along with the arrival of precious metals, spices, luxuries, and new agricultural plants, Spanish explorers brought back knowledge from the New World, and played a leading part in transforming the European understanding of the globe.[27] The cultural efflorescence witnessed is now referred to as the Spanish Golden Age. The rise of humanism, the Protestant Reformation and new geographical discoveries raised issues addressed by the influential intellectual movement now known as the School of Salamanca.

In the late 16th century and first half of the 17th century, Spain was confronted by unrelenting challenges from all sides. Barbary pirates under the aegis of the rapidly growing Ottoman empire, disrupted life in many coastal areas through their slave raids and renewed the threat of an Islamic invasion.[28] This at a time when Spain was often at war with France.

The Protestant Reformation schism from the Catholic Church dragged the kingdom ever more deeply into the mire of religiously charged wars. The result was a country forced into ever expanding military efforts across Europe and in the Mediterranean.[29]

By the middle decades of a war- and plague-ridden 17th century Europe the Spanish Habsburgs had enmeshed the country in the continent-wide religious-political conflicts. These conflicts drained it of resources and undermined the European economy generally. Spain managed to hold on to most of the scattered Habsburg empire, and help the imperial forces of the Holy Roman Empire reverse a large part of the advances made by Protestant forces, but it was finally forced to recognise the separation of Portugal (with whom it had been united in a personal union of the crowns from 1580 to 1640) and the Netherlands, and eventually suffered some serious military reverses to France in the latter stages of the immensely destructive, Europe-wide


A 17th century galleon

Thirty Years War.[30]

In the latter half of the 17th century, Spain went into a gradual relative decline, during which it surrendered a number of small territories to France. However it maintained and enlarged its vast overseas empire, which remained intact until the beginning of the 19th century.


El Escorial, central Spain.

The decline culminated in a controversy over succession to the throne which consumed the first years of the 18th century. The War of Spanish Succession was a wide ranging international conflict combined with a civil war, and was to cost the kingdom its European possessions and its position as one of the leading powers on the Continent.[31]

During this war, a new dynasty originating in France, the Bourbons, was installed. Long united only by the Crown, a true Spanish state was established when the first Bourbon king, Philip V, united the crowns of Castile and Aragon into a single state, abolishing many of the old regional privileges and laws.[32]

The 18th century saw a gradual recovery and an increase in prosperity through much of the empire. The new Bourbon monarchy drew on the French system of modernising the administration and the economy. Enlightenment ideas began to gain ground among some of the kingdom's elite and monarchy. Military assistance for the rebellious British colonies in the American War of Independence improved the kingdom's international standing.[33]

Napoleonic rule and its consequences

Main article: Mid-nineteenth century Spain

See also: Spanish American wars of independence


Second of May 1808: the people revolt against the Bonapartist regime

In 1793, Spain went to war against the new French Republic, which had overthrown and executed its Bourbon king, Louis XVI. The war polarised the country in an apparent reaction against the gallicised elites. Defeated in the field, peace was made with France in 1795 and it effectively became a client state of that country; In 1807, the secret treaty of Fontainebleau between Napoleon and the deeply unpopular Godoy led to a declaration of war against Britain and Portugal. French troops entered the kingdom unopposed, supposedly to invade Portugal, but instead they occupied Spanish fortresses. This invasion by trickery led to the abdication of the ridiculed Spanish king in favour of Napoleon's brother, Joseph Bonaparte.

This foreign puppet monarch was widely regarded with scorn. The 2 May 1808 revolt was one of many nationalist uprisings against the Bonapartist regime across the country.[34] These revolts marked the beginning of what is known to the Spanish as the War of Independence, and to the British as the Peninsular War.[35] Napoleon was forced to intervene personally, defeating several badly coordinated Spanish armies and forcing a British army to retreat. However, further military action by Spanish guerrillas and armies, and Wellington's British-Portuguese forces, combined with Napoleon's disastrous invasion of Russia, led to the ousting of the French imperial armies from the Spain in 1814, and the return of King Ferdinand VII.[36]

The French invasions devastated the economy, and left Spain a deeply divided country prone to political instability. The power struggles of the early 19th century led to the loss of all of its colonies in the Americas (which stretched from Las Californias to Patagonia), with the sole exception of Cuba and Puerto Rico.

Spanish–American War

Main article: Spanish–American War

Amid the instability and economic crisis that afflicted Spain in the 19th century there arose nationalist movements in the Philippines and Cuba. Wars of independence ensued in those colonies and eventually the United States became involved. Despite the commitment and ability shown by some military units, they were so mismanaged by the highest levels of command that the Spanish–American War, fought in the Spring of 1898, did not last long. "El Desastre" (The Disaster), as the war became known, helped give impetus to the Generation of 98 who were already conducting much critical analysis concerning the country. It also weakened the stability that had been established during Alfonso XII's reign.

Spanish Civil War

Main article: Spanish Civil War

The 20th century brought little peace; Spain played a minor part in the scramble for Africa, with the colonisation of Western Sahara, Spanish Morocco and Equatorial Guinea. The heavy losses suffered during the Rif war in Morocco helped to undermine the monarchy. A period of authoritarian rule under General Miguel Primo de Rivera (1923–1931) ended with the establishment of the Second Spanish Republic. The Republic offered political autonomy to the Basque Country, Catalonia and Galicia and gave voting rights to women.


Francisco Franco and US President Eisenhower, Madrid, 1959

The Spanish Civil War (1936–39) ensued. Three years later the Nationalist forces, led by General Francisco Franco, emerged victorious with the support of Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy. Popular Front government side was supported by the Soviet Union and Mexico and International Brigades, including the American Abraham Lincoln Brigade, but it was not supported officially by the Western powers due to the British-led policy of Non-Intervention.

The Civil War claimed the lives of over 500,000 people[37] and caused the flight of up to a half-million citizens.[38] Most of their descendants now live in Latin American countries, with some 300,000 in Argentina alone.[39] The Spanish Civil War has been called the first battle of the Second World War.

Spain under Franco

Main article: Spain under Franco

The Spanish State established by Franco was nominally neutral in the Second World War, although sympathetic to the Axis. The only legal party under Franco's post civil war regime was the *Falange Española Tradicionalista y de las JONS*, formed in 1937; the party emphasised anti-Communism, Catholicism and nationalism. Given Franco's opposition to competing political parties, the party was renamed the National Movement (*Movimiento Nacional*) in 1949.

After World War II Spain was politically and economically isolated, and was kept out of the United Nations. This changed in 1955, during the Cold War period, when it became strategically important for the U.S. to establish a military presence on the Iberian peninsula as a counter to any possible move by the U.S.S.R into the Mediterranean basin. In the 1960s, Spain registered an unprecedented rate of economic growth in what became known as the Spanish miracle, which resumed the much interrupted transition towards a modern economy.

Post Franco

Further information: Spanish society after the democratic transition

With Franco's death in November 1975, Juan Carlos succeeded to the position of King of Spain and head of state in accordance with the law. With the approval of the new Spanish Constitution of 1978 and the arrival of democracy, the State devolved much authority to the regions and created an internal organization based on autonomous communities.

In the Basque Country, moderate Basque nationalism has coexisted with a radical nationalist movement led by the armed organisation ETA. The group was formed in 1959 during Franco's


Spanish Constitution of 1978

rule but has continued to wage its violent campaign even after the restoration of democracy and the return of a large measure of regional autonomy.

On 23 February 1981, rebel elements among the security forces seized the Cortes in an attempt to impose a military backed government. King Juan Carlos took personal command of the military and successfully ordered the coup plotters, via national television, to surrender.

On 30 May 1982 Spain joined NATO, following a referendum. That year the Spanish Socialist Workers Party (PSOE) came to power, the first left-wing government in 43 years. In 1986 Spain joined the European Community; what became the European Union. The PSOE was replaced in government by the Partido Popular (PP) after the latter won the 1996 General Elections; at that point the PSOE had served almost 14 consecutive years in office.

On 1 January 2002, Spain ceased to use the peseta as currency replacing it with the euro, which it shares with 15 other countries in the Eurozone. Spain has also seen strong economic growth, well above the EU average, but well publicised concerns issued by many economic commentators at the height of the boom that the extraordinary property prices and high foreign trade deficits of the boom were likely to lead to a painful economic collapse were confirmed by a severe property led recession that struck the country in 2008/9.[40]


Spanish euros, 2002

A series of bombs exploded in commuter trains in Madrid, Spain on 11 March 2004. After a five month trial in 2007 it was concluded the bombings were perpetrated by a local Islamist militant group inspired by al-Qaeda.[41] The bombings killed 191 people and wounded more than 1800, and the intention of the perpetrators may have been to influence the outcome of the Spanish general election, held three days later.[42]

Though initial suspicions focused on the Basque group ETA, evidence soon emerged indicating possible Islamist involvement. Because of the proximity of the election, the issue of responsibility quickly became a political controversy, with the main competing parties PP and PSOE exchanging accusations over the handling of the aftermath.[43] At 14 March elections, PSOE, led by José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero, obtained a plurality, enough to form a new cabinet with Rodríguez Zapatero as the new *Presidente del Gobierno* or Prime Minister of Spain, thus succeeding the former PP administration.[44]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Spain


Bossòst, Lérida, a Pyrenean town

At 504,782 km^2 (194,897 sq mi), Spain is the world's 51st-largest country. It is some 47,000 km^2 (18,000 sq mi) smaller than France and 81,000 km^2 (31,000 sq mi) larger than the U.S. state of California. Mt. Teide (Tenerife, Canary Islands) has the highest mountain peak of Spain and the third largest volcano in the world from its base.

Spain lies between latitudes 26° and 44° N, and longitudes 19° W and 5° E.

On the west, Spain borders Portugal; on the south, it borders Gibraltar (a British overseas territory) and Morocco, through its exclaves in North Africa (Ceuta, Melilla, and Peñón de Vélez de la Gomera). On the northeast, along the Pyrenees mountain range, it borders France and the tiny principality of Andorra. Along the Pyrenees in Gerona, a small exclave town called Llívia is surrounded by France.


El Sardinero beach, Santander, Cantabria

Islands

Spain also includes the Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean Sea, the Canary Islands in the Atlantic Ocean and a number of uninhabited islands on the Mediterranean side of the Strait of Gibraltar, known as *Plazas de soberanía*, such as the Chafarine islands, the isle of Alborán, Alhucemas, and the tiny Isla Perejil. The little Pheasant Island in the River Bidasoa is a Spanish-French condominium.

Islander population:[45]

- 1. Tenerife 899,833
- 2. Mallorca 862,397
- 3. Gran Canaria 838,397
- 4. Lanzarote 141,938
- 5. Ibiza 125,053
- 6. Fuerteventura 103,107
- 7. Menorca 92,434
- 8. La Palma 85,933
- 9. La Gomera 22,259
- 10. El Hierro 10,558
- 11. Formentera 7,957
- 12. Arosa 4,889
- 13. La Graciosa 658
- 14. Tabarca 105
- 15. Ons 61


Mt. Teide, Tenerife, Canary Islands is the tallest mountain in Spain


Palma de Mallorca, Balearic Islands

Mountains and rivers

Mainland Spain is a mountainous country, dominated by high plateaus and mountain chains. After the Pyrenees, the main mountain ranges are the Cordillera Cantábrica, Sistema Ibérico, Sistema Central, Montes de Toledo, Sierra Morena and the Sistema Penibético whose highest peak, the 3,478 m high Mulhacén, located in Sierra Nevada, is the highest elevation in the Iberian peninsula, while the highest point in Spain is the Teide, a 3,718 m high active volcano in the Canary Islands. The Meseta Central is a vast plateau in the heart of peninsular Spain.

There are several major rivers in Spain such as the Tagus, the Ebro, the Duero, the Guadiana and the Guadalquivir. Alluvial plains are found along the coast, the largest of which is that of the Guadalquivir in Andalusia.

Climate

Main article: Climate of Spain

Three main climatic zones can be separated, according to geographical situation and orographic conditions:[46][47][48]

- The Mediterranean climate, characterized by dry and warm summers. According to the Köppen climate classification, it is dominant in the peninsula, with two varieties: *Csa* and *Csb*.
- The semiarid climate (*Bsh*, *Bsk*), located in the southeastern quarter of the country, especially in the region of Murcia and in the Ebro valley. In contrast with the Mediterranean

climate, the dry season extends beyond the summer.
- The oceanic climate (*Cfb*), located in north quarter of the country, especially in the region of Basque Country, Asturias, Cantabria and partly Galicia. In contrary to the Mediterranean climate, winter and summer temperatures are influenced by the ocean, and have no seasonal drought.


Köppen climate classification of Spain

Apart from these main types, other sub-types can be found, like the alpine climate in the Pyrenees and Sierra Nevada, and a typical subtropical climate in the Canary Islands.

Politics

Main articles: Politics of Spain and Spanish Constitution of 1978


HM the King Juan Carlos I

The **Spanish Constitution of 1978** is the culmination of the Spanish transition to democracy. The constitutional history of Spain dates back to the constitution of 1812. Impatient with the pace of democratic political reforms in 1976 and 1977, Spain's new King Juan Carlos, known for his formidable personality, dismissed Carlos Arias Navarro and appointed the reformer Adolfo Suárez as Prime Minister.[49][50] The resulting general election in 1977 convened the *Constituent Cortes* (the Spanish Parliament, in its capacity as a constitutional assembly) for the purpose of drafting and approving the constitution of 1978.[51] After a national referendum on 6 December 1978, 88% of voters approved of the new constitution.

As a result, Spain is now composed of 17 autonomous communities and two autonomous cities with varying degrees of autonomy thanks to its Constitution, which nevertheless explicitly states the indivisible unity of the Spanish nation as well as that Spain has today no official religion but all are free to practice and believe as they wish.

As of November 2009, the government of Spain keeps a balanced gender equality ratio. Nine out of the 18 members of the government are women. Under the administration of José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero, Spain has been described as being "at the vanguard" in gender equality issues and also that "[n]o other modern, democratic, administration outside Scandinavia has taken more steps to place gender issues at the centre of government".[52] The Spanish administration has also promoted gender-based positive discrimination by approving gender equality legislation in 2007 aimed at providing equality between genders in Spanish political and economic life (Gender Equality Act).[53][54] However, in the legislative branch, as of July 2010 only 128 of the 350 members of the Congress are women (36.3%).[55] It places Spain 13th on a list of countries ranked by proportion of women in the lower house. In the Senate, the ratio is even lower, since there are only 79 women out of 263 (30.0%).[56] The Gender Empowerment Measure of Spain in the United Nations Human Development Report is 0.794, 12th in the world.[57]

Branches of government

Spain is a constitutional monarchy, with a hereditary monarch and a bicameral parliament, the *Cortes Generales*. The executive branch consists of a Council of Ministers of Spain presided over by the Prime Minister, nominated and appointed by the monarch and confirmed by the Congress of Deputies following legislative elections. By political custom established by King Juan Carlos since the ratification of the 1978 Constitution, the king's nominees have all been from parties who maintain a plurality of seats in the Congress.


Mariano Rajoy, Prime minister.

The legislative branch is made up of the Congress of Deputies (*Congreso de los Diputados*) with 350 members, elected by popular vote on block lists by proportional representation to serve four-year terms, and a Senate (*Senado*) with 259 seats of which 208 are directly elected by popular vote and the other 51 appointed by the regional legislatures to also serve four-year terms.

- **Head of State**
  - King Juan Carlos I, since 22 November 1975
- **Head of Government**
  - Prime Minister of Spain (Spanish *Presidente del Gobierno* literally *President of the Government*): Mariano Rajoy Brey, elected 20 November 2011.
    - Deputy Prime Minister and Minister for the Presidency: Soraya Sáenz de Santamaría.
- **Cabinet**
  - Council of Ministers (Spanish *Consejo de Ministros*) designated by the Prime Minister.

The Spanish nation is organizationally composed in the form of called *Estado de las Autonomías* ("State of Autonomies"); it is one of the most decentralized countries in Europe, along with Switzerland, Germany and Belgium;[58] for example, all Autonomous Communities have their own elected parliaments, governments, public administrations, budgets, and resources; therefore, health and education systems among others are managed regionally, besides, the Basque Country and Navarre also manage their own public finances based on foral provisions. In Catalonia and the Basque Country, a full fledged autonomous police corps replaces some of the State police functions (see Mossos d'Esquadra, Ertzaintza, Policía Foral and Policía Canaria).

See also: List of Spanish monarchs and Monarchs of Spain family tree

Administrative divisions

Main article: Political divisions of Spain

The Spanish State is integrated by 17 autonomous communities and 2 autonomous cities, both groups being the highest or first-order administrative division in the country. Autonomous communities are integrated by provinces, of which there are 50 in total, and in turn, provinces are integrated by municipalities. In Catalonia, two additional divisions exist, the *comarques* (sing. *comarca*) and the *vegueries* (sing. *vegueria*) both of which have administrative powers; *comarques* being aggregations of municipalities, and the *vegueries* being aggregations of *comarques*. The concept of a *comarca* exists in all autonomous communities, however, unlike Catalonia, these are merely historical or geographical subdivisions.

Autonomous communities and autonomous cities

Main article: Autonomous communities of Spain

See also: Nationalities and regions of Spain

Autonomous communities are the first level administrative division in the country. These were created after the 1979 and current constitution came into effect in recognition of the right to self-government to the "nationalities and regions of Spain".[59] Autonomous communities were to be integrated by adjacent provinces with common historial, cultural, and economical traits. This territorial organization, based on devolution, is known in Spain as the "State of Autonomies".

The basic institutional law of each autonomous community is the Statute of Autonomy. The Statutes of Autonomy establish the name of the community according to its historical identity, the limits of their territories, the name and organization of the institutions of government and the rights they enjoy according the constitution.[60]

The government of all autonomous communities must be based on a division of powers comprising:

- a Legislative Assembly whose members must be elected by universal suffrage according to the system of proportional representation and in which all areas that integrate the territory are fairly represented;
- a Government Council, with executive and administrative functions headed by a president, elected by the Legislative Assembly and nominated by the King of Spain;
- a Supreme Court of Justice, under the Supreme Court of the State, which head the judicial organization within the autonomous community.

Catalonia, Galicia and the Basque Country, which identified themselves as "nationalities" were granted self-government through a rapid process. Andalusia also took that denomination in its first Statute of Autonomy, even though it followed the longer process stipulated in the constitution for the rest of the country. Progressively, other communities in revisions to their Statutes of Autonomy have also taken that denomination in accordance to their historical regional identity, such as the Valencian Community,[61] the Canary Islands,[62] the Balearic Islands,[63] and Aragon.[64]



The autonomous communities have wide legislative and executive autonomy, with their own parliaments and regional governments. The distribution of powers may be different for every community, as laid out in their Statutes of Autonomy, since devolution was intended to be asymmetrical. Only two communities—the Basque Country and Navarre—have full fiscal autonomy. Aside of fiscal autonomy, the "historical" nationalities—Andalusia, the Basque Country, Catalonia, and Galicia—were devolved more powers than the rest of the communities, amongst them the ability of the regional president to dissolve the parliament and call for elections at any time. In addition, the Basque Country, Catalonia and Navarre have police corps of their own: Ertzaintza, Mossos d'Esquadra and the Policía Foral respectively. Other communities have more limited forces or none at all (like the *Policía Autónoma Andaluza*[65] in Andalusia or the BESCAM in Madrid.

Nonetheless, recent amendments to existing Statutes of Autonomy or the promulgation of new Statutes altogether, have reduced the asymmetry between the powers originally granted to the "historical nationalities" and the rest of the regions.

Finally, along with the 17 autonomous communities, two autonomous cities are also part of the State of Autonomies and are first-order territorial divisions: Ceuta and Melilla. These are two exclaves located in the northern African coast.

Provinces and municipalities

Main article: Provinces of Spain


Provinces of Spain

Autonomous communities are subdivided into provinces (*provincias*), which served as their territorial building blocks. In turn, provinces are integrated by municipalities (*municipios*). The existence of both the provinces and the municipalities is guaranteed and protected by the constitution, not necessarily by the Statutes of Autonomy themselves. Municipalities are granted autonomy to manage their internal affairs, and provinces are the territorial divisions designed to carry out the activities of the State.[66]

The current provincial division structure is based—with minor changes—on the one created in 1833 by Javier de Burgos, and in all, the Spanish territory is divided into 50 provinces. The communities of Asturias, Cantabria, La Rioja, the Balearic Islands, Madrid, Murcia and Navarre are the only communities that are integrated by a single province, which is coextensive with the community itself. In this cases, the administrative institutions of the province are replaced by the governmental institutions of the community.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Spain


European Union membership, 1986

After the return of democracy following the death of Franco in 1975, Spain's foreign policy priorities were to break out of the diplomatic isolation of the Franco years and expand diplomatic relations, enter the European Community, and define security relations with the West.

As a member of NATO since 1982, Spain has established itself as a major participant in multilateral international security activities. Spain's EU membership represents an important part of its foreign policy. Even on many international issues beyond western Europe, Spain prefers to coordinate its efforts with its EU partners through the European political cooperation mechanisms.

With the normalization of diplomatic relations with North Korea in 2001, Spain completed the process of universalizing its diplomatic relations.

Spain has maintained its special identification with Latin America. Its policy emphasizes the concept of an Iberoamerican community, essentially the renewal of the historically liberal concept of *hispanoamericanismo*, or Hispanism as it is often referred to in English, which has sought to link the Iberian peninsula with Latin America through language, commerce, history and culture. Spain has been an effective example of transition from dictatorship to democracy for formerly non-democratic Latin American states, as shown in the many trips that Spain's King and Prime Ministers have made to the region.[*citation needed*]

Territorial disputes

Spain claims Gibraltar, a six square km Overseas Territory of the United Kingdom in the southernmost part of the Iberian Peninsula. Then a Spanish town, it was conquered by an Anglo-Dutch force in 1704 during the War of the Spanish Succession on behalf of Archduke Charles, pretender to the Spanish throne.


Port of Melilla

The legal situation concerning Gibraltar was settled in 1713 by the Treaty of Utrecht, in which Spain ceded the territory in perpetuity to the British Crown[67] stating that, should the British abandon this post, it would be offered to Spain first. Since the 1940s Spain has called for the return of Gibraltar. The overwhelming majority of Gibraltarians strongly oppose this, along with any proposal of shared sovereignty.[68] UN resolutions call on the United Kingdom and Spain, both EU members, to reach an agreement over the status of Gibraltar.[69][70]

However, the Spanish claim makes a distinction between the isthmus that connects the Rock to the Spanish mainland on the one hand, and the Rock and city of Gibraltar on the other. While the Rock and city were ceded by the Treaty of Utrecht, Spain asserts that the "occupation of the isthmus is illegal and against the principles of International Law".[71] The United Kingdom relies on *de facto* arguments of possession by prescription in relation to the isthmus,[72] as there has been "continuous possession [of the isthmus] over a long period".[73]

Another claim by Spain is about the Savage Islands, not recognized by Portugal.

Spain claims the sovereignty over the Perejil Island, a small, uninhabited rocky islet located in the South shore of the Strait of Gibraltar. The island lies 250 meters just off the coast of Morocco, 8 km from Ceuta and 13.5 km from mainland Spain. Its sovereignty is disputed between Spain and Morocco. It was the subject of an armed incident between the two countries in 2002. The incident ended when both countries agreed to return to the status quo ante which existed prior to the Moroccan occupation of the island. The islet is now deserted and without any sign of sovereignty.

Besides the Perejil Island, the Spanish-held territories claimed by other countries are two: Morocco claims the Spanish cities of Ceuta and Melilla and the *plazas de soberanía* islets off the northern coast of Africa; and Portugal does not recognise Spain's sovereignty over the territory of Olivenza.

Military

Main article: Spanish Armed Forces

The armed forces of Spain are known as the Spanish Armed Forces (Spanish: *Fuerzas Armadas Españolas*). Their Commander-in-chief is the King of Spain, Juan Carlos I.[74]

The Spanish Armed Forces are divided into three branches:[75]

- Army (*Ejército de Tierra*)
- Navy (*Armada*)
- Air Force (*Ejército del Aire*)


Emblem of Spanish Armed Forces

Economy

Main article: Economy of Spain

Spain's capitalist mixed economy is the twelfth largest worldwide and the fifth largest in the European Union, as well as the Eurozone's fourth largest.

The centre-right government of former prime minister José María Aznar worked successfully to gain admission to the group of countries launching the euro in 1999. Unemployment stood at 7.6% in October 2006, a rate that compared favorably to many other European countries, and especially with the early 1990s when it stood at over 20%. Perennial weak points of Spain's economy include high inflation,[76] a large underground economy,[77] and an education system which OECD reports place among the poorest for developed countries, together with the United States and UK.[78]


Madrid: Cuatro Torres Business Area

However, the property bubble that begun building from 1997, fed by historically low interest rates and an immense surge in immigration, imploded in 2008, leading to a rapidly weakening economy and soaring unemployment. By the end of May 2009, unemployment reached 18.7% (37% for youths).[79][80]

Before the current crisis, the Spanish economy was credited for having avoided the virtual zero growth rate of some of its largest partners in the EU.[81] In fact, the country's economy created more than half of all the new jobs in the European Union over the five years ending 2005, a process that is rapidly being reversed.[82] The Spanish economy has been until recently regarded as one of the most dynamic within the EU, attracting significant amounts of foreign investment.[83]


Barcelona: finance centre

The most recent economic growth benefited greatly from the global real estate boom, with construction representing an astonishing 16% of GDP and 12% of employment in its final year.[84]

According to calculations by the German newspaper *Die Welt* in 2007, Spain was on course to overtake Germany in per capita income by 2011.[85] But the collapse of the housing boom in 2008 brought this to an end. According to the IMF, the PPP GDP per capita of Spain had, by 2010, slipped to USD 29,830; this compared to Germany at 36,081, UK 35,059, France 33,910, Italy 29,480, Greece 28,496, and Portugal 23,262.[86]


The Eurozone

Research about quality of life by the Economist Intelligence Unit's quality of life survey placed Spain as the country among the top 10 best quality of life in the world for 2005, ahead of other economically and technologically advanced countries like France, Germany, the United Kingdom and South Korea.[87]


Valencia: finance centre

Before the collapse of the real estate boom there had been a corresponding rise in the levels of personal debt as prospective home owners struggled to meet asking prices. The average level of household debt tripled in less than a decade. This placed great pressure upon lower to middle income groups; by 2005 the median ratio of indebtedness to income had grown to 125%, due primarily to expensive boom time mortgages.[88]

The 2008/2009 credit crunch and world recession manifested itself in Spain through a massive downturn in the property sector. Fortunately, Spain's banks and financial services avoided the more severe problems of their counterparts in the USA and UK, due mainly to a stringently enforced conservative financial regulatory regime. The Spanish financial authorities had not forgotten the country's own banking crisis of 1979 and an earlier real-estate-precipitated banking crisis of 1993. Indeed, Spain's largest bank, Banco Santander, participated in the UK government's bail-out of part of the UK banking sector.[89]

A European Commission forecast predicted Spain would enter a recession by the end of 2008.[90] According to Spain's Finance Minister, "Spain faces its deepest recession in half a century".[91] Spain's government forecast the unemployment rate would rise to 16% in 2009. The ESADE business school predicted 20%.[92]

Tourism

Main article: Tourism in Spain

During the last four decades the Spanish tourism industry has grown to become the second biggest in the world, worth approximately 40 billion Euros, about 5% of GDP, in 2006.[84][93] Today, the climate of Spain, historical and cultural monuments and its geographic position together with its facilities make tourism one of Spain's main national industries and a large source of stable employment and development. The Spanish hotel star rating system has requirements much more demanding than other European countries, so at a given rating Spanish accommodations worth higher.[94]

Energy

Main article: Renewable energy in Spain


PS10 Seville solar power tower

Spain is one of the world's leading countries in the development and production of renewable energy. In 2010 Spain became the solar power world leader when it overtook the United States with a massive power station plant called La Florida, near Alvarado, Badajoz.[95][96] Spain is also Europe's main producer of wind energy. In 2010 its wind turbines generated 42,976 GWh, which accounted for 16.4% of all the energy produced in Spain.[97][98][99] On November 9, 2010, wind energy reached an instantaneous historic peak covering 53% of mainland electricity demand[100] and generating an amount of energy that is equivalent to that of 14 nuclear reactors.[101] Other renewable energies used in Spain are hydroelectric, biomass and marine (2 power plants under construction).[102]

Non-renewable energy sources used in Spain are nuclear (8 operative reactors), gas, coal, and oil.

Transport

Main article: Transport in Spain

The Spanish road system is mainly centralized, with 6 highways connecting Madrid to the Basque Country, Catalonia, Valencia, West Andalusia, Extremadura and Galicia. Additionally, there are highways along the Atlantic (Ferrol to Vigo), Cantabrian (Oviedo to San Sebastián) and Mediterranean (Girona to Cádiz) coasts.

Spain has the most extensive high-speed rail network in Europe, and the second most extensive in the world after China.[103][104][105] As of October 2010 Spain has a total of 3,500 km (2,174.80 mi) of high speed tracks linking Málaga, Seville, Madrid, Barcelona, Valencia and Valladolid, with the trains reaching speeds up to 300 km/h (187 mph). On average, the Spanish


AVE Barcelona-Madrid

high-speed train is the fastest one in the world followed by the Japanese bullet train and the French TGV.[106] Regarding punctuality, it is the second one in the world (98.54% on-time arrival) after the Japanese Shinkansen (99%). [107] Should the aims of the ambitious AVE program (Spanish high speed trains) be met, by 2020 Spain will have 7000 km (4300 mi) of high-speed trains linking almost all provincial cities to Madrid in less than 3 hours and Barcelona within 4 hours.

There are 47 public airports in Spain. The busiest one is the airport of Madrid (Barajas), with 50 million passengers in 2011, being the world's 15th busiest airport, as well as the European Union's fourth busiest. The airport of Barcelona (El Prat) is also important, with 35 million passengers in 2011, being the world's 31th busiest airport. Other main airports are located in Majorca (23 million passengers), Málaga (13 million passengers), Las Palmas (Gran Canaria) (11 million passengers), Alicante (10 million passengers) and smaller, with the number of passengers between 4 and 10 million, for example Tenerife (two airports), Valencia, Seville, Bilbao, Ibiza, Lanzarote, Fuerteventura. Also, more than 30 airports with the number of passengers below 4 million.

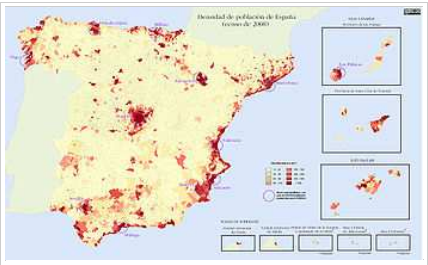
Spain aims to put 1 million electric cars on the road by 2014 as part of the government's plan to save energy and boost energy efficiency.[108] The Minister of Industry Miguel Sebastian said that "the electric vehicle is the future and the engine of an industrial revolution."[109]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Spain

See also: List of Spanish autonomous communities by population

In 2008 the population of Spain officially reached 46 million people, as recorded by the *Padrón municipal*.[110] Spain's population density, at 91/km² (235/sq mi), is lower than that of most Western European countries and its distribution across the country is very unequal. With the exception of the region surrounding the capital, Madrid, the most populated areas lie around the coast. The population of Spain more than doubled since 1900, when it stood at 18.6 million, principally due to the spectacular demographic boom in the 1960s and early 1970s.[111]


Geographical distribution of the Spanish population in 2008

Native Spaniards make up 88% of the total population of Spain. After the birth rate plunged in the 1980s and Spain's population growth rate dropped, the population again trended upward, based initially on the return of many Spaniards who had emigrated to other European countries during the 1970s, and more recently, fuelled by large numbers of immigrants who make up 12% of the population. The immigrants originate mainly in Latin America (39%), North Africa (16%), Eastern Europe (15%), and Sub-Saharan Africa (4%).[112] In 2005, Spain instituted a three-month amnesty program through which certain hitherto undocumented aliens were granted legal residency.

In 2008, Spain granted citizenship to 84,170 persons, mostly to people from Ecuador, Colombia and Morocco.[113] A sizeable portion of foreign residents in Spain also comes from other Western and Central European countries. These are mostly British, French, German, Dutch, and Norwegian. They reside primarily on the Mediterranean coast and the Balearic islands, where many choose to live their retirement or telecommute.

Substantial populations descended from Spanish colonists and immigrants exist in other parts of the world, most notably in Latin America. Beginning in the late 15th century, large numbers of Iberian colonists settled in what became Latin America and at present most white Latin Americans (who make up about one-third of Latin America's population) are of Spanish or Portuguese origin. In the 16th century perhaps 240,000 Spaniards emigrated, mostly to Peru and Mexico.[114] They were joined by 450,000 in the next century.[115] Between 1846 and 1932 it is estimated that nearly 5 million Spaniards emigrated to the Americas, especially to Argentina and Brazil.[116] Approximately two million Spaniards migrated to other Western European countries between 1960 to 1975. During the same period perhaps 300,000 went to Latin America.[117]

Urbanization

See also: List of metropolitan areas in Spain by population

Source: ESPON, 2007[118]

Pos.	City	Region	Prov.	population
1	Madrid	Madrid	Madrid	6,501,717
2	Barcelona	Catalonia	Barcelona	5,511,147
3	Valencia	Valencian Community	Valencia	2,575,362
4	Seville	Andalusia	Seville	1,927,109
5	Bilbao	Basque Country	Biscay	1.152.658
6	Málaga	Andalusia	Málaga	1,624,145
7	Oviedo–Gijón	Asturias	Asturias	844,000
8	Alicante–Elche	Valencian Community	Alicante	793,000
9	Las Palmas de G.C.	Canarias	Las Palmas	750,000
10	Zaragoza	Aragon	Zaragoza	730,000



Map of the main metropolitan areas

Pos.	City	Region	Prov.	population
1	Madrid	Madrid	Madrid	3,213,271
2	Barcelona	Catalonia	Barcelona	1,615,908
3	Valencia	Valencian Community	Valencia	810,064
4	Seville	Andalusia	Seville	703.206
5	Zaragoza	Aragon	Zaragoza	699.240
6	Málaga	Andalusia	Málaga	566,447
7	Murcia	Murcia	Murcia	430,571
8	Palma de Mallorca	Balearic Islands	Balearic Islands	401,570
9	Las Palmas de G.C.	Canary Islands	Las Palmas	381,723
10	Bilbao	Basque Country	Biscay	353,340


The city of Las Palmas de G.C.

Peoples

Main articles: Spanish people and Nationalisms and regionalisms of Spain


The city of Girona

The Spanish Constitution of 1978, in its second article, recognises historic entities ("nationalities", a carefully chosen word in order to avoid the more politically charged "nations") and regions, within the context of the Spanish nation. For some people, Spain's identity consists more of an overlap of different regional identities than of a sole Spanish identity. Indeed, some of the regional identities may even conflict with the Spanish one. Distinct traditional regional identities within Spain include the Basques, Catalans, Galicians and Castilians, among others.[119]

It is this last feature of "shared identity" between the more local level or Autonomous Community and the Spanish level which makes the identity question in Spain complex and far from univocal.

Minority groups


The city of Toledo

Spain has a number of descendants of populations from former colonies (especially Equatorial Guinea) and immigrants from several Sub-Saharan and Caribbean countries have been recently settling in Spain. There are also sizeable numbers of Asian immigrants, most of whom are of Chinese, Indian, Filipino, Middle Eastern and South Asian origins; the population of Latin Americans is sizable as well and a fast growing segment. Other growing groups are Britons, 760,000 in 2006, Germans and other immigrants from the rest of Europe.[120]

The arrival of the *Gitanos*, a Romani people, began in the 16th century; estimates of the Spanish Gitano population fluctuate around 700,000.[121] The *Mercheros* (also Quinquis) are a minority group, formerly nomadic, that share a lot of the way of life of Gitanos. Their origin is unclear.

Immigration

Main article: Immigration to Spain

According to the Spanish government there were 5.7 million foreign residents in Spain in 2011, or 12.2% of the total population. According to residence permit data for 2011, more than 860,000 were Romanian, about 770,000 were Moroccan, approximately 390,000 were British, and 360.000 were Ecuadorian.[122] Other sizeable foreign communities are Colombian, Bolivian, German, Italian, Bulgarian, and Chinese. There are more than 200,000 migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa living in Spain, principally Senegaleses and Nigerians.[123] Since 2000, Spain has experienced high population growth as a result of immigration flows, despite a birth rate that is only half the replacement level. This sudden and ongoing inflow of immigrants, particularly those arriving clandestinely by sea, has caused noticeable social tension.[124]


Marbella, Málaga, where Britons —who are the third immigrant community in Spain— reside in large numbers.

Within the EU, Spain had the second highest immigration rate in percentage terms after Cyprus, but by a great margin, the highest in absolute numbers, up to 2008.[125] The number of immigrants in Spain had grown up from 500,000 people in 1996 to 5.2 million in 2008 out of a total population of 46 million.[126][127] In 2005 alone, a regularisation programme increased the legal immigrant population by 700,000 people.[128] There are a number of reasons for the high level of immigration, including Spain's cultural ties with Latin America, its geographical position, the porosity of its borders, the large size of its underground economy and the strength of the agricultural and construction sectors, which demand more low cost labour than can be offered by the national workforce.

Another statistically significant factor is the large number of residents of EU origin typically retiring to Spain's Mediterranean coast. In fact, Spain was Europe's largest absorber of migrants from 2002 to 2007, with its immigrant population more than doubling as 2.5 million people arrived.[129] According to the Financial Times, Spain is the most favoured destination for West Europeans considering a move from their own country and seeking jobs elsewhere in the EU.[130]

In 2008, the government instituted a *Plan of Voluntary Return* which encouraged unemployed immigrants from outside the EU to return to their home countries and receive several incentives, including the right to keep their unemployment benefits and transfer whatever they contributed to the Spanish Social Security.[131] The program had little effect; during its first two months, just 1,400 immigrants took up the offer.[132] What the program failed to do, the sharp and prolonged economic crisis has done from 2010 to 2011 in that tens of thousands of immigrants have left the country due to lack of jobs. In 2011 alone, more than half a million people have left Spain.[133] For the first time in decades the net migration rate is expected to be negative, and 9 out 10 emigrants are foreigners.[133]

Languages

Main article: Languages of Spain


The languages of Spain (simplified)

Spanish official and spoken all over the country
Catalan/Valencian, co-official
Basque, co-official
Galician, co-official
Aranese, co-official (dialect of Occitan)
Asturian, recognised
Aragonese, recognised
Leonese, unofficial
Extremaduran, unofficial
Fala, unofficial

Spain is openly multilingual,[134] and the constitution establishes that the nation will protect "all Spaniards and the peoples of Spain in the exercise of human rights, their cultures and traditions, languages and institutions."[135]

Spanish (*español*) — officially recognized in the constitution as Castilian (*castellano*) — is the official language of the entire country, and it is the right and duty of every Spaniard to know the language. The constitution also establishes that "all other Spanish languages" — that is, all other languages of Spain — will also be official in their respective autonomous communities in accordance to their Statutes, their organic regional legislations, and that the "richness of the distinct linguistic modalities of Spain represents a patrimony which will be the object of special respect and protection."[136]

The other official languages of Spain, co-official with Spanish are:

- Basque (*euskera*) in the Basque Country and Navarre;
- Catalan (*català*) in Catalonia, the Balearic Islands and in the Valencian Community, where its distinct modality of the language is officially known as Valencian (*valencià*); and
- Galician (*galego*) in Galicia

As a percentage of the general population, Basque is spoken by 2%, Catalan (or Valencian) by 17%, and Galician by 7% of all Spaniards. [137]

In Catalonia, Aranese, a local variety of the Occitan language has been declared co-official along with Catalan and Spanish since 2006. It is spoken only in the *comarca* of *Val d'Aran* by roughly 6,700 people. Other Romance minority languages, though not official, have special recognition, such as the Astur-Leonese group (Asturian, also called "*Bable*"in Asturias[138] and Leonese in Castile and León) and Aragonese in Aragon.

In the North African Spanish autonomous city of Melilla, Riff Berber is spoken by a significant part of the population. In the tourist areas of the Mediterranean coast and the islands, English and German are widely spoken by tourists, foreign residents, and tourism workers.

Education

Main article: Education in Spain

State education in Spain is free and compulsory from the age of 6 to 16. The current education system was established by an educational law of 2006, Ley Orgánica de Educación, or

Fundamental Law of Education.[139]

Religion

Main article: Religion in Spain

Further information: History of the Jews in Spain, Bahá'í Faith in Spain, and Hinduism in Spain

Roman Catholicism has long been the main religion of Spain, and although it no longer has official status by law, in all public schools in Spain students have to choose either religion or ethics and Catholic is the only religion officially taught. According to a July 2009 study by the Spanish Center of Sociological Research about 73% of Spaniards self-identify as Catholics, 2.1% other faith, and about 22% identify with no religion among which 7.3% are atheists. Most Spaniards do not participate regularly in religious services. This same study shows that of the Spaniards who identify themselves as religious, 58% hardly ever or never go to church, 17% go to church some times a year, 9% some time per month and 15% every Sunday or multiple times per week.[140]

Religions in Spain

Catholicism	76%
Non-religious	13%
Atheism	7.3%
No answer	1.6%
Others	2.1%

Numbers from the following source:[140]



Santiago de Compostela Cathedral, A Coruña; terminus of the Way of St. James

But according to a December 2006 study, 48% of the population declared a belief in a supreme being, while 41% described themselves as atheist or agnostic.[141] Altogether, about 22% of the entire Spanish population attends religious services at least once per month.[142] Though Spanish society has become considerably more secular in recent decades, the influx of Latin American immigrants, who tend to be strong Catholic practitioners, has helped the Catholic Church to recover.

Protestant churches have about 1,200,000 members.[143] There are about 105,000 Jehovah's Witnesses. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints has approximately 46,000 adherents in 133 congregations in all regions of the country and has a temple in the Moratalaz District of Madrid.[144]

The recent waves of immigration have also led to an increasing number of Muslims, who number approximately one million in Spain. Presently, Islam is the second largest religion in Spain, accounting for approximately 2.3% of the total population.[145] After their expulsion in 1492, Muslims did not live in Spain for centuries. Late 19th-century colonial expansion in northwestern Africa gave a number of residents in Spanish Morocco and Western Sahara full citizenship. Their ranks have since been bolstered by recent immigration, especially from Morocco and Algeria.[146]

Judaism was practically non-existent in Spain from the 1492 expulsion until the 19th century, when Jews were again permitted to enter the country. Currently there are around 62,000 Jews in Spain, or 0.14% of the total population. Most are arrivals in the past century, while some are descendants of earlier Spanish Jews. Approximately 80,000 Jews are thought to have lived in Spain on the eve of the Spanish Inquisition.[147]

Culture

Main articles: Culture of Spain and UNESCO World Heritage Sites in Spain



Ciudad de las Artes y las Ciencias, Valencia

Culturally, Spain is a Western country. Because of the great strength of its Roman heritage in almost every aspect of Spanish life, Spain is often described as a Latin country. Nevertheless, there have been many influences on many aspects of Spanish life, from art and architecture to cuisine and music, from many countries across Europe and from around the Mediterranean, through its long history.

The number of UNESCO World Heritage Sites in Spain, 40, is exceeded only by the number in Italy.[148]

Literature

Main article: Spanish literature

.The term Spanish literature refers to literature written in the Spanish language, including literature composed in Spanish by writers not necessarily from Spain. For literature from Spain in languages other than the Spanish, see Catalan literature, Basque literature and Galician literature. Equally, for Spanish-American literature specifically, see Latin American literature. Due to historic, geographic and generational diversity, Spanish literature has known a great number of influences and it is very diverse. Some major literary movements can be identified within it.



Miguel de Cervantes' novel *Don Quixote* [149]

Miguel de Cervantes is probably Spain's most famous author and his Don Quixote is considered the most emblematic work in the canon of Spanish literature and a founding classic of Western literature.[149]

Language institutions

Main articles: Royal Spanish Academy, Institute for Catalan Studies, Royal Galician Academy, and Royal Academy of the Basque language

The Royal Spanish Academy (*Real Academia Española* or *RAE*, in Spanish) is the institution responsible for regulating the Spanish language. It is based in Madrid, but is affiliated with national language academies in 21 Spanish-speaking nations through the Association of Spanish Language Academies. Its emblem is a fiery crucible, and its motto is *Limpia, fija y da esplendor* ("It cleans, sets, and gives splendor").[150]

With the same policy, the Royal Galician Academy (*Real Academia Galega* or *RAG*, in Galician) was created in 1906 in A Coruña with the help of Havana emigrated Galicians. Its work is based in a Lexicography (the main results are the official and standard *Dicionario da Real Academia* and the *Vocabulario ortográfico da lingua galega*), Terminology (through Termigal since 1997), Sociolinguistics, Onomastics and Grammar approaches from the Linguistics point of view, and another two sections for History and Literature.[151] The Academy works closely with the government as an advice institution, and its resolutions are almost binding about language standard. It had though recently demonstrated criticism about the developement of the Galician language policy by the Government.[152]



Book of Games, c. 1285

The Institute of Catalan Studies (*Institut d'Estudis Catalans* or *IEC*, in Catalan) is an academic institution which seeks to undertake research and study into "all elements of Catalan culture". The IEC is known principally for its work in standardizing the Catalan language. The IEC is based in Barcelona, the capital of Catalonia. Officially the IEC provides standards for Catalonia proper, Northern Catalonia (located in France), the Balearic Islands, and the Principality of Andorra (the only country where Catalan is the sole official language). The Valencian Community has its own language academy, the Acadèmia Valenciana de la Llengua. In an area known as the Franja de Ponent, the eastern edge of Aragon adjacent to Catalonia where Catalan is spoken, the rules are used de facto although Catalan is not an official language.

Art

Main article: Spanish art

Artists from Spain have been highly influential in the development of various European artistic movements. Due to historical, geographical and generational diversity, Spanish art has known a great number of influences. The Moorish heritage in Spain, especially in Andalusia, is still evident today in cities like Córdoba, Seville, and Granada. European influences include Italy, Germany and France, especially during the Baroque and Neoclassical periods.

Cinema

Main article: Cinema of Spain


Guggenheim Museum, Bilbao, Biscay

Spanish cinema has achieved major international success including Oscars for recent films such as *Pan's Labyrinth* and *Volver*.[153] In the long history of Spanish cinema, the great filmmaker Luis Buñuel was the first to achieve world recognition, followed by Pedro Almodóvar in the 1980s. Spanish cinema has also seen international success over the years with films by directors like Segundo de Chomón, Florián Rey, Luis García Berlanga, Carlos Saura, Julio Medem and Alejandro Amenábar.

Architecture

Main article: Spanish architecture


The Plaza de Cibeles, Madrid

Spanish architecture refers to architecture carried out during any era in what is now modern-day Spain, and by Spanish architects worldwide. The term includes buildings within the current geographical limits of Spain before this name was given to those territories, whether they were called Hispania, Al-Andalus, or were formed of several Christian kingdoms.


The Sagrada Família, Barcelona

Due to its historical and geographical diversity, Spanish architecture has drawn from a host of influences. An important provincial city founded by the Romans and with an extensive Roman era infrastructure, Córdoba became the cultural capital, including fine Arabic style architecture, during the time of the Islamic Umayyad dynasty.[154] Later Arab style architecture continued to be developed under successive Islamic dynasties, ending with the Nasrid, which built its famed palace complex in Granada.

Simultaneously, the Christian kingdoms gradually emerged and developed their own styles; developing a pre-Romanesque style when for a while isolated from contemporary mainstream European architectural influences during the earlier Middle Ages, they later integrated the Romanesque and Gothic streams. There was then an extraordinary flowering of the gothic style that resulted in numerous instances being built throughout the entire territory. The Mudéjar style, from the 12th to 17th centuries, was developed by introducing Arab style motifs, patterns and elements into European architecture.

The arrival of Modernism in the academic arena produced much of the architecture of the 20th century. An influential style centered in Barcelona, known as modernisme, produced a number of important architects, of which Gaudí is one. The International style was led by groups like GATEPAC. Spain is currently experiencing a revolution in contemporary architecture and Spanish architects like Rafael Moneo, Santiago Calatrava, Ricardo Bofill as well as many others have gained worldwide renown.


Auditorio de Tenerife, Santa Cruz de Tenerife

Music and dance

Main article: Music of Spain


The guitar, an iconic spanish instrument, is now popular worldwide.

Spanish music is often considered abroad to be synonymous with flamenco, a West Andalusian musical genre, which, contrary to popular belief, is not widespread outside that region. Various regional styles of folk music abound in Aragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Castile, the Basque Country, Galicia and Asturias. Pop, rock, hip hop and heavy metal are also popular. In the field of classical music, Spain has produced a number of noted composers such as Isaac Albéniz, Manuel de Falla and Enrique Granados and singers and performers such as Plácido Domingo, José Carreras, Montserrat Caballé, Alicia de Larrocha, Alfredo Kraus, Pablo Casals, Ricardo Viñes, José Iturbi, Pablo de Sarasate, Jordi Savall and Teresa Berganza. In Spain there are over forty professional orchestras, including the Orquestra Simfònica de Barcelona, Orquesta Nacional de España and the Orquesta Sinfónica de Madrid. Major opera houses include the Teatro Real,the Gran Teatre del Liceu, Teatro Arriaga and the El Palau de les Arts Reina Sofía.

Thousands of music fans also travel to Spain each year for internationally recognised summer music festivals Sonar which often features the top up and coming pop and techno acts, and Benicàssim which tends to feature alternative rock and dance acts .[155] Both festivals mark Spain as an international music presence and reflect the tastes of young people in the country.

The most popular traditional musical instrument, the guitar, originated in Spain.[156] Typical of the north are the traditional bag pipers or *gaiteros*, mainly in Asturias and Galicia.

Cuisine

Main article: Spanish cuisine


Paella, a traditional Valencian dish[157]

Spanish cuisine consists of a great variety of dishes which stem from differences in geography, culture and climate. It is heavily influenced by seafood available from the waters that surround the country, and reflects the country's deep Mediterranean roots. Spain's extensive history with many cultural influences has led to a unique cuisine. In particular, three main divisions are easily identified:

- *Mediterranean* Spain – all such coastal regions, from Catalonia to Andalusia: heavy use of seafood, such as *pescaíto frito*; several cold soups like gazpacho; and many rice-based dishes like paella from Valencia[157] and arroz negro from Catalonia.[158]
- *Inner* Spain – Castile: hot, thick soups such as the bread and garlic-based *Castilian soup*, along with substantious stews such as cocido madrileño. Food is traditionally conserved by salting, like Spanish ham, or immersed in olive oil, like Manchego cheese.
- *Atlantic* Spain – the whole Northern coast, including Asturian, Basque, Cantabrian and Galician cuisine: vegetable and fish-based stews like *pote gallego* and marmitako. Also, the lightly cured lacón ham. The most known North countries cuisine often rely on the captures from close or distant seas, like the Basque-style cod, albacore or anchovy or the Galician octopus-based polbo á feira and shellfish dishes.

Science and technology

In the 19th and 20th centuries science in Spain was held back by severe political instability and consequent economic underdevelopment. Despite the conditions, some noted scientists and engineers emerged. Among the most notable were Miguel Servet, Santiago Ramón y Cajal, Narcís Monturiol i Estarriol, Celedonio Calatayud, Juan de la Cierva and Severo Ochoa.

Sport

Main article: Sport in Spain

Sport in Spain has been dominated by football since the early 20th century. Real Madrid C.F. and FC Barcelona are two of the most successful football clubs in the world. The country's national football team won the UEFA European Football Championship in 1964 and 2008 and the FIFA World Cup in 2010.

Basketball, tennis, cycling, handball, motorcycling and, lately, Formula One are also important due to the presence of Spanish champions in all these disciplines. Today, Spain is a major

world sports powerhouse, especially since the 1992 Summer Olympics that were hosted in Barcelona, which stimulated a great deal of interest in sports in the country. The tourism industry has led to an improvement in sports infrastructure, especially for water sports, golf and skiing.

Rafael Nadal is the leading Spanish tennis player and has won several Grand Slam titles including the Wimbledon 2010 men's singles. In north Spain, the game of pelota is very popular. Alberto Contador is the leading Spanish cyclist and has won several Grand Tour titles including three Tour de France titles.


Camp Nou, Barcelona: the largest football stadium in Europe

Public holidays

Main article: Public holidays in Spain

Public holidays celebrated in Spain include a mix of religious (Roman Catholic), national and regional observances. Each municipality is allowed to declare a maximum of 14 public holidays per year; up to nine of these are chosen by the national government and at least two are chosen locally.[159] Spain's National Day (Fiesta Nacional de España) is 12 October, the anniversary of the Discovery of America and commemorate Our Lady of the Pillar feast, patroness of Aragón and throughout Spain.


The city of San Sebastián in Guipúzcoa

See also

- Outline of Spain
- Index of Spain-related articles

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Notes

1. ^ Also serves as the Royal anthem
2. ^ In some autonomous communities, Catalan, Valencian, Galician, Basque and Aranese (Occitan) are co-official languages. Aragonese, Asturian and Leonese have some degree of official recognition
3. ^ Prior to 1999 (by law, 2002) : Spanish Peseta.
4. ^ Except in the Canary Islands, which observe WET (UTC) in winter.
5. ^ Except in the Canary Islands, which observe WEST (UTC+1) in summer.
6. ^ The .eu domain is also used, as it is shared with other European Union member states. Also, the .cat domain is used in Catalan-speaking territories.
7. ^ In Spain, other languages have been officially recognised as legitimate autochthonous (regional) languages under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. In each of these, Spain's official name is as follows:
   - Aragonese: *Reino d'Espanya*, IPA: ['reino ðes'paɲa];
   - Asturian: *Reinu d'España*, IPA: ['reinu ðes'paɲa];
   - Basque: *Espainiako Erresuma* IPA: [espaɲako ereṣuma];
   - Catalan: *Regne d'Espanya*, IPA: ['reŋnə ðəs'paɲə] or ['reŋne ðas'paɲa];
   - Galician: *Reino de España*, IPA: ['reino ðe es'paɲa];
   - Extremaduran: *Réinu d'España*, IPA: ['reinu ðes'paɲa];
   - Occitan: *Reialme d'Espanha*, IPA: [re'jalme ðes'paɲɔ].
8. ^ The *latifundia* (sing., *latifundium*), large estates controlled by the aristocracy, were superimposed on the existing Iberian landholding system.
9. ^ The poets Martial, Quintilian and Lucan were also born in Hispania.
10. ^ The Berbers soon gave up attempting to settle the harsh lands in the north of the Meseta Central handed to them by the Arab rulers.
11. ^ For the related expulsions that followed see Morisco.

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History of Spain

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of Spain** involves all the other peoples and nations within the Iberian peninsula formerly known as *Hispania*, and includes still today the nations of Andorra, Portugal and Spain, and the British overseas territory of Gibraltar. It spans from prehistoric Iberia, through the rise and decline of a global empire, to the recent history of Spain as a member of the European Union. Modern humans entered the Iberian Peninsula about 32,000 years ago. Different populations and cultures followed over the millennia, including the Iberians, the Tartessians, Celts and Celtiberians, Phoenicians, Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Suebi and Visigoths. In 711, the Moors, a Berber and Arab army, invaded and conquered nearly the entire peninsula. During the next 750 years, independent Muslim states were established, and the entire area of Muslim control became known as Al-Andalus. Meanwhile the Christian kingdoms in the north began the long and slow recovery of the peninsula, a process called the *Reconquista*, which was concluded in 1492 with the fall of Granada.

The Kingdom of Spain was created in 1492 with the unification of the Kingdom of Castile and the Kingdom of Aragon.[1] The first voyage of Christopher Columbus to the New World took place that same year, beginning the development of the Spanish Empire. The Inquisition was established and Jews and Muslims who refused to convert were expelled from the country.

For the next century and a half it was the most powerful state in Europe and the largest overseas empire in the world for three centuries. Spanish literature and fine arts, scholarship and philosophy flourished during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Spain established a vast empire in the Americas, stretching from California to Patagonia, and colonies in the western Pacific. Financed in part by the riches pouring in from its colonies, Spain became embroiled in the religiously charged wars and intrigues of Europe, including, for example, through its possessions in western Europe, engaging in wars with France, England, Sweden, and the Ottomans and in the Mediterranean and northern Africa. Spain's European wars, however, led to economic damage, and the latter part of the 17th century saw a gradual decline of power under an increasingly neglectful and inept Habsburg regime. The decline culminated in the War of Spanish Succession, which ended with the relegation of Spain to the status of a second rate western power, although it remained, with Russia, the leading colonial power of the eighteenth century.

The 18th century saw a new dynasty, the Bourbons, which directed considerable efforts towards the renewal of state institutions, with some success, finishing in a successful involvement in the American War of Independence. However, as the century ended, a reaction set in with the accession of a new monarch. The end of the eighteenth and the start of the 19th centuries saw turmoil unleashed throughout Europe by the French

History of Spain



This article is part of **a series**

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Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars, which finally led to a French occupation of much of the continent, including Spain. This triggered a successful but devastating war of independence that shattered the country and created an opening for what would ultimately be the successful independence of Spain's mainland American colonies. Shattered by the war, Spain was destabilised as different political parties representing "liberal", "reactionary" and "moderate" groups throughout the remainder of the century fought for and won short-lived control without any being sufficiently strong to bring about lasting stability. Nationalist movements emerged in the last significant remnants of the old empire (Cuba and the Philippines) which led to a brief war with the United States and the loss of the remaining old colonies at the end of the century.

Following a period of growing political instability in the early 20th century, in 1936 Spain was plunged into a bloody civil war. The war ended in a nationalist dictatorship, led by Francisco Franco which controlled the Spanish government until 1975. Spain was officially neutral during World War II, although many Spanish volunteers fought on both sides. The post-war decades were relatively stable (with the notable exception of an armed independence movement in the Basque Country), and the country experienced rapid economic growth in the 1960s and early 1970s. The death of Franco in 1975 resulted in the return of the Bourbon monarchy headed by Prince Juan Carlos. While tensions remain (for example, with Muslim immigrants and in the Basque region), modern Spain has seen the development of a robust, modern democracy as a constitutional monarchy with popular King Juan Carlos, one of the fastest-growing standards of living in Europe, entry into the European Community, and the 1992 Summer Olympics.

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Early history

Main article: Prehistoric Iberia

The earliest record of hominids living in Europe has been found in the Spanish cave of Atapuerca; fossils found there date to roughly 1.2 million years ago.[2] Modern humans in the form of Cro-Magnons began arriving in the Iberian Peninsula from north of the Pyrenees some 35,000 years ago. The most conspicuous sign of prehistoric human settlements are the famous paintings in the northern Spanish cave of Altamira, which were done c. 15,000 BC and are regarded as paramount instances of cave art.[3] Furthermore, archeological evidence in places like Los Millares in Almería and in El Argar in Murcia suggests developed cultures existed in the eastern part of the Iberian Peninsula during the late Neolithic and the Bronze Age.[4]

The seafaring Phoenicians, Greeks and Carthaginians successively settled along the Mediterranean Sea near Tartessos, modern day Cádiz. According to John Koch,[5] Cunliffe, Karl, Wodtko and other scholars, Celtic culture may have developed first in far Southern Portugal and Southwestern Spain, approximately 500 years prior to anything recorded in Central Europe.[6][7] The Tartessian language from the southwest of the Iberian peninsula, written in a version of the Phoenician script in use around 825 BC, which John T. Koch has claimed to be able to readily translate, has been accepted by a number of philologists and other linguists as the first attested Celtic language,[5][8][9] but the linguistic mainstream continues to treat Tartessian as an unclassified (Pre-Indo-European?) language,[10][11] and Koch's view of the evolution of Celtic is not generally accepted. In the 9th century BC, the first Greek colonies, such as Emporion (modern Empúries), were founded along the Mediterranean coast on the east, leaving the south coast to the Phoenicians. The Greeks are responsible for the name *Iberia*, apparently after the river Iber (Ebro in Spanish). In the 6th century BC, the Carthaginians arrived in Iberia, struggling first with the Greeks, and shortly after, with the newly arriving Romans for control of the Western Mediterranean. Their most important colony was Carthago Nova (Latin name of modern day Cartagena).[12]

The native peoples whom the Romans met at the time of their invasion in what is now known as Spain were the Iberians, inhabiting an area stretching from the southwest part of the Peninsula through the northeast part of it, and then the Celts, mostly inhabiting the north and northwest part of the Peninsula. In the inner part of the Peninsula, where both groups were in contact, a mixed, distinctive, culture arose, called Celtiberian.[2] The Celtiberian Wars or Spanish Wars were fought between the advancing legions of the Roman Republic and the Celtiberian tribes of Hispania Citerior from 181 to 133 BC.[13][14]

Roman *Hispania*

Main article: Hispania

Further information: Roman conquest of Hispania

Further information: Romanization of Hispania

Hispania was divided: Hispania Ulterior and Hispania Citerior during the late Roman Republic; and, during the Roman Empire, Hispania Taraconensis in the northeast, Hispania Baetica in the south (roughly corresponding to Andalucia), and Lusitania in the southwest (corresponding to modern Portugal).[15]

The base Celtiberian population remained in various stages of Romanisation,[16] and local leaders were admitted into the Roman aristocratic class.[17]

The Romans improved existing cities, such as Tarragona (*Tarraco*), and established others like Zaragoza (*Caesaraugusta*), Mérida (*Augusta Emerita*), Valencia (*Valentia*), León ("Legio Septima"), Badajoz ("Pax Augusta"), and Palencia.[18] The peninsula's economy expanded under Roman tutelage. Hispania supplied Rome with food, olive oil, wine and metal. The emperors Trajan, Hadrian, Theodosius I, the philosopher Seneca and the poets Martial, Quintilian and Lucan were born in Spain. The Spanish Bishops held the Council at Elvira in 306.



Roman bridge in Córdoba

The first Germanic tribes to invade Hispania arrived in the 5th century, as the Roman Empire decayed.[19] The Visigoths, Suebi, Vandals and Alans arrived in Spain by crossing the Pyrenees mountain range.[20] The Romanized Visigoths entered Hispania in 415. After the conversion of their monarchy to Roman Catholicism, the Visigothic Kingdom eventually encompassed a great part of the Iberian Peninsula after conquering the disordered Suebic territories in the northwest and Byzantine territories in the southeast.[17][21]

The collapse of the Western Roman Empire did not lead to the same wholesale destruction of Western classical society as happened in areas like Roman Britain, Gaul and Germania Inferior during the Dark Ages, even if the institutions, infrastructure and economy did suffer considerable degradation. Spain's present languages, its religion, and the basis of its laws originate from this period. The centuries of uninterrupted Roman rule and settlement left a deep and enduring imprint upon the culture of Spain.

Germanic Occupation of Hispania (5th–8th centuries)

Further information: Kingdom of Toledo, Suebic Kingdom of Galicia, and Spania

After the decline of the Roman Empire, Germanic tribes invaded the former empire. Several turned sedentary and created successor-kingdoms to the Romans in various parts of Europe. Iberia was taken over by the Visigoths after 410.[22]



Visigothic Hispania and its regional divisions in 700, prior to the Muslim conquest.

In the Iberian peninsula, as elsewhere, the Empire fell not with a bang but with a whimper. Rather than there being any convenient date for the "fall of the Roman Empire" there was a progressive "de-Romanization" of the Western Roman Empire in Hispania and a weakening of central authority, throughout the 3rd, 4th and 5th centuries.[23] At the same time, there was a process of "Romanization" of the Germanic and Hunnic tribes settled on both sides of the *limes* (the fortified frontier of the Empire along the Rhine and Danube rivers). The Visigoths, for example, were converted to Arian Christianity around 360, even before they were pushed into imperial territory by the expansion of the Huns.[24] In the winter of 406, taking advantage of the frozen Rhine, the (Germanic) Vandals and Sueves, and the (Sarmatian) Alans invaded the empire in force. Three years later they crossed the Pyrenees into Iberia and divided the Western parts, roughly corresponding to modern Portugal and western Spain as far as Madrid, between them.[25] The Visigoths meanwhile, having sacked Rome two years earlier, arrived in the region in 412 founding the Visigothic kingdom of Toulouse (in the south of modern France)

and gradually expanded their influence into the Iberian peninsula at the expense of the Vandals and Alans, who moved on into North Africa without leaving much permanent mark on Hispanic culture. The Visigothic Kingdom shifted its capital to Toledo and reached a high point during the reign of Leovigild.

Importantly, Spain never saw a decline in interest in classical culture to the degree observable in Britain, Gaul, Lombardy and Germany. The Visigoths tended to maintain more of the old Roman institutions, and they had a unique respect for legal codes that resulted in continuous frameworks and historical records for most of the period between 415, when Visigothic rule in Spain began, and 711, when it is traditionally said to end. The proximity of the Visigothic kingdoms to the Mediterranean and the continuity of western Mediterranean trade, though in reduced quantity, supported Visigothic culture. Arian Visigothic nobility kept apart from the local Catholic population. The Visigothic ruling class looked to Constantinople for style and technology while the rivals of Visigothic power and culture were the Catholic bishops— and a brief incursion of Byzantine power in Córdoba.

The period of rule by the Visigothic Kingdom saw the spread of Arianism briefly in Spain.[26] In 587, Reccared, the Visigothic king at Toledo, having been converted to Catholicism put an end to dissension on the question of Arianism and launched a movement in Spain to unify the various religious doctrines that existed in the land. The Council of Lerida in 546 constrained the clergy and extended the power of law over them under the blessings of Rome.



Greatest extent of the Visigothic Kingdom of Toulouse, c. 500, showing Territory lost after Vouillé in light orange.

The Visigoths inherited from Late Antiquity a sort of feudal system in Spain, based in the south on the Roman villa system and in the north drawing on their vassals to supply troops in exchange for protection. The bulk of the Visigothic army was composed of slaves, raised from the countryside. The loose council of nobles that advised Spain's Visigothic kings and legitimized their rule was responsible for raising the army, and only upon its consent was the king able to summon soldiers.

The impact of Visigothic rule was not widely felt on society at large, and certainly not compared to the vast bureaucracy of the Roman Empire; they tended to rule as barbarians of a mild sort, uninterested in the events of the nation and economy, working for personal benefit, and little literature remains to us from the period. They did not, until the period of Muslim rule, merge with the Spanish population, preferring to remain separate, and indeed the Visigothic language left only the faintest mark on the modern languages of Iberia. The most visible effect was the depopulation of the cities as they moved to the countryside. Even while the country enjoyed a degree of prosperity when compared to the famines of France and Germany in this period, the Visigoths felt little reason to contribute to the welfare, permanency, and infrastructure of their people and state. This contributed to their downfall, as they could not count on the loyalty of their subjects when the Moors arrived in the 8th century.[27]

Muslim Era—al-Andalus (8th–15th centuries)

Main articles: Muslim conquests, Umayyad conquest of Hispania, Al-Andalus, and Reconquista

The Arab Islamic conquest dominated most of North Africa by 640 AD. In 711 an Islamic Arab and Berber raiding party, led by Tariq ibn-Ziyad, was sent to Iberia to intervene in a civil war in the Visigothic Kingdom. Crossing the Strait of Gibraltar, they won a decisive victory in the summer of 711 when the Visigothic King Roderic was defeated and killed on July 19 at the Battle of Guadalete. Tariq's commander, Musa bin Nusair quickly crossed with substantial reinforcements, and by 718 the Muslims dominated most of the Iberian Peninsula. The advance into Western Europe was stopped in north-central France by the West Germanic Franks under Charles Martel at the Battle of Tours in 732.

A decisive victory for the Christian kingdoms took place at Covadonga, Asturias, in the summer of 722. Known as the Battle of Covadonga, the Muslims were stopped by a king, Pelagius of Asturias, who started the monarchy of the Kingdom of Asturias (which later developed into the Kingdom of Castilla). The battle was one of the first stages of the Reconquista.

Caliph Al-Walid I paid great attention to the expansion of an organized military, building the strongest navy in the Umayyad Caliphate (second major Arab dynasty after Mohammad and the first Arab dynasty of Al-Andalus) era. It was this tactic that supported the ultimate expansion to Spain. Caliph Al-Walid I's reign is considered as the apex of Islamic power[*citation needed*], though Islamic power in Spain specifically climaxed in the tenth century under Abd-ar-Rahman III.[28]

The rulers of Al-Andalus were granted the rank of Emir by the Umayyad Caliph Al-Walid I in Damascus. Emir Abd-ar-rahman I challenged the Abbasids. The Umayyad Caliphate, with origin in Hejaz, Arabian peninsula *or Emirate* was overthrown by the Abbasid Caliphate *or Emirate* (second Arab dynasty), some of the remaining Umayyad leaders escaped to Castile and declared Córdoba an independent emirate. Al-Andalus was rife with internal conflict between the Islamic Umayyad rulers and people and the Christian Visigoth-Roman leaders and people.

In the 10th century Abd-ar-rahman III, from Hejaz, Arabian peninsula, grandson of the last caliph of Damascus, Syria declared the Caliphate of Córdoba, effectively breaking all ties with the Egyptian and Syrian caliphs. The Caliphate was mostly concerned with maintaining its power base in North Africa, but these possessions eventually dwindled to the Ceuta province. The first navy of the Caliph of Córdoba *or Emir* was built after the humiliating Viking ascent of the Guadalquivir in 844 when they sacked Seville. In 942, pagan Magyars (present day Hungary) raided across Europe as far west as Al-Andalus.[29] Meanwhile, a slow but steady migration of Christian subjects to the northern kingdoms in Christian Hispania was slowly increasing the latter's power. Even so, Al-Andalus remained vastly superior to all the northern kingdoms combined in population, economy and military might; and internal conflict between the Christian kingdoms contributed to keep them relatively harmless.[*citation needed*]



Limits of the Kingdom of Castile and Kingdom of Aragon in 1210.

Al-Andalus coincided with *La Convivencia*, an era of relative religious tolerance, and with the Golden age of Jewish culture in the Iberian Peninsula. (See: Emir Abd-ar-Rahman III 912 ; the Granada massacre 1066).[30]

Muslim interest in the peninsula returned in force around the year 1000 when Al-Mansur (known as *Almanzor*), sacked Barcelona (985). Under his son, other Christian cities were subjected to numerous raids.[31] After his son's death, the caliphate plunged into a civil war and splintered into the so-called "Taifa Kingdoms". The Taifa

kings competed against each other not only in war, but also in the protection of the arts, and culture enjoyed a brief upswing. The Taifa kingdoms lost ground to the Christian realms in the north and, after the loss of Toledo in 1085, the Muslim rulers reluctantly invited the Almoravides, who invaded Al-Andalus from North Africa and established an empire. In the 12th century the Almoravid empire broke up again, only to be taken over by the Almohad invasion, who were defeated in the decisive battle of Las Navas de Tolosa in 1212.

Medieval Spain was the scene of almost constant warfare between Muslims and Christians. The Almohads, who had taken control of the Almoravids' Maghribi and Andalusian territories by 1147, far surpassed the Almoravides in fundamentalist outlook, and they treated the *dhimmis* harshly. Faced with the choice of death, conversion, or emigration, many Jews and Christians left.[32] The Christian kingdoms to the North had also, at times, treated Muslims harshly. The treatment towards Jews at this time in Iberia varied greatly between and within the different Muslim and Christian kingdoms. By the mid-13th century Emirate of Granada was the only independent Muslim realm in Spain, which would last until 1492. Despite the decline in Muslim-controlled kingdoms, it is important to note the lasting effects exerted on the peninsula by Muslims in technology, culture, and society.

The Kings of Aragón ruled territories that consisted of not only the present administrative region of Aragon but also Catalonia, and later the Balearic Islands, Valencia, Sicily, Naples and Sardinia (see Crown of Aragon). Considered by most to have been the first mercenary company in Western Europe, the Catalan Company proceeded to occupy the Duchy of Athens, which they placed under the protection of a prince of the House of Aragon and ruled until 1379.[33]

Dynastic Union



Iberian polities circa 1360

As the *Reconquista* continued over the years, small parts of the Iberian Peninsula were captured from the Moors at any one time. These small parts were formed into individual Christian kingdoms and principalities.[34] Within these individual principalities popular laws and customs were engendered which distributed the political power to the various local nobles. In this way political power was distributed and not concentrated in the royalty of Spain.[35] Additionally, the merchants in the towns of the interior of Spain grew in wealth and position during this time. Based in the interior towns and cities of Spain, the merchants caused the towns and cities to develop an independence from the Spanish throne.[35]

The Cortes, now bicameral, dates from 1188, when first established in the Kingdom of León. At first dominated by nobles in the rural regions of Spain, the Cortes by the fourteenth century saw its greatest power exercised by the growing towns.[36] Both the independent power of the towns and the independence of the local nobles were circumstances of the Spanish feudal structure, which limited the power of the royal throne.[35]

In the 15th century, the most important among all of the separate kingdoms that made up the country of Spain were the Kingdoms of Castile (occupying northern and central portions of the Iberian Peninsula) and Aragon (occupying northeastern portions of the peninsula). The rulers of these two kingdoms were allied with dynastic families in Portugal, France, and other neighboring kingdoms. The death of Henry IV in 1474 set off a struggle

for power between contenders for the throne of Castile, including Joanna La Beltraneja, supported by Portugal and France, and Queen Isabella I, supported by the Kingdom of Aragon, and by the Castilian nobility. Isabella married King Ferdinand II of Aragon in 1469.[37] Following the death of her half-brother, Henry IV, King of Castile in 1474 and the resulting War of the Castilian Succession, Isabella retained the throne, and ruled jointly with her husband, King Ferdinand II pursuant to an agreement signed by Isabella and Ferdinand on January 15, 1474.[38] Under the terms of this agreement, Isabella held more authority over the newly unified Spain than her husband, although their rule was shared.[38]

Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon were known as the "Catholic Monarchs" (Spanish: *los Reyes Católicos*), a title bestowed on them by Pope Alexander VI. They married in 1469 in Valladolid, uniting both crowns and setting the stage for the creation of the Kingdom of Spain, at the dawn of the modern era. That union, however, was a union in title only, as each region retained its own political and judicial structure, and even today Spain remains internally divided. The monarchs also oversaw the final stages of the Reconquista of Iberian territory from the Moors with the conquest of Granada, conquered the Canary Islands and expelled the Jews and Muslims from Spain under the Alhambra decree, though Muslim (Morisco) culture remained influential. They authorized the expedition of Christopher Columbus, who became the first known European to reach the New World since Leif Ericson, which led to an influx of wealth into Spain, supplementing income from within Castile for the state that would prove to be a dominant power of Europe for the next two centuries.

Isabella ensured long-term political stability in Spain by arranging strategic marriages for each of her five children. Her firstborn, a daughter named Isabella, married Alfonso of Portugal, forging important ties between these two neighboring countries and hopefully to ensure future alliance, but Isabella soon died before giving birth to an heir. Juana, Isabella's second daughter, married into the Habsburg dynasty when she wed Philip the Handsome, the son of Maximilian I, King of Bohemia (Austria) and entitled to the crown of the Holy Roman Emperor. This ensured alliance with the Habsburgs and the Holy Roman Empire, a powerful, far-reaching territory that assured Spain's future political security. Isabella's first and only son, Juan, married Margaret of Austria, further maintaining ties with the Habsburg dynasty. Her fourth child, Maria, married Manuel I of Portugal, strengthening the link forged by her older sister's marriage. Her fifth child, Catherine, married Henry VIII, King of England and was mother to Queen Mary I.

Although until the 13th century religious minorities (Jews and Muslims) had enjoyed considerable tolerance in Castilla and Aragon - the only Christian kingdoms where Jews were not restricted from any professional occupation - the situation of the Jews collapsed over the 14th century, reaching a climax in 1391 with large scale massacres in every major city, with the exception of Ávila. Over the next century, half of the estimated 200,000 Spanish Jews converted to Christianity (becoming "conversos"). The final step was taken by the Catholic Monarchs, who, in 1492, ordered the remaining Jews to convert or face expulsion from Spain. Depending on different sources, the number of Jews actually expelled is estimated to be anywhere from 40,000 to 120,000 people. Over the following decades, Muslims faced the same fate and about 60 years after the Jews, they were also compelled to convert ("moriscos") or be expelled. Jews and Muslims were not the only people to be persecuted during this time period. Gypsies also endured a tragic fate: all Gypsy males were forced to serve in galleys between the age of 18 and 26 - which was equivalent to a death sentence - but the majority managed to hide and avoid arrest.

The Spanish language and universities

In the 13th century, there were many languages spoken in the Christian sections of what is now Spain, among them Castilian, Aragonese, Catalan, Basque, Galician, Aranese, Asturian and Leonese. But throughout the century, Castilian (what is also known today as Spanish) gained more and more prominence in the Kingdom of Castile as the language of culture and communication. One example of this is the *El Cid*. In the last years of the reign of Ferdinand III of Castile, Castilian began to be used for certain types of documents, but it was during the

reign of Alfonso X that it became the official language. Henceforth all public documents were written in Castilian, likewise all translations were made into Castilian instead of Latin.

Furthermore, in the 13th century many universities were founded in León and in Castile, some, like those of the Leonese Salamanca and the Castilian Palencia were among the earliest universities in Europe. In 1492, under the Catholic Monarchs, the first edition of the *Grammar of the Castilian Language* by Antonio de Nebrija was published.



This 16th-century Spanish carpet shows stylistic influences from Europe and the Islamic world. Collections of the Textile Museum.

Imperial Spain

Main article: Spanish Empire

See also: Habsburg Spain

The Spanish Empire was one of the first modern global empires. It was also one of the largest empires in world history. In the 16th century, Spain and Portugal were in the vanguard of European global exploration and colonial expansion. The two kingdoms on the conquest and Iberian Peninsula competed with each other in opening of trade routes across the oceans. Spanish imperial conquest and colonization began with two Castilian expeditions. The first was an expedition of a Castilian fleet led by a Genoese, Lanzarotto Malocello. The second was another expedition in 1402 led by French adventurers, Jean de Bethancourt, Lord of Grainville in Normandy and Gadifer de la Salle of Poitou.[39] In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, trade flourished across the Atlantic between Spain and the Americas and across the Pacific between East Asia and Mexico via the Philippines. Conquistadors deposed the Aztec, Inca and Maya governments with extensive help from local factions and laid claim to vast stretches of land in North and South America. For a time, the Spanish Empire dominated the oceans with its experienced navy and ruled the European battlefield with its fearsome and well trained infantry, the famous *tercios*: in the words of the prominent French historian Pierre Vilar, "enacting the most extraordinary epic in human history". Spain enjoyed a cultural golden age in the 16th and 17th centuries.



A map of the Spanish and Portuguese Empires in the period of Iberian Union under the personal union of the Spanish monarchs (1580–1640).

This American empire was at first a disappointment, as the natives had little to trade, though settlement did encourage trade. The diseases such as smallpox and measles that arrived with the colonizers devastated the native populations, especially in the densely populated regions of the Aztec, Maya and Inca civilizations, and this reduced economic potential of conquered areas.[40]

In the 1520s, large-scale extraction of silver from the rich deposits of Mexico's Guanajuato began, to be greatly augmented by the silver mines in Mexico's Zacatecas and Bolivia's Potosí from 1546. These silver shipments re-oriented the Spanish economy, leading to the importation of luxuries and grain. They also became indispensable in financing the military capability of Habsburg Spain in its long series of European and North


Columbus setting foot in the New World

African wars, though, with the exception of a few years in the 17th century, Spain itself (Castile in particular) was by far the most important source of revenue. The financial burden within the peninsula was on the backs of the peasant class while the nobility enjoyed an increasingly lavish lifestyle. From the time beginning with the incorporation of the Portuguese Empire in 1580 (lost in 1640) until the loss of its American colonies in the 19th century, Spain maintained the largest empire in the world even though it suffered fluctuating military and economic fortunes from the 1640s. Confronted by the new experiences, difficulties and suffering created by empire-building, Spanish thinkers formulated some of the first modern thoughts on natural law, sovereignty, international law, war, and economics; there were even questions about the legitimacy of imperialism – in related schools of thought referred to collectively as the School of Salamanca. Despite these innovations, many motives for the empire were rooted in the Middle Ages. Religion played a very strong role in the spread of the Spanish empire. The thought that Spain could bring Christianity to the new world certainly played a strong role in the expansion of Spain's empire.[*citation needed*]

Spanish Kingdoms under the Habsburgs (16th–17th centuries)

Main article: Habsburg Spain

Spain's powerful world empire of the 16th and 17th centuries reached its height and declined under the Habsburgs. The Spanish Empire reached its maximum extent in Europe under Charles I of Spain, as he was also Emperor Charles V of the Holy Roman Empire.


Charles I of Spain (better known in the English-speaking world at the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V) was the most powerful European monarch of his day.[41]

Charles V became king in 1516, and the history of Spain became even more firmly enmeshed with the dynastic struggles in Europe. The king was not often in Spain, and as he approached the end of his life he made provision for the division of the Habsburg inheritance into two parts: on the one hand Spain, and its possessions in the Mediterranean and overseas, and the Holy Roman Empire itself on the other. The Habsburg possessions in the Netherlands also remained with the Spanish crown.

This was to prove a difficulty for his successor Philip II of Spain, who became king on Charles V's abdication in 1556. Spain largely escaped the religious conflicts that were raging throughout the rest of Europe, and remained firmly Roman Catholic. Philip saw himself as a champion of Catholicism, both against the Ottoman Turks and the heretics. In the 1560s, plans to consolidate control of the Netherlands led to unrest, which gradually led to the Calvinist leadership of the revolt and the Eighty Years' War. This conflict consumed much Spanish expenditure, and led to an attempt to conquer England – a cautious supporter of the Dutch – in the unsuccessful Spanish Armada, an early battle in the Anglo-Spanish War (1585–1604) and war with France (1590–1598).

Despite these problems, the growing inflow of American silver from mid 16th century, the justified military reputation of the Spanish infantry and even the navy quickly recovering from its Armada disaster, made Spain the leading European power, a novel situation of which its citizens were only just becoming aware. The Iberian Union with Portugal in 1580 not only unified the peninsula, but added that country's worldwide resources to the Spanish crown. However, economic and administrative problems multiplied in Castile, and the weakness of the native economy became evident in the following century: rising inflation, financially draining wars in Europe, the

ongoing aftermath of the expulsion of the Jews and Moors from Spain, and the growing dependency of Spain on the gold and silver imports, combined to cause several bankruptcies that caused economic crisis in the country, especially in heavily burdened Castile.

The coastal villages of Spain and of the Balearic Islands were frequently attacked by Barbary pirates from North Africa. Formentera was even temporarily left by its population. This occurred also along long stretches of the Spanish and Italian coasts, a relatively short distance across a calm sea from the pirates in their North African lairs. The most famous corsair was the Turkish Barbarossa ("Redbeard"). According to Robert Davis between 1 million and 1.25 million Europeans were captured by North African pirates and sold as slaves in North Africa and Ottoman Empire between the 16th and 19th centuries This was gradually alleviated as Spain and other Christian powers began to check Muslim naval dominance in the Mediterranean after the 1571 victory at Lepanto, but it would be a scourge that continued to afflict the country even in the next century.[42]

The great plague of 1596–1602 killed 600,000 to 700,000 people, or about 10% of the population. Altogether more than 1,250,000 deaths resulted from the extreme incidence of plague in 17th century Spain.[43] Economically, the plague destroyed the labor force as well as creating a psychological blow to an already problematic Spain.[44]

Philip II died in 1598, and was succeeded by his son Philip III, in whose reign a ten year truce with the Dutch was overshadowed in 1618 by Spain's involvement in the European-wide Thirty Years' War. Government policy was dominated by favorites, but it was also the reign in which the geniuses of Cervantes and El Greco flourished.



Map of Europe in 1648, after the Peace of Westphalia.

Philip III was succeeded in 1621 by his son Philip IV of Spain. Much of the policy was conducted by the minister Gaspar de Guzmán, Count-Duke of Olivares. In 1640, with the war in central Europe having no clear winner except the French, both Portugal and Catalonia rebelled. Portugal was lost to the crown for good, in Italy and most of Catalonia, French forces were expelled and Catalonia's independence suppressed. In the reign of Philip's developmentally disabled son and successor Charles II, Spain was essentially left leaderless and was gradually being reduced to a second-rank power.

The Habsburg dynasty became extinct in Spain and the War of the Spanish Succession ensued in which the other European powers tried to assume control of the Spanish monarchy. King Louis XIV of France eventually "won" the War of Spanish Succession, and control of Spain passed to the Bourbon dynasty but the peace deals that followed included the relinquishing of the right to unite the French and Spanish thrones and the partitioning of Spain's European empire.

The Golden Age (*Siglo de Oro*)

Main article: Spanish Golden Age

The Spanish Golden Age (in Spanish, *Siglo de Oro*) was a period of flourishing arts and letters in the Spanish Empire (now Spain and the Spanish-speaking countries of Latin America), coinciding with the political decline and fall of the Habsburgs (Philip III, Philip IV and Charles II). It is interesting to note how arts during the Golden Age flourished despite the decline of the empire in the 17th century. The last great writer of the age, Sor Juana Inés de la Cruz, died in New Spain in 1695.[45]

The Habsburgs, both in Spain and Austria, were great patrons of art in their countries. *El Escorial*, the great

royal monastery built by King Philip II, invited the attention of some of Europe's greatest architects and painters. Diego Velázquez, regarded as one of the most influential painters of European history and a greatly respected artist in his own time, cultivated a relationship with King Philip IV and his chief minister, the Count-Duke of Olivares, leaving us several portraits that demonstrate his style and skill. El Greco, a respected Greek artist from the period, settled in Spain, and infused Spanish art with the styles of the Italian renaissance and helped create a uniquely Spanish style of painting. Some of Spain's greatest music is regarded as having been written in the period. Such composers as Tomás Luis de Victoria, Luis de Milán and Alonso Lobo helped to shape Renaissance music and the styles of counterpoint and polychoral music, and their influence lasted far into the Baroque period.



Toledo by El Greco

Spanish literature blossomed as well, most famously demonstrated in the work of Miguel de Cervantes, the author of *Don Quixote de la Mancha*. Spain's most prolific playwright, Lope de Vega, wrote possibly as many as one thousand plays over his lifetime, over four hundred of which survive to the present day.

Enlightenment: Spain under the Bourbons (18th century)

Main article: Enlightenment Spain

Charles II, having no direct heir, was succeeded by his great-nephew Philip V, a French prince. Concern among other European powers that Spain and France united under a single Bourbon monarch would upset the balance of power led to the War of Spanish Succession between 1701 and 1714. It pitted powerful France and weak Spain against the Grand Alliance of England, the Netherlands and Austria. After many battles, especially in Spain, the Grand Alliance finally won.[46]

Philip V signed the *Decreto de Nueva Planta* in 1715, a new law that revoked most of the historical rights and privileges of the different kingdoms that formed the Spanish Crown, specially Crown of Aragon, unifying them under the laws of Castile, where the Cortes had been more receptive to the royal wish.[47] Spain became culturally and politically a follower of absolutist France. Lynch says Philip V advanced the government only marginally over that of his predecessors and was more of a liability than the incapacitated Charles II. When a conflict came up between the interests of Spain and France, he usually favored France. However Philip did make some reforms in government, and strengthened the central authorities relative to the provinces. Merit became more important, although most senior positions still went to the landed aristocracy. Below the elite level inefficiency and corruption was as widespread as ever. The reforms started by Philip V culminated in much more important reforms of Charles III.[48] The economy, on the whole, improved over the depressed 1650–1700 era, with greater productivity, and fewer famines and epidemics.[49]

The rule of the Spanish Bourbons continued under Ferdinand VI and Charles III. Elisabeth of Parma, Philip V's widow, exerted great influence on Spain's foreign policy. Her principal aim was to have Spain's lost territories in Italy restored. She eventually received Franco-British support for this after the Congress of Soissons.[50]

Under the rule of Charles III and his ministers, Leopoldo de Gregorio, Marquis of Esquilache and José Moñino, Count of Floridablanca, Spain embarked on a program of enlightened despotism that brought Spain a new prosperity in the middle of the 18th century. Fearing that Britain's victory over France in the Seven Years War threatened the European balance of power, Spain allied themselves to France but suffered a series of military defeats and ended up having to cede Florida to the British at the Treaty of Paris. Despite losing alongside France

against the British in the Seven Years' War, Spain recouped most of her territorial losses in the American Revolutionary War, and gained an improved international standing.



An 18th century map of the Iberian Peninsula

However, the reforming spirit of Charles III was extinguished in the reign of his son, Charles IV, seen by some as mentally handicapped. Dominated by his wife's lover, Manuel de Godoy, Charles IV embarked on policies that overturned much of Charles III's reforms. After briefly opposing Revolutionary France early in the French Revolutionary Wars, Spain was cajoled into an uneasy alliance with its northern neighbor, only to be blockaded by the British. Charles IV's vacillation, culminating in his failure to honour the alliance by neglecting to enforce the Continental System led to Napoleon I, Emperor of the French, invading Spain in 1808, thereby triggering Spain's War of Independence.



Attacking Spanish infantry (about 1740)

During most of the 18th century Spain had arrested its relative decline of the latter part of the 17th century. But despite the progress, it continued to lag in the political and mercantile developments then transforming other parts of Europe, most notably in Great Britain, the Low Countries and France. The chaos unleashed by the Napoleonic intervention would cause this gap to widen greatly.

Napoleonic Wars: War of Spanish Independence (1808–1814)

Main article: Peninsular War

See also: Spanish American wars of independence



The Third of May 1808 by Francisco Goya, showing Spanish resisters being executed by Napoleon's troops.

Spain initially sided against French in the Napoleonic Wars, but the defeat of her army early in the war led to Charles IV's pragmatic decision to align with the revolutionary French. Spain was put under a British blockade, and her colonies—for the first time separated from their colonial rulers—began to trade independently with Britain. The defeat of the British invasions of the River Plate in South America emboldened an independent attitude in Spain's American colonies. A major Franco-Spanish fleet was annihilated, at the decisive Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, prompting the vacillating king of Spain to reconsider his alliance with France. Spain broke off from the Continental System temporarily, and Napoleon—aggravated with the Bourbon kings of Spain—invaded Spain in 1808 and deposed Ferdinand VII, who had just been on the throne forty-eight days after his father's abdication in March 1808. On July 20, 1808, Joseph Bonaparte, eldest brother of Napoleon Bonaparte, entered Madrid and established a government by which he became King of Spain—serving as a surrogate for Napoleon.[51]

The Spanish monarchy may have been destroyed but the people of Spain vigorously resisted Napoleon's attempt to conquer his former ally.[52] *Juntas* were formed all across Spain that pronounced themselves in favor of Ferdinand VII. On September 26, 1808, a Central Junta was formed in the town of Aranjuez to coordinate the

nationwide struggle against the French.[53] Initially, the Central Junta declared support for Ferdinand VII, and convened a "General and Extraordinary Cortes" for all the kingdoms of the Spanish Monarchy. On February 22 and 23, 1809, a popular insurrection against the French occupation broke out all over Spain.[54]

The Cortes assembled on September 24, 1810 on the Isle of Leon.[55] The Cortes removed itself to Cádiz on February 20, 1811.[56] On March 19, 1812, the Cádiz Cortes created the first modern Spanish constitution, the Constitution of 1812 (informally named *La Pepa*). This constitution provided for a separation of the powers of the executive and the legislative branches of government. The Cortes was to be elected by universal suffrage —albeit by an indirect method. Each member of the Cortes was to represent 70,000 people.[57] Members of the Cortes were to meet in annual sessions. King was prevented from either convening or proroguing the Cortes. Members of the Cortes were to serve single two-year terms. They could not serve consecutive terms. They could only serve a second term by allowing someone else to serve a single intervening term in office.

This attempt at the development of a modern constitutional government from 1808 until 1814, became known as the first bourgeois revolution in Spain.[58] Leaders of the liberals or reformist forces during this revolution were Jose Menino, Count of Floridablanca, Gaspar Melchor de Jovellanos and Pedro Rodriguez, Conde de Campomanes.[59] Born in 1728, Floridablanca was eighty years of age at the time of the revolutionary outbreak in 1808. He had served as Prime Minister under King Charles III of Spain from 1777 until 1792.[60] Now he served as President of the Central Junta.[61] However, he tended to be suspicious of the popular spontaneity.[62] Consequently, Floridablanca tended to prevent development of the revolution.[63]

Born in 1744, Jovellanos was somewhat younger than Floridablanco. A writer and follower of the philosophers of the Enlightenment tradition of the previous century, Jovellanos had served as Minister of Justice from 1797–1798 under King Charles IV of Spain.[64] Now, Jovellanos commanded a substantial and influential group within the Central Junta.[65] However, Jovellanos had been imprisoned by Manuel de Godoy, Duke of Alcudia, who had served as Prime Minister of Spain and virtually ran the country as a dictator from 1792 until 1798 and from 1801 until 1808.[66] Accordingly, even Jovellanos tended to by somewhat overly cautious in his approach to the revolutionary upsurge that was sweeping Spain in 1808.

The Spanish Army tried to fight the French invasion in the traditional "set-piece" style of warfare. They lost every battle they fought with the French. After the disastrous battle of Ocana fought on November 19, 1809, the Spanish Army confined itself to guerilla warfare against the French.[67] However, it was the Spanish people, themselves, that really led the fight in carrying out the guerilla war against the French. In this war, Spain was aided by the British and Portuguese, led by the Duke of Wellington. The duke of Wellington fought Napoleon's forces in the Peninsular War, with Joseph Bonaparte ruling as Napoleon's surrogate king at Madrid. The brutal war was one of the first guerrilla wars in modern Western history; French supply lines stretching across Spain were mauled repeatedly by Spanish guerrillas. The war in the Iberian Peninsula fluctuated repeatedly, with Wellington spending several years behind his fortresses in Portugal while launching occasional campaigns into Spain. The French were decisively defeated at the Battle of Vitoria in 1813, and the following year, Ferdinand VII was restored as King of Spain.

Spain in the nineteenth century (1814–1873)

Main article: Mid-nineteenth century Spain

Although the *juntas*, that had forced the French to leave Spain, had sworn by the liberal Constitution of 1812, Ferdinand VII openly believed that it was too liberal for the country. On his return to Spain on April 16, 1814,[68] he refused to swear by the constitution himself, and he continued to rule in the authoritarian fashion of

his forebears.[69] Thus, the first bourgeois revolution ended in 1814.[58]

The Constitution of 1812 had eliminated all discrimination in the American colonies between the Spaniards who were born in Spain and those Spanish citizens that happened to be born in the colonies of New Spain. Consequently, although Spain accepted the rejection of the Constitution, the rejection of the Constitution was not as calmly accepted in Spain's empire in the New World. Revolution broke out in the colonies of "New Spain" in the Americas in 1820. Spain, nearly bankrupt from the war with France and the reconstruction of the country, was unable to pay her soldiers, and in 1819 was forced to sell Florida to the United States for 5 million dollars. In 1820, an expedition intended for the colonies (which, at the time, were on the verge of being lost themselves, to rebels and the Monroe Doctrine) revolted in Cadiz. When armies throughout Spain pronounced themselves in sympathy with the revolters, led by Rafael del Riego, Ferdinand relented and was forced to accept the liberal Constitution of 1812. This was the start of the second bourgeois revolution in Spain, which would last from 1820–1823.[70] Once again in the revolution of 1820, it was the independent towns that led the drive for constitutional change in Spain.[71] Ferdinand himself was placed under effective house arrest for the duration of the liberal experiment.

The tumultuous three years of liberal rule that followed were marked by various absolutist conspiracies. The liberal government, which reminded European statesmen entirely too much of the governments of the French Revolution, was looked on with hostility by the Congress of Verona in 1822, and France was authorized to intervene. France crushed the liberal government with massive force in the so-called Spanish expedition, and Ferdinand was restored as absolute monarch in 1823, marking the end of the second Spanish bourgeois revolution. In the American colonies of New Spain, however, revolutions led to independence. In 1824, the last Spanish army on the American mainland was defeated at the Battle of Ayacucho in southern Peru. Only Cuba and Puerto Rico remained.

In Spain, the failure of the revolution was followed by a period of uneasy peace for the next decade. Having borne only a female heir presumptive, it appeared that Ferdinand would be succeeded by his brother, Infante Carlos of Spain. While Ferdinand aligned with the conservatives, fearing another national insurrection, he did not view the reactionary policies of his brother as a viable option. Ferdinand — resisting the wishes of his brother — decreed the Pragmatic Sanction of 1830, enabling his daughter Isabella to become Queen. Carlos, who made known his intent to resist the sanction, fled to Portugal.

Ferdinand's death in 1833 and the accession of Isabella (only three years old at the time) as Queen of Spain sparked the First Carlist War. Carlos invaded the Basque country in the north of Spain and attracted support from absolutist reactionaries and conservatives. These forces were known as the "Carlist" forces. Isabella's mother, Maria Cristina of Bourbon-Two Sicilies, was named regent until her daughter came of age. The supporters of reform and of limitations on the absolutist rule of the Spanish throne rallied behind Isabella and the regent, Maria Christina. These reformists were called "Cristinos."

Though Cristino resistance to the insurrection seemed to have been overcome by the end of 1833, Maria Cristina's forces suddenly drove the Carlist armies from most of the Basque country. Carlos then named the Basque general Tomás de Zumalacárregui his commander-in-chief. Zumalacárregui resuscitated the Carlist cause, and by 1835 had driven the Cristino armies to the Ebro River and transformed the Carlist army from a demoralized band into a professional army of 30,000 of quality superior to the government forces.

Zumalacárregui's death in 1835 changed the Carlists' fortunes. The Cristinos found a capable general in Baldomero Espartero. His victory at the Battle of Luchana (1836) turned the tide of the war, and in 1839, the Convention of Vergara put an end to the first Carlist insurrection. The period of time from 1834 until 1843 is known as Spain's third bourgeois revolution.[72]

Espartero, operating on his popularity as a war hero and his sobriquet "Pacifier of Spain", demanded liberal reforms from Maria Cristina. The Queen Regent, who resisted any such idea, preferred to resign and let Espartero become regent instead. Espartero's liberal reforms were then opposed by moderates, and the former general's heavy-handedness caused a series of sporadic uprisings throughout the country from various quarters, all of which were bloodily suppressed. He was overthrown as regent in 1843 by Ramón María Narváez, a moderate, who was in turn perceived as too reactionary. Another Carlist uprising, the Matiners' War, was launched in 1846 in Catalonia, but it was poorly organized and suppressed by 1849.

Isabella II of Spain took a more active role in government after she came of age, but she was immensely unpopular throughout her reign. She was viewed as beholden to whoever was closest to her at court, and to care little for the people of Spain. As a result there was a fourth bourgeois revolutionary insurrection in the summer of 1854.[73] This uprising began in the spring of 1854 as expressions of dissatisfaction on the part of the people against the government.[74] The people were protesting the growing economic hardship under which they had been suffering. On June 28, 1854, a military coup occurred in Madrid.[74] The military coup was led by General Domingo Dulce y Garay and General Leopoldo O'Donnell y Jarris. Their coup overthrew the dictatoriship of Luis Jose Sartorius, 1st Count of San Luis. As the result of the popular insurrection, the Progresista Party obtained widespread support in Spain and came to power in the government in 1854.[75]

In 1856, Isabella attempted to form a pan-national coalition, the Union Liberal, under the leadership of Leopoldo O'Donnell who had already marched on Madrid that year and deposed another Espartero ministry. Isabella's plan failed and cost Isabella more prestige and favor with the people.
In 1860, Isabella launched a successful war against Morocco, waged by generals O'Donnell and Juan Prim that stabilized her popularity in Spain. However, a campaign to reconquer Peru and Chile during the Chincha Islands War proved disastrous and Spain suffered defeat before the determined South American powers.

In 1866, a revolt led by Juan Prim was suppressed, but in 1868 there was a further revolt, known as the Glorious Revolution. The *progresista* generals Francisco Serrano and Juan Prim revolted against Isabella and defeated her *moderado* generals at the Battle of Alcolea. Isabella was driven into exile in Paris.

Two years of revolution and anarchy followed, until in 1870 the Cortes declared that Spain would again have a king. Amadeus of Savoy was selected, and duly crowned King of Spain early the following year. This selection of the King of Spain turned out to play an important role in European and world history, since France opposed a German prince's candidacy to the Spanish throne, and this served as the immediate motive for the Franco-Prussian War. Amadeus — a liberal who swore by the liberal constitution the Cortes promulgated — was faced immediately with the incredible task of bringing the disparate political ideologies of Spain to one table. The country was plagued by internecine strife, not merely between Spaniards but within Spanish parties.

First Spanish Republic (1873–1874)

Main article: First Spanish Republic

Following the Hidalgo affair, Amadeus famously declared the people of Spain to be ungovernable, and fled the country. In his absence, a government of radicals and Republicans was formed that declared Spain a republic. The republic was immediately under siege from all quarters. The Carlists were the most immediate threat, launching a violent insurrection after their poor showing in the 1872 elections. There were calls for socialist revolution from the International Workingmen's Association, revolts and unrest in the autonomous regions of Navarre and Catalonia, and pressure from the Catholic Church against the fledgling republic.[76]

The Restoration (1874–1931)

Main article: Spain under the Restoration

Although the former queen, Isabella II was still alive, she recognized that she was too divisive as a leader, and abdicated in 1870 in favor of her son, Alfonso, who was duly crowned Alfonso XII of Spain. After the tumult of the First Spanish Republic, Spaniards were willing to accept a return to stability under Bourbon rule. The Republican armies in Spain — which were resisting a Carlist insurrection — pronounced their allegiance to Alfonso in the winter of 1874–1875, led by Brigadier General Martínez-Campos. The Republic was dissolved and Antonio Cánovas del Castillo, a trusted advisor to the king, was named Prime Minister on New Year's Eve, 1874. The Carlist insurrection was put down vigorously by the new king, who took an active role in the war and rapidly gained the support of most of his countrymen.[77]

A system of *turnos* was established in Spain in which the liberals, led by Práxedes Mateo Sagasta and the conservatives, led by Antonio Cánovas del Castillo, alternated in control of the government. A modicum of stability and economic progress was restored to Spain during Alfonso XII's rule. His death in 1885, followed by the assassination of Canovas del Castillo in 1897, destabilized the government, though constitutional monarchy continued under King Alfonso XIII.[78]

Disaster of 1898

Cuba rebelled against Spain in the Ten Years' War beginning in 1868, resulting in the abolition of slavery in Spain's colonies in the New World. American interests in the island, coupled with concerns for the people of Cuba, aggravated relations between the two countries. The explosion of the USS *Maine* launched the Spanish-American War in 1898, in which Spain fared disastrously. Cuba gained its independence and Spain lost its remaining New World colony, Puerto Rico, which together with Guam and the Philippines were ceded to the United States for 20 million dollars. In 1899, Spain sold its remaining Pacific islands—the Northern Mariana Islands, Caroline Islands and Palau—to Germany and Spanish colonial possessions were reduced to Spanish Morocco, Spanish Sahara and Spanish Guinea, all in Africa.[79]

The "disaster" of 1898 created the Generation of '98, a group of statesmen and intellectuals who demanded liberal change from the new government. However both Anarchism on the left and fascism on the right grew rapidly in Spain in the early 20th century. A revolt in 1909 in Catalonia was bloodily suppressed.[80] Jensen (1999) argues that the defeat of 1898 led many military officers to abandon the liberalism that had been strong in the officer corps and turn to the right. They interpreted the American victory in 1898 as well as the Japanese victory against Russia in 1905 as proof of the superior value of willpower and moral values over technology. Over the next three decades, Jensen argues, these values shaped the outlook of Francisco Franco and other Falangists.[81]

World War I

Spain's neutrality in World War I allowed it to become a supplier of material for both sides to its great advantage, prompting an economic boom in Spain. The outbreak of Spanish influenza in Spain and elsewhere, along with a major economic slowdown in the postwar period, hit Spain particularly hard, and the country went into debt. A major worker's strike was suppressed in 1919.

Mistreatment of the indigenous population in Spanish Morocco led to an uprising and the loss of this North African possession except for the enclaves of Ceuta and Melilla in 1921. (See Muhammad Ibn 'Abd al-Karim al-Khattabi, Annual). In order to avoid accountability, King Alfonso XIII decided to support the dictatorship of General Miguel Primo de Rivera, ending the period of constitutional monarchy in Spain.

In joint action with France, the Moroccan territory was recovered (1925–1927), but in 1930 bankruptcy and

massive unpopularity left the king no option but to force Primo de Rivera to resign. Disgusted with the king's involvement in his dictatorship, the urban population voted for republican parties in the municipal elections of April 1931. The king fled the country without abdicating and a republic was established.

Second Spanish Republic (1931–1939)

Main article: Second Spanish Republic

See also: Catholicism in the Second Spanish Republic

Under the Second Spanish Republic, women were allowed to vote in general elections for the first time. The Republic devolved substantial autonomy to the Basque Country and to Catalonia.

The first governments of the Republic, were center-left, headed by Niceto Alcalá-Zamora, and Manuel Azaña. Economic turmoil, substantial debt inherited from the Primo de Rivera regime, and fractious, rapidly changing governing coalitions led to serious political unrest. In 1933, the right-wing Spanish Confederation of the Autonomous Right (CEDA) won power; an armed rising of workers of October 1934, which reached its greatest intensity in Asturias and Catalonia, was forcefully put down by the CEDA government. This in turn energized political movements across the spectrum in Spain, including a revived anarchist movement and new reactionary and fascist groups, including the Falange and a revived Carlist movement.

Spanish Civil War (1936–1939)

Main article: Spanish Civil War

In the 1930s, Spanish politics were polarized at the left and right of the political spectrum. The left-wing favored class struggle, land reform, autonomy to the regions and reduction in church and monarchist power. The right-wing groups, the largest of which was CEDA, a right wing Roman Catholic coalition, held opposing views on most issues. In 1936, the left united in the Popular Front and was elected to power. However, this coalition, dominated by the centre-left, was undermined both by the revolutionary groups such as the anarchist Confederación Nacional del Trabajo (CNT) and Federación Anarquista Ibérica (FAI) and by anti-democratic far-right groups such as the Falange and the Carlists. The political violence of previous years began to start again. There were gunfights over strikes, landless labourers began to seize land, church officials were killed and churches burnt. On the other side, right wing militias (such as the Falange) and gunmen hired by employers assassinated left wing activists. The Republican democracy never generated the consensus or mutual trust between the various political groups that it needed to function peacefully. As a result, the country slid into civil war. The right wing of the country and high ranking figures in the army began to plan a coup, and when Falangist politician José Calvo-Sotelo was shot by Republican police, they used it as a signal to act.[82]

On 17 July 1936, General Francisco Franco led the colonial army from Morocco to attack the mainland, while another force from the north under General Sanjurjo moved south from Navarre. Military units were also mobilised elsewhere to take over government institutions. Franco's move was intended to seize power immediately, but successful resistance by Republicans in places such as Madrid, Barcelona, Valencia, the Basque country and elsewhere meant that Spain faced a prolonged civil war. Before long, much of the south and west was under the control of the Nationalists, whose regular Army of Africa was the most professional force available to either side. Both sides received foreign military aid, the Nationalists, from Nazi Germany, Fascist Italy and Portugal, the Republic from organised far-left volunteers in the International Brigades.

The Siege of the Alcázar at Toledo early in the war was a turning point, with the Nationalists winning after a long siege. The Republicans managed to hold out in Madrid, despite a Nationalist assault in November 1936, and

frustrated subsequent offensives against the capital at Jarama and Guadalajara in 1937. Soon, though, the Nationalists began to erode their territory, starving Madrid and making inroads into the east. The north, including the Basque country fell in late 1937 and the Aragon front collapsed shortly afterwards. The bombing of Guernica was probably the most infamous event of the war and inspired Picasso's painting. It was used as a testing ground for the German Luftwaffe's Condor Legion. The Battle of the Ebro in July–November 1938 was the final desperate attempt by the Republicans to turn the tide. When this failed and Barcelona fell to the Nationalists in early 1939, it was clear the war was over. The remaining Republican fronts collapsed and Madrid fell in March 1939.[83]

The war, which cost between 300,000 to 1,000,000 lives, ended with the destruction of the Republic and the accession of Francisco Franco as dictator of Spain. Franco amalgamated all the right wing parties into a reconstituted Falange and banned the left-wing and Republican parties and trade unions.[84]

The conduct of the war was brutal on both sides, with massacres of civilians and prisoners being widespread. After the war, many thousands of Republicans were imprisoned and up to 151,000 were executed between 1939 and 1943. Many other Republicans remained in exile for the entire Franco period.

The dictatorship of Francisco Franco (1936–1975)

Main article: Francoist Spain

During Franco's rule, Spain was officially neutral in World War II and remained largely economically and culturally isolated from the outside world. Under a right-wing military dictatorship, Spain saw its political parties banned, except for the official party (Falange). Labor unions were banned and all political activity using violence or intimidation to achieve its goals was forbidden.

Under Franco, Spain actively sought the return of Gibraltar by the UK, and gained some support for its cause at the United Nations. During the 1960s, Spain began imposing restrictions on Gibraltar, culminating in the closure of the border in 1969. It was not fully reopened until 1985.

Spanish rule in Morocco ended in 1967. Though militarily victorious in the 1957–1958 Moroccan invasion of Spanish West Africa, Spain gradually relinquished its remaining African colonies. Spanish Guinea was granted independence as Equatorial Guinea in 1968, while the Moroccan enclave of Ifni had been ceded to Morocco in 1969.

The latter years of Franco's rule saw some economic and political liberalization, the Spanish Miracle, including the birth of a tourism industry. Spain began to catch up economically with its European neighbors.[85]

Franco ruled until his death on 20 November 1975, when control was given to King Juan Carlos.[86] In the last few months before Franco's death, the Spanish state went into a paralysis. This was capitalized upon by King Hassan II of Morocco, who ordered the 'Green March' into Western Sahara, Spain's last colonial possession.

Spain since 1975

Main article: History of Spain (1975–present)

Transition to democracy

Main article: Spanish transition to democracy

The Spanish transition to democracy or new Bourbon restoration was the era when Spain moved from the dictatorship of Francisco Franco to a liberal democratic state. The transition is usually said to have begun with Franco's death on 20 November 1975, while its completion is marked by the electoral victory of the socialist PSOE on 28 October 1982.

Between 1978 and 1982, Spain was led by the *Unión del Centro Democrático* governments.

In 1981 the 23-F coup d'état attempt took place. On 23 February Antonio Tejero, with members of the Guardia Civil entered the Congress of Deputies, and stopped the session, where Leopoldo Calvo Sotelo was about to be named prime minister of the government. Officially, the coup d'état failed thanks to the intervention of King Juan Carlos. Spain joined NATO before Calvo-Sotelo left office.

Along with political change came radical change in Spanish society. Spanish society had been extremely conservative under Franco, but the transition to democracy also began a liberalization of values and societal mores.

Modern Spain

Main article: Modern Spain

From 1982 until 1996, the social democratic PSOE governed the country, with Felipe González as prime minister. In 1986, Spain joined the European Economic Community (EEC, now European Union), and the country hosted the 1992 Barcelona Olympics and Seville Expo '92.

In 1996, the centre-right *Partido Popular* government came to power, led by José María Aznar. On 1 January 1999, Spain exchanged the *peseta* for the new Euro currency. The peseta continued to be used for cash transactions until January 1, 2002. On 11 March 2004 a number of terrorist bombs exploded on busy commuter trains in Madrid during the morning rush-hour days before the general election, killing 191 persons and injuring thousands. Although José María Aznar and his ministers were quick to accuse ETA of the atrocity, soon afterwards it became apparent that the bombing was the work of an extremist Islamic group linked to Al-Qaeda. Many people believe that the fact that qualified commentators abroad were beginning to doubt the official Spanish version the very same day of the attacks while the government insisted on ETA's implication directly influenced the results of the election. Opinion polls at the time show that the difference between the two main contenders had been too close to make any accurate prediction as to the outcome of the elections. The election, held three days after the attacks, was won by the PSOE, and José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero replaced Aznar as prime minister.

On 3 July 2005, the country became the first country in the world to give full marriage and adoption rights to homosexual couples (Belgium has allowed same-sex marriage since 2003 and co-parenting since April 2006, and the Netherlands has allowed same-sex marriage since 2001 and now has a law in preparation to provide full adoption rights in equal conditions to opposite-sex marriages).

At present, Spain is a constitutional monarchy, and comprises 17 autonomous communities (Andalucía, Aragón, Asturias, Islas Baleares, Islas Canarias, Cantabria, Castile and León, Castile–La Mancha, Cataluña, Extremadura, Galicia, La Rioja, Community of Madrid, Region of Murcia, País Vasco, Comunidad Valenciana, Navarra) and two autonomous cities (Ceuta and Melilla).

See also

- Black Legend

- Economic history of Spain
- Global Empire
- History of Europe
- History of European Union
- History of France
- History of Morocco
- History of Portugal
- List of Prime Ministers of Spain
- List of heads of state of Spain
- List of Spanish wars
- Ottoman-Habsburg wars
- Politics of Spain
- Spanish architecture
- Spanish Empire
- Spanish Armada in Ireland
- Timeline of the Muslim presence in the Iberian peninsula

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Monarchy of Spain

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Monarchy of Spain**, constitutionally referred to as **The Crown** and commonly referred to as the **Spanish monarchy** or (historically) **Hispanic Monarchy**, is a constitutional institution and a historic office of Spain.[1] The monarchy comprises a reigning King or Queen of Spain, their family, and the royal household organization which supports and facilitates the monarch in the exercise of his royal duties and prerogatives.[2][3][4] The monarchy is currently represented by King Juan Carlos I, his wife Queen Sofia, and their children and grandchildren.[2][4] Opinion polls routinely reveal that the monarchy remains popular by a wide majority of citizens in contemporary Spain,[5] with as many as 75% of Spanish citizens ranking the monarchy above any other public institution in the country.[6] In 2010, the budget for the Spanish monarchy was 7.4 million euros, one of the lowest public expenditures for the institution of monarchy in Europe.[7][8]

King of Spain

MONARCHY



Arms of His Majesty the King of Spain



Incumbent:
Juan Carlos I

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Felipe, Prince of Asturias
First monarch:	Carlos I of Spain
Formation:	1516
Residence:	Royal Palace of Madrid

The Spanish Constitution of 1978 reestablished [1][9] a constitutional monarchy as the form of government for Spain. The 1978 constitution affirmed the role of the King of Spain as the personification and embodiment of the Spanish State and a symbol of Spain's enduring unity and permanence.[2][10] Constitutionally, the king is the head-of-state and commander-in-chief of the Spanish Armed Forces.[2][10] The constitution codifies the use of royal styles and titulary, royal prerogatives, hereditary succession to the crown, compensation, and a regency-guardianship contingency in cases of the monarch's minority or incapacitation.[2][10] According to the constitution, the monarch is also instrumental in promoting Ibero-American relations, the "nations of its historical community".[2][10] In this capacity, the King of Spain serves as the president of the Ibero-American States Organization, representing over 700,000,000 people in twenty-four member nations worldwide. In 2008, Juan Carlos I was considered the most popular leader in all Ibero-America.[6][11]

The Spanish monarchy has its roots in the Visigothic Kingdom founded in Spain and Aquitainia[12] in the 5th century, and its Christian successor states which fought the Reconquista following the Umayyad invasion of Hispania in the 8th century. A dynastic marriage between Isabel I of Castile and Ferdinand II of Aragon united Spain in the 15th century. The Spanish Empire became one of the first global powers as Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand funded Christopher Columbus's exploratory voyage across the Atlantic Ocean. This led to the rediscovery of America by Europeans, which became the focus of Spanish colonization. Juan Carlos I, current King of Spain, is descended directly from Robert of Hesbaye (770-807) through the male line, thus making the Spanish Royal Line the longest lived in the world, second only to the Japanese.

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History



Dynastic line from the first Visigothic kings to Juan Carlos I.

The Spanish monarchy has its roots in the Visigothic Kingdom and its Christian successor states of Navarra, Asturias and Aragon, which fought the *Reconquista* or Reconquest of the Iberian peninsula following the Umayyad invasion of Hispania in the 8th century. One of the earliest influential dynasties was the House of Jiménez which united much of Christian Iberia under its leadership in the 11th century. From Sancho III of Navarre (r. 1000-1035) until Urraca of León and Castile (r.1106-1125), members of the Jiménez family claimed the historic Visigothic title *Imperator totius Hispaniae* or *Emperor of All Spain*. The Jiménez rulers sought to bring their kingdoms into the European mainstream and often engaged in cross-Pyrenees alliances and marriages, and became patrons to Cluniac Reforms (c. 950–c.1130). Uracca's son and heir Alfonso VII of León and Castile, the first of the Spanish branch of the Burgundy Family, was the last to claim the imperial title *of Spain*, but divided his empire among his sons. The Castilian Civil War (1366 to 1369) ended with the death of King Peter (r. 1334-1369) at the hands of his illegitimate half-brother Henry, 1st Count of Trastámara who ruled as Henry II (r. 1369–1379). Henry II became the first of the House of Trastámara to rule over a Spanish kingdom. King Peter's heiress, his granddaughter Catherine of Lancaster, married Henry III, reuniting the dynasties in the person of their son, King John II.

In the 15th century, the marriage between Isabel I of Castile and Ferdinand II of Aragon, both members of the House of Trastámara, known as the Catholic Monarchs, united most of the Iberian peninsula. In 1492 the Catholic Monarchs conquered the Kingdom of Granada in southern Spain, the last moorish territory in the Iberian peninsula. This date marks the unification of Spain.

In the early 16th century, the Spanish monarchy controlled several territories in Europe under the Habsburg King Charles I (also Holy Roman Emperor as Charles V), son of Queen Joanna of Castile. His reign ushered in the Spanish Golden Age (1492–1659) a period of great colonial expansion and trade. In 1700, Charles II, the last of the Spanish Habsburgs, designated his sister Maria Theresa's grandson, Philip of France, Duke of Anjou, as his heir. The possible unification of Spain with France sparked the Spanish War of Succession in the 18th century, culminating in the treaties of Utrecht (1713) and Rastatt (1714) which preserved the European balance of power. Philip V was the first member of the House of Bourbon (Spanish: *Borbón*) to rule Spain, the dynasty that still rules today under Juan Carlos I.

During the Napoleonic Wars, the French Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte forced Ferdinand VII to abdicate in 1808 and the Bourbons became a focus of popular resistance against French rule. However, Ferdinand's rejection of the liberal Spanish Constitution of 1812, his ministerial appointments, particularly the exclusion of liberals, gradually eroded popular support for the Spanish monarchy. With the Pragmatic Sanction of 1830, Ferdinand set aside the Salic Law, introduced by Philip V, that prohibited women from becoming sovereigns of Spain. Thereby, as had been customary before the arrival of the Bourbons, the King's eldest daughter Isabella became his heiress presumptive. Opponents of the Pragmatic Sanction argued that it was never officially promulgated, claiming the King's younger brother, Prince Carlos, the rightful heir to the Crown according to the Salic Law.

Thus began a series of civil wars known as the Carlist Wars, named after the Carlists, who supported Prince Carlos' claim. Queen Isabel II, whose main support came from centrists and moderates, was beset by Carlisti forces on the extreme right and radicals on the extreme left. Faced with these challenges, Isabel's rule became increasingly reactionary in her dealings with the polorized Cortes, and her authoritarian rule became increasingly dependent on the army. Isabella II's reliance on the military eroded her popular support from the moderates and centrists until 1868 when she was forced to abdicate. In September 1873 the First Spanish Republic was founded.

A coup d'état restored the Borbón dynasty to the throne in 1874. However, in 1931 local and municipal elections produced victories (particularly in urban areas) for candidates favoring an end to the monarchy and the establishment of a republic. Faced with unrest in the cities, King Alfonso XIII went into exile, but did not abdicate. The ensuing provisional government evolved into the relatively short-lived Second Spanish Republic. The Spanish Civil War began in 1936 and ended on 1 April 1939 with the victory of General Francisco Franco and his coalition of allied organizations commonly referred to as the Nationalists.

General Franco ruled Spain as Regent to the King of Spain. However, without a king on the throne, he ruled through a coalition of allied organizations from the Spanish Civil War including, but not limited to, the fascist Falange political party, the supporters of the Borbon royal family, and the Carlists, until his death in 1975. Despite Franco's alliance with the Carlists, Franco appointed Juan Carlos I de Borbón as his successor, who is credited with presiding over Spain's transition from dictatorship to democracy by fully endorsing political reforms.

Impatient with the pace of democratic reforms, the new king, known for his formidable personality, dismissed Carlos Arias Navarro and appointed the reformer Adolfo Suárez as President of the Government in 1977.[13][14]

The next year the king signed into law the new liberal democratic Constitution of Spain, which was approved by 88% of voters. Juan Carlos' "quick wit and steady nerve" cut short the attempted military coup in 1981 when the king used a specially designed command communications center in the Zarzuela Palace to denounce the coup and command the military's eleven captain-generals to stand down.[15]

Following the events of 1981, Juan Carlos has led a less eventful life, according to author John Hooper.[15] The king does not preside over ceremonies such as the opening of hospitals and bridges as often as monarchs in other nations. Instead, he has worked towards establishing reliable political customs when transitioning one government administration to another, emphasizing constitutional law and protocol, and representing the Spanish State domestically and internationally, all the while maintaining a professionally non-partisan yet independent monarchy.[6][15]

The Crown, constitution, and royal prerogatives

The historic Crown of Spain, (*la Corona de España*) with its roots in the Visigothic kingdom from the 5th century and subsequent successor states, is recognized in Title II *The Crown*, Articles 56 through 65 of the Spanish Constitution of 1978.[1] Constitutionally the monarch embodies and personifies the unity and permanace of the Spanish State, and represents the legal personality of the State and by extension fulfills the role of "Father of the Nation". As a unifying figure for the nation, in 2010 King Juan Carlos worked towards "bridging the gap" between Spain's rival polarized political parties to develop a unified strategy in response to the country's on-going late-2000's economic crisis.[6]

According to the Spanish Constitution voted in referendum, the sovereignty power emanates from the people, so it's the very same people who give the king the power to reign:[2][4]

> National sovereignty belongs to the Spanish people, from whom all State powers emanate.
>
> —Title I, Article 2, the Spanish Constitution of 1978[16]

The monarch "arbitrates and moderates the regular functioning of the institutions" and assumes the highest representation of the Spanish State in international relations.[1] The monarch exercises the functions expressly conferred on him by the constitution and the laws.[2][4]

> The King is Head of State, the symbol of its unity and permanence. He arbitrates and moderates the regular functioning of the institutions, assumes the highest representation of the Spanish State in international relations, especially with the nations of its historical community, and exercises the functions expressly conferred on him by the Constitution and the laws.
>
> —Title II *the Crown*, Article 56, the Spanish Constitution of 1978[17]

Upon accession to the crown and being proclaimed before the Cortes Generales, the king swears an oath to faithfully carry out his constitutional duties and to abide by the constitution and laws of the state. Additionally, the constitution gives the king the added responsibility to ensure that the constitution is obeyed. Lastly, the king swears to respect the rights of Spanish citizens and of the self governing communities. The Prince of Asturias, upon reaching the age of majority, in addition to any regent(s) upon assuming the office, swears the same oath as that of the king along with a further oath of loyalty to the monarch.

> (1) The King, on being proclaimed before the Cortes Generales, will swear to faithfully carry out his duties, to obey the Constitution and the laws and ensure that they are obeyed, and to respect the rights of the citizens and the Self-governing Communities (2) The Crown Prince, on coming of age, and the Regent or Regents, on assuming office, will swear the same oath as well as that of loyalty to the King.
>
> —Title II *The Crown*, Article 61, the Spanish Constitution of 1978

The oath reads as follows:

> “ I swear faithfully to discharge my functions, to sustain and see to it that the Constitution and the Laws are sustained, and to respect the rights of the citizens and of the autonomous communities. ”

The 1978 Constitution, Title II *The Crown*, Article 62, delineates the powers of the king, while Title IV *Government and Administration*, Article 99, defines the king's role in government.[2][4][18] Title VI *Judicial Power*, Article 117, Articles 122 through 124, outlines the king's role in the country's independent judiciary.[19] However, by constitutional convention established by Juan Carlos I, the king exercises his prerogatives having solicited government advice while maintaining a politically non-partisan and independent monarchy. Receiving government advice does not necessarily bind the monarch into executing the advice, except where prescribed by the constitution.

> It is incumbent upon the King:
>
> - a. To Sanction and promulgate the laws
> - b. To summon and dissolve the Cortes Generales and to call for elections under the terms provided for in the Constitution.
> - c. To Call for a referendum in the cases provided for in the Constitution.
> - e. To appoint and dismiss members of the Government on the President of the Government's proposal.
> - f. To issue the decrees approved in the Council of Ministers, to confer civil and military honours and distinctions in conformity with the law.
> - g. To be informed of the affairs of State and, for this purpose, to preside over the meetings of the Council of Ministers whenever, he sees fit, at the President of the Government's request.
> - h. To exercise supreme command of the Armed Forces
> - i. To exercise the right of clemency in accordance with the law, which may not authorize general pardons.
> - j. To exercise the High Patronage of the Royal Academies.
>
> —Title II *The Crown*, Article 62, the Spanish Constitution of 1978[2][4]

Styles, titles, and the 'Fount of Honour'

See also: List of titles and honours of the Spanish Crown, Spanish nobility, and List of military decorations#Spain

The 1978 constitution confirms the title of the monarch is *King of Spain*, but that he may also use other titles historically associated with the Crown.[2][4][20] The titles used by Alfonso XIII before his exile in 1931 which, with this provision of the constitution, the king is entitled to use include:

> *His Catholic Majesty, the King of Spain, King of Castile, of León, of Aragón, of the Two Sicilies, of Jerusalem, of Navarre, of Granada, of Seville, of Toledo, of Valencia, of Galicia, of Sardinia, of Córdoba, of Corsica, of Murcia, of Jaén, of the Algarves, of Algeciras, of Gibraltar, of the Canary Islands, of the East and West Indies, of the Islands and Mainland of the Ocean Sea; Archduke of Austria; Duke of Burgundy, of Brabant, of Milan, of Athens and Neopatria; Count of Habsburg, of Flanders, of Tyrol, of Roussillon, and of Barcelona; Lord of Biscay and of Molina; Captain-General and Supreme Commander of the Royal Armed Forces; Sovereign Grand-Master of the Order of the Golden Fleece and of the orders awarded by the Spanish state.*
>
> —*Title II* The Crown, *Article 56 (2), the Spanish Constitution of 1978.*[2][4][20]


Royal Standard

According to the royal decree published in 1987, the king and the queen consort will formally be addressed as "His Majesty and Her Majesty" (*Their Majesties*, Spanish: *Su Majestad*, *Su* represents *His or Her*) rather than the traditional "Catholic Majesty" (*Su Católica Majestad*). A prince consort of a regnant Queen of Spain will have the style "His Royal Highness" (*Su Alteza Real*).[4] Additionally, a widowed and unmarried queen consort, now a queen dowager, will continue to be addressed as "Her Majesty".[4] A widowed and unmarried prince consort will continue to be addressed as "His Royal Highness".[4] The heir from birth shall hold the title of Prince of Asturias and the other titles historically associated with the heir apparent.[2][4] These additional titles include *Prince of Viana*, historically associated with the heir apparent to the Kingdom of Navarre; with the titles *Prince of Girona* and *Duke of Montblanc* historically associated with the heir apparent for the Crown of Aragon, among others. Other children of the monarch, and the children of the heir apparent, shall have the title and rank of Infante or Infanta (prince or princess), and styled *His or Her Royal Highness* (*Su Alteza Real*).[4] Children of an Infante or Infanta of Spain "shall have the consideration of Spanish Grandees", and the address of "Your Excellency".[4] The royal decree further limits the ability of any regent to use or create titles during the minority or incapacitation of a monarch.[4] No further constitutional language prescribes titles or forms of address to the fourth generation, or great grandchildren, of a reigning monarch.

The monarch's position as the "Fount of honour" within Spain is codified in Article 62 (f); It is incumbent upon the monarch to "[...] confer civil and military positions and award honors and distinctions in conformity of the law".[2][21] According to the Spanish Ministry of Justice, nobility and grandee titles are created by the "sovereign grace of the king", and may be passed on to the recipient's heirs, who may not sell the title.[21] Titles may revert back to the Crown when their vacancy is observed.[21] Succession of titles may follow one of several courses listed on the *Title of Concession* when the title is created.[21] As a general rule, most titles are now inherited by absolute Cognatic Primogeniture (as of 2006), in which the first born inherits all titles regardless of gender. However, a title holder may designate his successor, *Succession by Assignment*, or disperse his titles among his children – with the eldest getting the highest ranking title, *Succession by Distribution*.[21]


The insignia of the Order of Charles III.

The king awarded peerages to two of his former prime ministers who have retired from active politics: Adolfo Suárez, who was created 1st Duke of Suárez; and Leopoldo Calvo-Sotelo who was created 1st Marquess of la Ría de Ribadeo. The king's third prime minister Felipe González declined a title, while José María Aznar's tenure was mired in controversies making a peerage unlikely.[22][23][24][25] All successive politicians remain active within politics.

The king grants military and civil orders and awards of distinction, customarily on the advice of government. The most distinguished order the king may award is the Order of Charles III to "citizens who, with their effort, initiative and work, have brought a distinguished and extraordinary service to the Nation".[26][27] The Laureate Cross of Saint Ferdinand is Spain's highest military award for gallantry. Other historic awards and distinctions include the Spanish Order of the Golden Fleece, the Order of Isabella the Catholic, the Order of Alfonso X, the Order of Marie Louise, the Order of Saint Raimundo de Penafort, the Order of Military Merit, the Order of Naval Merit, the Order of Aerial Merit, the Order of Civil Merit, the Order of Cultural Merit, the Order of Calatrava, the Order of the Knights of Santiago, the Order of Sant Jordi d'Alfama, and the Order of Alcántara, among others.

Inviolablity and lèse majesté

The Spanish monarch is personally immune from prosecution for acts committed by government ministers in the king's name.[2][4] This legal convention mirrors the concept of sovereign immunity which evolved in similar constitutional monarchies. The legal concept of sovereign immunity evolved into other aspects of immunity law in similar liberal democracies, such as parliamentary immunity, judicial immunity, and qualified immunity in the United States.

> The Person of the King of Spain is inviolable and shall not be held accountable. His acts shall always be countersigned in the manner established in section 64. Without such countersignature they shall not be valid, except as provided under section 65(2).
>
> —Title II *The Crown*, Article 56, the Spanish Constitution of 1978.[2][4][28]

The concept of lèse majesté (*lesa majestad*) exists in Spanish jurisprudence, which is the crime or offense violating the dignity of the head-of-state or the State itself. According to Article 56 of the 1978 Constitution the monarch and the dignity of the Spanish State are one and the same: "The King is Head of State, the symbol of its unity and permanence".[2][4] Breaching Spain's *lèse majesté* laws may carry fines and up to two years in prison.[29] The concept is within the same legal sphere as legislation prohibiting flag desecration in other democratic countries. Additionally, *lèse majesté*

extends to any foreign heads-of-state visiting Spain, and other members of the royal family, and to the Spanish President of the Government as the king's appointed officer.

The Spanish satirical magazine *El Jueves* was fined for violation of Spain's *lèse majesté* laws after publishing an issue with a caricature of the Prince and Princess of Asturias engaging in sexual intercourse on their cover in 2007.[30] In 2008, 400 Catalonia separatists burned images of the king and queen in Madrid,[31] and in 2009 two Galician separatists were fined for burning effigies of the king.[32]

Succession and regency



Statue of Queen Urraca in the Parque del Buen Retiro in Madrid. Urraca succeeded as queen in 1108, becoming Europe's first queen regnant.

According to Article 57 the Crown of Spain is inherited by the successors of King Juan Carlos I de Borbón through *male preference primogeniture*[2][4] Article 57 is also significant in that it omits entirely the Franconist era designation of Juan Carlos as Franco's successor.[1] While drafting the new constitution, lawyer and liberal congressman Joaquín Satrústegui (1909–1992) insisted that the phrase *the legitimate heir of the historic dynasty* be included in the text to underscore that the monarchy was an historic institution predating the constitution or the prior regime.[1] Additionally, Satrústegui was "anxious to remove" notions that the constitutional monarchy had any Francoist origins, according to author Charles Powell.[1]

> The Crown of Spain shall be inherited by the successors of HM Juan Carlos I de Borbón, the legitimate heir of the historic dynasty. Succession to the throne shall follow the regular order of primogeniture and representation, the first line having preference over subsequent lines; and within the same line the closer grade over the more remote; and within the same grade the male over female, and in the same sex, the elder over the younger..
>
> —Title II *the Crown*, Article 57 (1), the Spanish Constitution of 1978.[2][4][33]

Male preference cognatic primogeniture has been practiced in Spain since the 11th century in the various Visigothic successor states and codified in the *Siete Partidas*, with women able to inherit in certain circumstances.[34] However, with the succession of Philip V in 1700, the first of the Spanish Bourbons, women were barred from succession until Ferdinand VII reintroduced the right and designated his eldest daughter Isabella as his heiress presumptive by 1833.

With the birth of Infanta Leonor of Spain on 31 October 2005 to the Prince and Princess of Asturias, President Zapatero reaffirmed his government's intention to amend the Spanish constitution by introducing full and equal cognatic primogeniture, also known in French as *aînesse intégrale*, which is a gender neutral succession law already adopted in Norway, Sweden, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Denmark. Zapatero's proposal was supported by the leader of the main opposition party, the conservative Partido Popular, making its passage likely. The rights of the current heir apparent Felipe, Prince of Asturias, would be maintained. With full or equal cognatic primogentiture, the first born would be the heir apparent regardless of gender. Paving the way, in 2006 the king issued a decree reforming the succession to noble titles from male preference primogeniture to absolute and equal cognatic primogeniture.[21] However, as succession to the Crown is codified explicitly in the constitution, its reform mandates an amendment to the constitution, a somewhat more complicated process than issuing a royal decree. Prince Felipe has counseled reformers that there is plenty of time before the constitutional amendment would need to be enacted as he is next in line, and after him his daughters.

If all lines designated by law become extinct, the constitution reserves the right for the Cortes Generales to provide for the succession "in the manner most suitable for Spain".[2][4] The 1978 constitution disinherits members of the royal family from succession if they marry against the expressed prohibition of the monarch and the Cortes Generales, as well as their descendants.[2][4] Lastly, Article 57 further provides that "Abdications and renunciations and any doubt in fact or in law that may arise in connection with the succession to the Crown shall be settled by an organic act".[2]

Constitutionally, the current heirs of Juan Carlos I;[2][4][35]

1. HRH The Prince of Asturias, son of King Juan Carlos.
2. HRH The Infanta Leonor, elder daughter of The Prince and Princess of Asturias
3. HRH The Infanta Sofía, younger daughter of The Prince and Princess of Asturias
4. HRH The Infanta Elena, Duchess of Lugo, eldest daughter of King Juan Carlos.
5. HE Felipe Juan Froilán de Marichalar y de Borbón, son of Infanta Elena.
6. HE Victoria Federica de Marichalar y de Borbón, daughter of Infanta Elena.
7. HRH The Infanta Cristina, Duchess of Palma de Mallorca, younger daughter of King Juan Carlos.
8. HE Juan Urdangarín y de Borbón, eldest son of Infanta Cristina.
9. HE Pablo Urdangarín y de Borbón, middle son of Infanta Cristina.
10. HE Miguel Urdangarín y de Borbón, youngest son of Infanta Cristina.
11. HE Irene Urdangarín y de Borbón, daughter of Infanta Cristina.

The constitution outlines the regency of the monarchy and guardianship of the person of the monarch in the event of his minority or incapacitation.[2][4] The office of Regent(s) and the Guardianship of the monarch (whether the monarch is in his minority or incapacitated), may not necessarily be the same person. In the event of the minority of the monarch, the surviving mother or father, or oldest relative of legal age who is nearest in line to the throne, would immediately assume the office of Regent, who in any case must be Spanish.[2][4] If a monarch becomes incapacitated, and that incapacitation is recognized by the Cortes Generales, then the Prince of Asturias (the heir apparent), shall immediately become Regent, if he is of age. If the Prince of Asturias is himself a minor, then the Cortes Generals shall appoint a Regency which may be composed of one, three, or five

persons.[2][4] The person of the king in his minority shall fall under the guardianship of the person designated in the will of the deceased monarch, provided that he or she be of age and of Spanish nationality.[2][4] If no guardian has been appointed in the will, then the father or mother will then assume the guardianship, as long as they remain widowed. Otherwise, the Cortes Generales shall appoint both the Regent(s) and the guardian, who in this case may not be held by the same person, except by the father or mother of direct relation of the king.[2][4]

The king, the government, and the Cortes Generales

The constitution defines the government's responsibilities.[18] The government consists of the President of the Government and ministers of state. The government conducts domestic and foreign policy, civil and military administration, and the defense of the nation all in the name of the king. Additionally, the government exercises executive authority and statutory regulations.[18] The most direct prerogative the monarch exercises in the formation of Spanish governments is in the nomination and appointment process of the President of the Government (*Presidente del Gobierno de España*).[18][36][37] Following the General Election of the Cortes Generales (*Cortes*), and other circumstances provided for in the constitution, the king meets with and interviews the political party leaders represented in the Cortes, and then consults with the Speaker of the Congress (who, in this instance, represents the *whole* of the Cortes Generalas).



A copy of the Spanish Constitution, signed by King Juan Carlos, is held at the Palace of the Cortes.

- (1) *After each renewal of the Congress and the other cases provided for under the Constitution, the King shall, after consultation with the representatives appointed by the political groups with parliamentary representation, and through the Speaker of the Congress, nominate for the Presidency of the Government.*
- (2) *The candidate nominated in accordance with the provisions of the foregoing subsection shall submit to the Congress the political program of the Government he or she intends to form and shall seek the confidence of the House.*

—Title II *Government and Administration*, Article 99 (1) & (2), the Spanish Constitution of 1978.[2][18][38]

Constitutionally, the monarch may nominate anyone he sees fit as his prerogative. However, it remains pragmatic for him to nominate the person most likely to enjoy the confidence of the Cortes and form a government, usually the political leader whose party commands the most seats in the Cortes.[18] For the Crown to nominate the political leader whose party controls the Cortes can be seen as a royal endorsement of the democratic process, a fundamental concept enshrined in the 1978 constitution. By political custom, the king's nominees have all been from parties who hold the most seats in the Cortes. The king is normally able announce his nominee the day following a General Election.

The king's nominee is presented before the Cortes by the Speaker where the nominee and his political agenda are debated and submitted for a Vote of Confidence (*Cuestión de confianza*) by the Cortes.[18] A simple majority confirms the nominee and his program.[18] After the nominee is deemed confirmed by the Speaker of the Congress of Deputies, the king appoints him as the new President of the Government in a ceremony performed at the *Salón de Audiencias* in the la Zarzuela Palace, the official residence of the king.[18] During the inauguration ceremony, the President of the Government takes an oath of office over an open Constitution next to the Holy Bible. The oath as taken by President Zapatero on his second term in office on 17 April 2004 was;[39]:

> I swear, under my conscience and honor, to faithfully execute the duties of the office of President of the Government with loyalty to the King, obey and enforce the Constitution as the main law of the State, and preserve in secret the deliberations of the Council of Ministers.
>
> —Oath of office of President Rodríguez Zapatero, given before the king 17, April, 2004, La Zarzeula.[40]

However, if no overall majority was obtained on the first vote of confidence, then the same nominee and program is resubmitted for a second vote within forty-eight hours.[18] Following the second vote, if confidence by the Cortes is still unreached, then the monarch again meets with political leaders and the Speaker, and submits a new nominee for a vote of confidence.[18] If, within two months, no candidate has won the confidence of the Cortes then the king dissolves the Cortes and calls for a new General Election.[18] The king's royal decree is countersigned by the Speaker of the Congress.[18]

In the political life of Spain, the king would already be familiar with the various political leaders in a professional capacity, and perhaps less formally in a more social capacity, facilitating their meeting following a General Election. Conversely, nominating the party leader whose party maintains a plurality and who are already familiar with their party manifesto facilitates a smoother nomination process. In the event of coalitions, the political leaders would customarily have met beforehand to hammer out a coalition agreements before their meeting with the king. Once appointed, the President of the Government forms an administration whose ministers are appointed and removed by the king on the president's advice. No minister may take up his appointment until after they give their oath of office to obey the constitution with loyalty to the king.[1]

As early as 1975, Juan Carlos expressed his view that his role in the government of a "crowned democracy" would be for him to counsel and orient an administration's "thrust in action", but for the government to take the initiative without the need for it to involve the king unnecessarily in its decisions.[1] Therefore, Juan Carlos has abstained from presiding over cabinet meetings except under special occasions or circumstances.[1] Generally, the king presides over cabinet meetings once or twice a year (more regularly if needed) to be directly informed by ministers of non-partisan national and international concerns.[1] However, the king does meet weekly with the President of the Government, usually on Tuesday mornings.[1][41] During the late-2000's economic recession which gripped the nation, the king discretly used his influence to facilitate a bi-partisan

response to the crisis.[6]

Governments and the Cortes sit for a term no longer than four years when the president tenders his resignation to the king and advises the king to dissolve the Cortes, prompting a General Election. It remains within the king's prerogative to dissolve the Cortes if, at the conclusion of the four years, the president has not asked for its dissolution, according to Title II Article 56.[42] The president may call for earlier elections, but no sooner than a year after the prior General Election. Additionally, if the Government loses the confidence of the Cortes, then it must resign. In the event that a president dies or becomes incapacitated while in office, then the government as a whole resigns and the process of royal nomination and appointment takes place. The vice president would take over the day to day operations in the meantime, even while vice president himself may be nominated by the king.

Royal assent, judiciary, and promulgation of the laws

The constitution vests the sanction (Royal Assent) and promulgation (publication) of the laws with the king, while Title III *The Cortes Generals*, Chapter 2 *Drafting of Bills* outlines the method with which bills are passed. According to Article 91, within fifteen days that a bill has been passed by the Cortes Generales, the king shall give his assent and publish the new law. Article 92 invests the king with the right to call for referendum on the advice of the president and the previous authorization of Congress.[2]

No provision within the constitution invests the king with the ability to veto legislation directly, however no provision prohibits the king from withholding royal assent, effectively a veto. When the media asked King Juan Carlos if he would endorse the 2005 bill legalizing gay marriages (the implication implied that he may not endorse the bill), he answered "Soy el Rey de España y no el de Bélgica" ("I am the King of Spain, not of Belgium")– a reference to King Baudouin I of Belgium who had refused to sign the Belgian law legalising abortion in Belgium.[43]

According to Title VI of the constitution, Justice in Spain "emanates from the people and is administered on behalf of the King by judges and magistrates members of the Judicial Power..."[19] It remains a royal prerogative for the king to appoint the twenty members to the General Council of the Judicial Power of Spain (Spain's Supreme Court), and then appoint the President of the Supreme Court nominated by the General Council, according to Article 122, Subsection 3, of the constitution.[2][19] However, by convention the king's nominations have been with the advice of the government of the day.

> The General Council of the Judicial Power shall consist of the President of the Supreme Court, who shall preside over it, and of twenty members appointed by the King for a five-year period, of which twelve shall be judges and magistrates of all the judicial categories, under the terms provided for by the organic act; four nominated by the Congress and four by the Senate, elected in both cases by three-fifths of their members amongst lawyers and other jurists of acknowledged competence with more than fifteen years of professional practice.
>
> —Title VI *Judicial Power*, Article 122 (3).[2][44]

Additionally, the king appoints the State Public Prosecutor on the advice of the government, according to Article 124.[19] The king may grant clemency in accordance with the law, however the king may not authorize a general pardon of government ministers who have been found criminally liable or guilty of treason by the Criminal Article of the Supreme Court, according to Articles 62 and 102.[19]

The king and international diplomacy

Constitutionally the king accredits Spanish ambassadors to international states and governments, and foreign representatives to Spain are accredited before him. However, the government of the day manages diplomatic policy on behalf of the monarch.[2][10] Additionally, it remains the responsibility for the monarch to express the state's assent to international commitments and treaties, which must be in conformity with the Spanish constitution.[2][10]



Members of the Organization of Ibero-American States
King Juan Carlos I serves as president

Juan Carlos followed a foreign policy during the first decade of his kingship coined *Reencounter and Reconciliation*, which greatly improved Spain's standing on the world stage.[1] The king reconciled long standing historic tensions with the Netherlands and cultivated relationships with France and Germany which led directly to Spain's entry into the European Community and into NATO.[1] Following the tensions between Franco and the Papacy over the reforms of the Second Vatican Council, Juan Carlos' personal relations with successive popes greatly improved diplomatic relations between the Holy See and Spain, and with Pope Paul VI blessing Juan Carlos' democratic reforms.[1][45] According to historian Charles Powell, it was the king's goal to win Spain's full acceptance by other European powers.[1] The king, a self described *Europeanist*, was awarded the prestigious Charlemagne Award in 1982 for his steadfast work towards democracy and for supporting European unity.[1] The constitution gives the monarch special responsibility in promoting Spanish relations with members of its historic community, the nations formerly part of the Spanish Empire and also relations with Portugal and Brazil.[2][10] Fulfilling this responsibility, the King of Spain serves as president of the twenty-four member Ibero-American States Organization. With his support of democracy, various elements within Ibero-America political society have sought the king's advice on how to transition from a dictatorship to a democracy.[1] For his efforts, by 2008 the king was voted the most popular leader in all of the Ibero-America community.[11]

The king is assisted in his diplomatic missions by the Foreign Ministry, and high-ranking members of the Foreign Ministry are made available to the

king when he is abroad representing Spain.[46] The Royal Household coordinates with the Foreign Ministry to ensure successful diplomatic engagements. Additionally, other members of the royal family, most notably the Prince of Asturias, may represent the Spanish State internationally. Though the Spanish monarchy is independent of the government, it is important that royal speeches are compatible with government foreign policy to project a unified diplomatic effort. To achieve balance, Royal Household speechwriters confer with the Foreign Ministry to ensure that the official speeches strike the desired diplomatic tone between the king's views and government policy.[1][47][48] When necessary and appropriate, the king and his government may focus on two different aspects in a diplomatic engagement. The king may emphasize one aspect, such as the promotion of democracy and historic relations; while the government focuses on the details of strategic planning and bilateral coordination.

The king and members of the royal family have represented Spain in Europe, Latin America, in the United States and in Canada, nations in the Middle East and North Africa, in China, Japan, the Philippines, Australia, New Zealand and many countries in sub-Sahara Africa. The king and Prince of Asturias have addressed many international organizations which include the United Nations, the institutions of the European Union, the Council of Europe, the Organization of American States, UNESCO, the International Labour Organization, and the Arab League. Since 2000, Prince Felipe has represented Spain in half of all diplomatic engagements.

The king as Commander-in-Chief

The role of the Crown in the Spanish armed forces is rooted in tradition and patriotism as demonstrated in the symbols and the history of the military. The role of the Spanish monarch in the chain of command of the forces is established by the constitution of 1978, and other statutory law (Acts of Parliament, Royal Decrees etc.).[2]



Emblem of Spanish Armed Forces

> It is incumbent upon the King [...] to exercise Supreme Command of the Armed Forces.
> —Title II *The Crown*, Article 62 (H), the Spanish Constitution of 1978.[2]

> The King exercises Supreme Command of the Armed Forces and other powers regarding national defense that are provided for in the constitution and other laws.
> —Title 1 *the Crown*, Article 3, National Defense Act, November 17, 2005

However, Title IV of the constitution vests the administration of the armed forces and formulation of national defense policy with the President of the Government, a civilian authority who is nominated and appointed by the king, confirmed by the elected Congress of Deputies and, as such, is representative of the Spanish people.

Royal Decree #1310 of Oct 5, 2007 requires the National Defence Council to report to the monarch, and that the king is to be the Chairman of the Council when he attends its sessions. The National Defence Council is Spain's highest advisory body on security and defense matters and performs the same basic function as the US National Security Council. King Juan Carlos chaired the first full meeting of the council on Nov 10 2007, at which the newly proposed National Defence Directive was reviewed along with the ongoing peace missions in Afghanistan, Kosovo, Bosnia and Lebanon.[49]



The king inspecting the troops in a military parade, 2009

As Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces, the king holds the highest ranking office in the military chain of command. The king's ranks include Captain General of the Army, the Navy and the Air Force. The king is the only officer in the military to hold this 5 Star General rank. The king takes a keen interest in all aspects of military policy as evidenced by "his direct participation in the life of the Spanish Armed Forces".[50] The king's participation in Spanish military life stems from his constitutional duty to "arbitrate and moderate" the regular working of state institutions. Serving in the armed forces is considered an expectation of the heir apparent, and Juan Carlos served in the various branches of the armed forces before he became king. Likewise, Prince Felipe, Prince of Asturias, has served in the armed forces.

The monarch has made his desire for a strong raport with the armed forces clear in speeches to his officer corp:

> I do not feel a stranger in your company, and my functions are not limited to being your king and to holding the Supreme Command of the Armed Forces. I am also your companion... I feel one more among you... because my youth has been formed, as yours and with many of you, in military academies where virtues are praised and qualities infused which are not modified by time or by the changes that may occur in society [...] In my heart, in all my being, side by side with my love for the country, palpitates military spirit, and I feel always identified with my companions in the army, with your concerns, your sorrows, your satisfactions and your hopes. So when I see you joyful, I am joyful. When I feel You sad, I am sad. And all, absolutely all of your worries, all absolutely all of your problems gravitate on your king and Captain General-your companion-with the same intensity that is felt by you.
> —Juan Carlos Easter Military Address, 1980[51]

Contemporary monarchy

Popularity and criticism

The Spanish monarchy continues to enjoy wide support and popularity by Spanish citizens since its constitutional restoration in 1978, according to Fernando Villespin,[52] president of the *Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas* (CIS, *English: Sociological Research Center*) in 2008.[53][54][55]

According to Villespin, the king's average approval rating of over 70% through the years consistently out-performs those of elected political leaders, and a similar percentage of respondents consider that the king plays an important role in maintaining Spanish democracy.[53] Public trust in Juan Carlos' kingship "comes only behind that of the National Ombudsman," Villespin continued.[53] Members of the royal family are routinely voted among the most respected public figures in Spain,[56] and in 2010 as many as 75% of Spanish citizens ranked the monarchy as "above any other public institution in the country", according to Dr Juan Díez-Nicolás, a former president of the CIS and founder of the private consulting firm ASEP (*Análisis Sociológicos Económicos y Políticos*).[6][57] The CIS, a non-partisan government funded independent research institution, has been researching public opinion of the monarchy since 1984 and tracks three basic lines of inquiry; *what is public confidence in the monarchy, what is the role of the monarchy in a democratic system, and to what degree has the king contributed to the democratic process.*[53]

The king is routinely considered one of the top ten most popular figures in Spain,[6] with as many as 80% of Spanish believing Spain's transition to democracy would not have been made possible without the king's personal intervention.[53] Historian and royal biographer Charles Powell told BBC News in 2008 that "There's a deep-rooted feeling of gratitude for the king's role in the transition to democracy [and] Polls show that he is the individual to whom democratisation is most closely attributed, and the sense of gratitude cuts across class and ideological lines."[14]

Part of the monarchy's appeal may lay in the personal characteristics of Juan Carlos, whose philosophy on his family, on personal integrity, and on a selfless work ethic were revealed in intimate private letters of fatherly advice to his son Felipe, Prince of Asturias, between 1984 and 1985, when Felipe was then attending university in Canada.[58][59] According to Juan Carlos a monarch must not take his position for granted but work for the people's welfare, be kind, attentive and helpful, and "appear animated even when you are tired; kind even when you don't feel like it; attentive even when you are not interested; helpful even when it takes an effort [...] You need to appear natural, but not vulgar; cultivated and aware of problems, but not pedantic or conceited".[58][59]

The king continued;

> Those whom God has chosen to be kings and to be at the head of the destiny of a country do not have any other choice than to start to understand the importance and the special characteristics of the position, because one can say that they start to become adults long before other boys of their age. If in this life it is as important to form and strengthen character enough to permit us to lead, it is not any less to know how to obey. In spite of the high positions that we hold in life, it will always be vital to know we also have duties to perform and obedience always involves real honour [...] We have to build a closely united family, without fissures or contradictions, we must not forget that on all and on each one of us are fixed the eyes of Spaniards whom we should serve with body and soul. I do not want to prolong my first letter any more in order not to tire you, but I would hope that this as well as the succeeding ones I send you leave a profound impression on you and are read calmly and thought about seriously.
>
> —King Juan Carlos I to Prince Felipe, 1984.[58][59]

"I have had to stand snubs and contempt, incomprehension and annoyances that you, thank God, have not known", reminded the king to his son in one letter.[58][59] The private letters from father to son remain within the royal household, but were copied and released into the public domain without any approval or foreknowledge, according to a Zarzuela palace official who confirmed the letter's authenticity.[58][59]

Despite the high approval ratings from the Spanish mainstream, and in particular the personal popularity enjoyed by the current king and queen, the monarchy has been the focus of acute criticism from the extreme left and extreme right of the Spanish political spectrum, and by regional separatists. As many as 22% of Spanish citizens feel that a republic would be the better form of government for Spain, while separatists and independence supporters in the Basque Country and Catalonia routinely protest the monarchy as the living symbol of a *united* Spain.[14][31][32][60] The extreme left criticize the institution of monarchy as anachronistic, while the far right criticize King Juan Carlos personally because he has given his royal assent and tacit approval to what they perceive to be a liberal agenda in Spain and a secularism of Spanish life.[14][61][62]

Charitable, cultural, and religious patronage

Members of the royal family, "the royals", are often asked by non-profit charitable, cultural, or religious organizations within Spain or internationally to become their patrons, a role the Spanish constitution recognizes.[63] Royal patronage conveys a sense of official credibility as the organization is vetted for suitability. A royal presence often greatly raises the profile of the organization and attracts public interest and media coverage that the organization may not have otherwise garnered, aiding in the charitable cause or cultural event. Royals use their considerable celebrity to assist the organization to raise funds or to affect or promote government policy.

Members of the royal family also pursue charitable and cultural causes of special interest to themselves. Queen Sofía devotes much of her time to the Queen Sofia Foundation (*Fundación Reina Sofia*).[64] Established in 1977 out of the queen's private funds, the non-profit aims to assist, promote, and develop the spiritual and physical needs of men and women from diverse backgrounds, with a particular focus on progress, welfare, and justice.[64]

Prince Felipe chairs the Prince of Asturias Foundation (*Fundación Príncipe de Asturias*), which aims to promote "scientific, cultural and humanistic values that form part of mankind's universal heritage."[65] The Prince of Asturias Foundation holds annual awards ceremonies acknowledging the contributions of individuals, entities, and organizations which make notable achievements in the sciences, humanities, or public affairs. Prince Felipe serves as president of the Codespa Foundation, which finances specific economic and social development activities in Ibero-America and other countries, and serves as president of the Spanish branch of the Association of European Journalists, which is composed of achieving communications professionals.[66][67] Prince Felipe also serves as honorary chair of the Ministry of Culture National Awards Ceremonies.[68]

Infanta Elena, Duchess of Lugo, the king's eldest daughter, is the Director of Cultural and Social Projects of Mapfre Foundation,[69] while Infanta Cristina, Duchess of Palma de Mallorca, the king's youngest daughter, served as the Goodwill Ambassador to the United Nations for the 2nd World Assembly on Ageing, and is a member of the Dali Foundation Board of Trustees, president of the International Foundation for Disabled Sailing, and Director of Social Welfare at the La Caixa Foundation in Barcelona where she lives with her family.[70]

The king, queen, and Infanta Cristina are all members of the Bilderberg Group, an informal think-tank centered on United States and European relations, and other world issues.[71][72][73]

The king gives annual Christmas Eve National Speeches entitled "Mensaje de S.M. Juan Carlos I" which are broadcast by radio and television through various media outlets.[74] The king usually refers to social or economic challenges facing the nation as well as positive messages of charity, good will, and religious faith. In 2004, the speech was highly related to the 2004 Madrid train bombings; in 2006 he talked about the need to become a united nation against terrorism (in implicit support of Zapatero's anti-terrorist policies), and he mentioned the increasing force of immigrants in Spain and appreciated their contribution to the economy.

House of H.M. the King

Main article: Royal Household of Spain


Royal Palace of Madrid

The royal household organization, constitutionally *La Casa de Su Majestad el Rey*,[75] supports and facilitates the monarch and members of the royal family in fulfilling their constitutionally hereditary responsibilities and obligations.[2][76] The royal household is funded through yearly budgets drafted by the government of the day in consultation with the monarch, and brought before the Cortes for approval, and then paid directly to the monarch. The royal household coordinates with various government administration ministries, and receives their advice and support where needed, though in no way does the royal household form part of the government administration.[76] Royal household staff serve at the pleasure of the monarch, and does not resign when the Spanish government resigns during election cycles. The royal household is managed by the *Head of the Household* who inspects and supervises all household operations through various bureaus or offices of the General Secretariat. The Head of the Household is assisted by a Secretary General.[76] The General Secretariat is divided into various departments which includes planning and coordination, the secretariat (bureau) of H.M. the Queen, the secretariat (bureau) of H.R.H. the Prince of Asturias, security services, public relations and the media, protocol, administration, Infrastructure and Services.[76]

The Spanish Armed Forces are represented by the *Head of the Military Chamber*, who does not advise the king on matters of national defense, which is the portfolio of the Minister of Defence and President of the Government to advise the king. Rather, the *Head of the Military Chamber* coordinates royal military operations and ceremonies, and prepares the royal family for any military activities.[76] The Military Chamber is directed by a commander who must be an active lieutenant-general or a general within the Spanish military, and is under the direct orders of the king.[76] The commander maintains an office with a military legal advisor, an auditor, and section heads for staffing, protocol, operations and logistics.[76] The king is assigned personal aides-de-camp for his assistance, and by extension to the queen and Infantas Doña Elena and Doña Cristina during their official activities.[76] Aides-de-camp are drawn from all of the services, with four from the Army, two from the Navy, two from the Air Force, and one from the Civil Guard.[76] The Prince of Asturias is entitled to personal aides-de-camp assigned to him and the Princess of Asturias, with one drawn each from the army, the navy and the air force.[76]

The Head of the Household, Secretary General, and Head of the Military Chamber are considered senior management staff and are compensated at the level of senior government administration officials.[76] In 2004, the royal household employed 100 staff members.

The royal household's public relations department manages and maintaines an official website on behalf of the royal family known as *Casa de S.M. El Rey (http://www.casareal.es/index-iden-idweb.html)* . The website lists biographical information on members of the immediate royal family, charts their activities, records speeches given at events, and publishes their expected diary of upcoming events, among other information. Additionally, the public relations department publishes the king's diary of his private meetings and the meeting minutes, so long as the other party agrees.[6]

Residences and royal sites

See also: Spanish royal sites

The king and queen officially reside at the Oriente Palace in Madrid.[77] However, the couple have spent the majority of their time at the modest La Zarzuela Palace, a former hunting lodge on the El Pardo estate on the outskirts of Madrid. The Prince of Asturias and his family reside at the *Prince's House* (also known as the *Pavilion*) near the La Zaruela, also on the El Pardo estate.[15][78] The El Pardo Palace itself has served as the "guest house" for visiting heads of state since the 1980s.

The Oriente Palace and the palaces of the El Pardo estate form part of the "Spanish royal sites", a term used to denote the set of palaces, monasteries, and convents built under royal patronage throughout history. Royal sites are owned by the state and administered by the *Patrimonio Nacional* (National Heritage) on behalf of the government of the day, and made available for the king as the head of state. Whenever a member of

the royal family is not in residence, the royal site is made available for public visitations. The royal household coordinates directly with the National Heritage Council and releavent government ministries or other interests in their planning and staging of state events, with royal sites often providing the setting.

The king and his family regularly vacation on Palma de Mallorca making use of the Marivent Palace there since the 1960s.[15] In 2001 the king, known as a keen yachtman, was given a yacht by the Balearic Islands and a consortium of local business leaders as part of an effort to further associate the royal family with the islands, and to promote the islands as a tourist destination.[79] The yacht, known as the *Fortuna*, is also owned by the State and administered by the Patrimonio Nacional.[79]

Annual budget and taxation

Constitutionally the monarch is entitled to compensation from the annual state budget for the maintenance of his family and household administration, and freely distributes these funds in accordance with the laws.[2][76] According to the Royal Household, "[T]he purpose of these resources is to ensure that the Head of State may carry out his tasks with the independence which is inherent to his constitutional functions, as well as with due effectiveness and dignity".[76] The annual budget pays the remunerations for senior management staff, management staff and career civil servants, other minor staffing positions, and for general office expenses.[76] The Head of Household, Secretary General, and other management staff salaries must be comparable to other administration ministers within the government, though in no way do they form part of the government or administration.[76] As such, the management staff experience increases, decreases, or freezes to their pay in accordance with the fluctuations of government minister salaries.[76] Additionally, the annual budget pays for the maintenance and expenses of senior members of the royal family who undertake royal duties; which includes grocery, clothing, and toiletries allotments.[76] The budget approved by the Cortes for 2010 was just under 7.4 million euros, a budget only slightly larger than that spent on the Luxembourg monarchy.[8][76] Not included in the annual budget is the maintenance and upkeep of Spanish royal sites, which are owned by the state and made available to the king as the head-of-state, but administered by Patrimonio Nacional on behalf of the government of the day. Spanish royal sites are open to the public when members of the royal family are not in residence. Maintenance and upkeep includes groundskeeping, domestic staffing and catering.[76] The budget is administered with professional Public Administration accounting procedures, and is audited by government auditors.[76] All members of the royal family are subject to taxation and annually submit Income Tax and Wealth Tax returns and effect the relevant payments.[76]

See also

- List of titles and honours of the Spanish Crown
- List of Spanish monarchs
- Royal Consorts of Spain
- Kings of Spain family tree
- Line of succession to the Spanish throne
- Politics of Spain
- Carlism
- Endogamy in the Spanish Monarchy

Notes

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2. ^ *a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z aa ab ac ad ae af ag ah ai aj ak al am* Título II. De la Corona, Wikisource (http://es.wikisource.org/wiki/Constituci%C3%B3n_espa%C3%B1ola_de_1978:_04)
3. ^ Constitution of Spain 1978, Title II, Artical 56, Subsection 2 and amended by Royal Decree 1368/1987, dated 6 th November
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8. ^ *a b* Martin Delgado and Christopher Leake (24 October 2010). "Queen's £38m a year offshore windfarm windfall - because she owns the seabed" (http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-1323228/Queens-38m-year-offshore-windfarm-windfall--owns-seabed.html#ixzz14cGB6mt9) . Daily Mail. http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-1323228/Queens-38m-year-offshore-windfarm-windfall--owns-seabed.html#ixzz14cGB6mt9. Retrieved 7 November 2010.
9. ^ According to historian Charles Powell, the term *reestablished*, rather than *restored*, was a conscious choice to find a middle ground acceptable by monarchists, who viewed the 1975 monarchy as a restoration, and Franconists who took the view that General Franco had essentially established a *new* monarchy apart from the prior historic office.
10. ^ *a b c d e f g* Title II, Artical 56, Subsection 1
11. ^ *a b* "Uribe es el líder iberoamericano mejor valorado por los ciudadanos de su país" (http://www.elmundo.es/elmundo/2008/07/09/internacional/1215635605.html) (in Spanish). *El Mundo*. 2008-10-07. http://www.elmundo.es/elmundo/2008/07/09/internacional/1215635605.html. Retrieved 2009-12-01.
12. ^ The Visigothic Kingdom had its early capital in Toulouse, in modern Languedoc, then part of Aquitainia
13. ^ John Hooper, *The New Spaniards*, 2001, *From Dictatorship to Democracy*
14. ^ *a b c d* "Spain's fast-living king turns 70)" (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/7171971.stm) . *BBC News*. 2008-01-04.

Juan Carlos I of Spain

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Juan Carlos I (Spanish pronunciation: ['xwaŋ 'karlos], baptized as *Juan Carlos Alfonso Víctor María de Borbón y Borbón-Dos Sicilias*[note 1] and born 5 January 1938) is the reigning King of Spain.[3] He is a direct descendant through the male line of Robert of Hesbaye (770-807), currently making the Spanish Royal Line one of the longest lived in the world, second only to the Japanese.

On 22 November 1975, two days after General Franco's death, Juan Carlos was designated king according to the law of succession promulgated by Franco. Spain had no monarch for 38 years in 1969 when Franco named Juan Carlos as the next head of state.[4] The Spanish Constitution of 1978, voted in referendum, acknowledges him expressly as King of Spain. The Spanish Constitution, Title II: the Crown, Article 56, Subsection 1, affirms the role of the Spanish monarch as the personification and embodiment of the Spanish nation, a symbol of Spain's enduring unity and permanence; and as such, the monarch is the head-of-state and commander-in-chief of the Spanish Armed Forces in a system known in Spanish as *monarquía parlamentaria* (constitutional monarchy).[5][6]

King Juan Carlos successfully oversaw the transition of Spain from dictatorship to parliamentary monarchy.

Juan Carlos married Sophia of Greece and Denmark in 1962. The couple have three children and eight grandchildren.

Polls from 2000 show that he is widely approved of by Spaniards.[7] According to the Spanish Constitution, the monarch is also instrumental in promoting Ibero-American relations, the "nations of its historical community".[5][6] In this capacity, the King of Spain serves as the president of the Ibero-American States Organization, representing over 700,000,000 people in 24 member nations worldwide. In 2008 he was considered the most popular leader in all Ibero-America.[8]

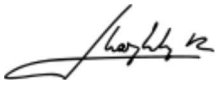
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Juan Carlos I



King of Spain *(more)*

Reign	22 November 1975 – present
Anointment	27 November 1975
Predecessor	Alejandro Rodríguez de Valcárcel (interim Head of State)
Heir apparent	Felipe, Prince of Asturias
Prime Ministers	*See list*
Consort	Sophia of Greece and Denmark
Issue	***Detail***
	Infanta Elena, Duchess of Lugo Infanta Cristina, Duchess of Palma de Mallorca Felipe, Prince of Asturias
Full name	
	Juan Carlos Alfonso Víctor María de Borbón y Borbón-Dos Sicilias
House	House of Bourbon[1][2]
Father	Infante Juan, Count of Barcelona
Mother	Princess María de las Mercedes of Bourbon-Two Sicilies
Born	5 January 1938 Rome, Italy
Signature	

Spanish Royal Family

Early life

Juan Carlos of Spain was born to the Infante Juan, Count of Barcelona, and the Princess María Mercedes of Bourbon-Two Sicilies in Rome, Italy, where his grandfather, King Alfonso XIII, and other members of the Spanish royal family had settled following the proclamation of the Second Spanish Republic in 1931. His early life was dictated largely by the political concerns of his father and General Franco. He moved to Spain in 1948 to be educated there after his father persuaded Franco to allow it. He began his studies in San Sebastián and finished them in 1954 at the San Isidro Institute in Madrid. He then joined the army, doing his officer training from 1955 to 1957 at the Military Academy of Zaragoza.

Juan Carlos has two sisters and one brother: Infanta Pilar, Duchess of Badajoz (born 1936), and Infanta Margarita, Duchess of Soria (born 1939) and his younger brother Alfonso.

In March 1956, Juan Carlos's younger brother Alfonso died in a gun accident at the family's home Villa Giralda in Estoril, Portugal. The Spanish Embassy in Portugal issued an official communiqué:[9]

> Whilst His Highness Prince Alfonso was cleaning a revolver last evening with his brother, a shot was fired hitting his forehead and killing him in a few minutes. The accident took place at 20.30 hours, after the Infante's return from the Maundy Thursday religious service, during which he had received holy communion.

Very quickly, however, rumours appeared in newspapers that the gun had actually been held by Juan Carlos at the moment the shot was fired. Josefina Carolo, dressmaker to Juan Carlos's mother, said that Juan Carlos pointed the pistol at Alfonso and pulled the trigger, unaware that the pistol was loaded. Bernardo Arnoso, a Portuguese friend of Juan Carlos, also said that Juan Carlos fired the pistol not knowing that it was loaded, and adding that the bullet ricocheted off a wall hitting Alfonso in the face. Helena Matheopoulos, a Greek author who spoke with Juan Carlos's sister Pilar, said that Alfonso had been out of the room and when he returned and pushed the door open, the door knocked Juan Carlos in the arm causing him to fire the pistol.[10]

In 1957 Juan Carlos spent a year in the naval school at Marin, Pontevedra, and another in the Air Force school in San Javier in Murcia. In 1960–1 he studied Law, International Political Economy and Public Finance at Complutense University.[11] He then went to live in the Palace of Zarzuela, and began carrying out official engagements.



HM The King
HM The Queen

- HRH The Prince of Asturias
  HRH The Princess of Asturias
  - HRH Infanta Leonor
  - HRH Infanta Sofía
- HRH The Duchess of Lugo
  - HE Don Felipe
  - HE Doña Victoria
- HRH The Duchess of Palma de Mallorca
  HE The Duke of Palma de Mallorca
  - HE Don Juan Valentín
  - HE Don Pablo Nicolás
  - HE Don Miguel
  - HE Doña Irene

Extended royal family

HRH The Duchess of Badajoz

HRH The Duchess of Soria
HE The Duke of Soria

HRH The Dowager Duchess of Calabria

- HRH The Duke of Calabria
  HRH The Duchess of Calabria

Royal styles of
King Juan Carlos



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	Sire

Prince of Spain, 1969–1975

The dictatorial regime of Francisco Franco had come to power during the Spanish Civil War, which had pitted democrats, anarchists, socialists, and communists, supported in part by the Soviet Union and by international volunteers, against conservatives, monarchists, nationalists, and fascists, with the latter group ultimately emerging successful with the support of neighbouring Portugal and the major European Axis powers of Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany. Despite his alliance with monarchists, Franco was not eager to restore the deposed Spanish monarchy once in power, preferring to head a regime with himself as head of state for life. Though Franco's partisan supporters generally accepted this arrangement for the present, much debate quickly ensued over who would replace Franco upon his death. The far right factions demanded the return of a hardline absolute monarchy, and eventually Franco agreed that his successor would be a monarch. Franco, a Carlist by some accounts, had no intention of restoring the constitutional form of monarchy known during the 19th century or the republican form of government created by the Spanish Constitution of 1931.

The heir to the throne of Spain was Juan de Borbón *(Count of Barcelona)*, the son of the late Alfonso XIII. However, General Franco viewed the heir with extreme suspicion, believing him to be a liberal who was opposed to his regime. In 1961, Franco offered the crown to Archduke Otto of Austria, but he declined on account of the Habsburg dynasty's long absence from the Spanish throne, and recommended Juan Carlos.[12] Franco then considered giving the Spanish throne to Juan Carlos's cousin Alfonso, Duke of Anjou and

Cádiz. Alfonso was known to be an ardent Francoist and would marry Franco's granddaughter, Doña María del Carmen Martínez-Bordiú y Franco in 1972. In response, Juan Carlos started to use his second name *Carlos* to assert his claim to the heritage of the Carlist branch of his family.

Ultimately, Franco decided to skip a generation and name Juan de Borbón's son, Prince Juan Carlos, as his personal successor. Franco hoped the young prince could be groomed to take over the nation while still maintaining the ultraconservative nature of his regime. In 1969, Juan Carlos was officially designated heir-apparent and was given the new title of Prince of Spain (not the traditional Prince of Asturias). As a condition of being named heir-apparent, he had to swear loyalty to Franco's Movimiento Nacional, which he did with little outward hesitation.

Prince Juan Carlos met and consulted Franco many times while heir apparent and often took part in official and ceremonial state functions standing alongside the dictator, much to the anger of hardline republicans and more moderate liberals, who had hoped that Franco's death would bring in an era of reform. During 1969–1975, Juan Carlos publicly supported Franco's regime. Although Franco's health worsened during those years, whenever he did appear in public, from state dinners to military parades, it was in Juan Carlos's company as he continued to praise Franco and his government for the economic growth and positive changes in Spain. However, as the years progressed, Juan Carlos began meeting secretly with political opposition leaders and exiles, who were fighting to bring liberal reform to the country. He also had secret conversations with his father over the telephone. Franco, for his part, remained largely oblivious to the prince's actions and denied allegations from his ministers and advisors that Juan Carlos was in any way disloyal to his vision of the regime.

During periods of Franco's temporary incapacity in 1974 and 1975 Juan Carlos was acting head of state. Near death, on 30 October 1975, Franco gave full control to Juan Carlos. On 22 November, following Franco's death, the Cortes Generales proclaimed Juan Carlos King of Spain and on 27 November, Juan Carlos was anointed king in a ceremony called *Holy Spirit Mass*, which was the equivalent of a coronation, at the Jerónimos Church in Madrid. He opted not to call himself **John III** or **Charles V**, but **Juan Carlos I**.

Restoration of the monarchy

Juan Carlos quickly instituted reforms, to the great displeasure of Falangist and conservative (monarchist) elements, especially in the military, who had expected him to maintain the authoritarian state. He appointed Adolfo Suárez, a former leader of the Movimiento Nacional, as Prime Minister of Spain.



Royal trips of King Juan Carlos I from 1975 until today.



Juan Carlos greeting Nicolae Ceauşescu, President of Romania, during his visit to Spain in 1979

On 20 May 1977, the leader of the only recently legalized Spanish Socialist Workers' Party (PSOE) Felipe González, accompanied by Javier Solana, visited Juan Carlos in the Zarzuela Palace. The event represented a key endorsement of the monarchy from Spain's political left, who had been historically republican. Left-wing support for the monarchy grew when the Communist Party of Spain was legalized shortly thereafter, a move Juan Carlos had pressed for, despite enormous right-wing military opposition at that time, during the Cold War.

On 15 June 1977, Spain held its first post-Franco democratic elections. In 1978, a new Constitution was promulgated that acknowledged Juan Carlos as rightful heir of the Spanish dynasty and King; specifically, Title II, Section 57 asserted Juan Carlos' right to the throne of Spain by dynastic succession in the Borbón tradition, as "the legitimate heir of the historic dynasty" rather than as the designated successor of Franco.[5][13] The Constitution was passed by the democratically elected Constituent Cortes, ratified by the people in a referendum (6 December) and then signed into law by the King before a solemn meeting of the Cortes.

Further legitimacy had been restored to Juan Carlos' position on 14 May 1977, when his father, Don Juan (whom many monarchists had recognized as the legitimate, exiled King of Spain during the Franco era), formally renounced his claim to the Throne and recognized his son as the sole head of the Spanish Royal House, transferring to him the historical heritage of the Spanish monarchy, thus making Juan Carlos both the *de facto* and the *de jure* (rightful) King in the eyes of the traditional monarchists. Juan Carlos, who had already been King since Franco's death, gave an acceptance address after his father's resignation speech and thanked him by confirming the title of Count of Barcelona that Don Juan had assumed in exile. It was a sovereign title associated to the crown.

An attempted military coup, known as 23-F, occurred on 23 February 1981, when the Cortes were seized by members of the Guardia Civil in the parliamentary chamber. Believed to be a major factor in foiling the coup was the public television broadcast by the king, calling for unambiguous support for the legitimate democratic government. Certainly, in the hours before his speech, he had personally called many senior military figures to tell them that he was opposed to the coup and that they had to defend the democratic government.

When Juan Carlos became king, Communist leader Santiago Carrillo nicknamed him *Juan Carlos the Brief*, predicting that the monarchy would soon be swept away with the other remnants of the Franco era. After the collapse of the attempted coup mentioned above, however, in an emotional statement, Carrillo told television viewers: "God save the king." The Communist leader also remarked: "Today, we are all monarchists." If public support for the monarchy among democrats and leftists before 1981 had been limited, following the king's handling of the coup, it became significantly greater. According to a poll in the newspaper *El Mundo* in November 2005, 77.5% of Spaniards thought Juan Carlos was "good or very good", 15.4% "not so good", and only 7.1% "bad or very bad". Even so, the issue of the monarchy re-emerged on 28 September 2007 as photos of the king were burnt in public in Catalonia by small groups of protesters wanting the restoration of the Republic.[14]

In July 2000, Juan Carlos was the target of an enraged protester when Juan María Fernández y Krohn,[15] who had previously tried to take the life of Pope John Paul II, began shouting "Murderer! Murderer!" at the king and then approached him in a very threatening manner.

Role in contemporary Spanish politics

The election of socialist leader Felipe González to the Spanish prime ministership in 1982 marked the effective end of the King's active involvement in Spanish politics. González would govern for over a decade, and his administration helped consolidate the democratic gains and thus maintained the stability of the nation. While the king is generally reckoned as having a merely ceremonial role in politics, he commands great moral authority as an essential symbol of the country's unity.

Under the constitution, the King has immunity from prosecution in matters relating to his official duties. This is so because every act of the King as such (and not as a citizen) needs to be undersigned by a government official, thus making the undersigner responsible instead of the king. The honour of the Royal Family is specially protected from offences by the Spanish Penal Code. Under this protection, Basque independentist Arnaldo Otegi[16] and cartoonists from *El Jueves* were tried and punished.



5000 Spanish peseta note with image of King Juan Carlos.

The King gives an annual speech to the nation on Christmas Eve. He is the commander-in-chief of the Spanish armed forces.

When the media asked Juan Carlos in 2005 if he would endorse the bill legalising gay marriage that was then being debated in the *Cortes Generales*, he answered *"Soy el Rey de España y no el de Bélgica"* ("I am the King of Spain, not of Belgium") – a reference to King Baudouin I of Belgium, who refused to sign the Belgian law legalising abortion.[17] The King gave his Royal Assent to Law 13/2005 on 1 July 2005; the law legalising gay marriage was gazetted in the *Boletín Oficial del Estado* on 2 July, and came into effect on 3 July.[18]

In November 2007 at the Ibero-American Summit in Santiago de Chile, during a heated exchange, Juan Carlos interrupted Venezuelan President Hugo Chávez and asked him, "*¿Por qué no te callas?*" ("Why don't you shut up?" using the familiar "tu" you form to underline the disdain). Chávez had been interrupting the Spanish Prime Minister, José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero, while the latter was defending his predecessor and political opponent, José María Aznar, after Chávez had referred to Aznar as a fascist and "less human than snakes". The King shortly afterwards left the hall when President Daniel Ortega of Nicaragua accused Spain of intervention in his country's elections and complained about some Spanish energy companies working in Nicaragua.[19] This was an unprecedented diplomatic incident and a rare display of public


The King (left of centre, in grey suit) standing with the presidents of all the other Iberoamerican Nations present at the XVIII Ibero-American

anger by the King.[20]

Summit.

Family and private life

Juan Carlos was married in Athens at the Church of Saint Dennis on 14 May 1962, to HRH Princess Sophia of Greece and Denmark, daughter of King Paul. She was Greek Orthodox but converted to Roman Catholicism in order to become Spain's queen. Also in 1962, a Roman Catholic wedding was performed in the Pauline Chapel the Basilica of Santa Maria Maggiore in Rome.

They have two daughters and a son.

- Infanta **Elena** María Isabel Dominica
- Infanta **Cristina** Federica Victoria Antonia
- **Felipe** Juan Pablo Alfonso, Prince of Asturias



King Juan Carlos, Queen Sofía and the former Prime Minister José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero at the XV Ibero-American Summit (Salamanca, 2005).

In 1972, Juan Carlos, a keen sailor, competed in the Dragon class event at the Olympic Games, finishing 15th. In their summer holidays, the whole family meets in Marivent Palace (Palma de Mallorca) and the Fortuna yacht, where they take part in sailing competitions. The king has manned the Bribón series of yachts. In winter, they usually go skiing in Baqueira-Beret and Candanchú (Pyrenees), where the king has occasionally ended with a broken leg.

Juan Carlos also enjoys bear hunting. In October 2004, he angered environmental activists by killing nine bears (of which one was a pregnant female) in central Romania.[21] In August 2006, it is alleged that Juan Carlos shot a drunken tame bear (Mitrofan) during a private hunting trip to Russia. The Office of the Spanish Monarchy denies this claim, which was made by the Russian regional authorities.[22]

Juan Carlos and Sophia are fluent in several languages. They both speak Spanish, English, and French. The king also speaks fluent Italian and Catalan. Unlike the queen, Juan Carlos does not speak any German, nor her native language, Greek, a fact he regrets.

Juan Carlos is an amateur radio operator and holds the call sign EA0JC. His fondness of incognito motorbike riding has raised urban legends of people finding him on lonely roads. For example, one story says that a biker out of petrol stranded on a hot sunny day was assisted by a fellow motorcyclist, who returned with a small container of petrol. The good-Samaritan, on removing his helmet, turned out to be Juan Carlos.

Juan Carlos is member of the World Scout Foundation.[23]

His net worth is only valued at $5 million, but the Royal Family have a net worth over $1.7 billion (December 2011).[24][25]

Health

A benign tumour was removed from King Juan Carlos' lung in an operation carried out in the "Hospital Clínic" of Barcelona on Saturday 8 May 2010. The 72-year-old Monarch was expected to be allowed home in three or four days, and able to renew full physical activity in a fortnight. The operation came as a result of the King's latest annual check-up, and doctors said the procedure went well and Juan Carlos would not need any further follow-up treatment. At a press convention the operating team said that the 17-19mm tumour which had been removed under a general anaesthetic from the right lung contained no malignant cells. 'This is good news', said doctor Laureano Molins, who had directed the operation.

Budget of the royal house

In the wake of the Urdangarin affair (the husband of his daughter is accused of corruption), the King decided in 2011 to detail the yearly royal budget of 8.3 millions euros for the first time.[26][27] However, some spending such as the electricity bill are not included in the 8.3 budget since they are paid by the State.[26]

Titles, styles, honours and arms

Titles

Main articles: List of titles and honours of Juan Carlos I of Spain and List of titles and honours of the Spanish Crown

The current Spanish constitution refers to the monarchy as "the Crown of Spain" and the constitutional title of the monarch is simply *Rey/Reina de España*: that is, "king/queen of Spain". However, the constitution allows for the use of other historic titles pertaining to the Spanish monarchy, without specifying them. A decree promulgated 6 November 1987 at the Council of Ministers regulates the titles further, and on that basis the monarch of Spain has a right to use ("may use") those other titles appertaining to the Crown. Contrary to some belief, the long titulary that contains the list of over 20 kingdoms, etc., is not in state use, nor is it used in Spanish diplomacy. In fact, it has never been in use in that form, as "Spain" was never a part of the list in pre-1837 era when the long list was officially used.

This feudal style was last used officially in 1836, in the titulary of Isabella II of Spain before she became constitutional Queen.

Juan Carlos's titles include that of King of Jerusalem, as successor to the royal family of Naples.

Titles in official use

- King of Spain, of Castile, of León, of Aragon, of the Two Sicilies (Naples and Sicily), of Jerusalem, of Navarre, of Granada, of Toledo, of Valencia, of Galicia, of Majorca, of Seville, of Sardinia, of Córdoba, of Corsica, of Murcia, of Menorca, of Jaén, of Algeciras, of Gibraltar, of the Canary Islands, of the East and West Indies and of the Islands and Mainland of the Ocean Sea;
- Archduke of Austria;
- Duke of Burgundy, of Brabant, of Milan, and of Neopatra (New Patras);
- Count of Habsburg, of Flanders, of Tyrol, of Roussillon and of Barcelona;
- Lord of Biscay and of Molina



The Standard of the King of Spain.

Honours

National honours

- Sovereign of the Order of the Golden Fleece (Spain)
- Grand Master of the Royal and Distinguished Order of Charles III (Spain)
- Grand Master of the Royal Order of Isabel the Catholic (Spain)
- Grand Master of the Royal and Military Order of St. Hermenegildo (Spain)
- Grand Master of the Royal and Military Order of Saint Ferdinand (Spain)
- Grand Master of the Order of Montesa (Spain)
- Grand Master of the Order of Alcántara (Spain)
- Grand Master of the Order of Calatrava (Spain)
- Grand Master of the Order of Santiago (Spain)

Foreign honours

- Belgium : Grand Cordon of the Order of Leopold (Belgium)
- Czech Republic : Collar of the Order of the White Lion
- Denmark : Knight of Order of the Elephant
- Estonia: Collar of the Order of the Cross of Terra Mariana
- Finland : Commander Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of the White Rose of Finland
- France : Grand Cross of the French Legion of Honor
- France : Grand Cross of the Ordre national du Mérite
- Germany : Grand Cross Special Class of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany
- Greece : Grand Cross of the Order of the Redeemer
- Italy : Knight Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic
- Japan: Collar of the Order of the Chrysanthemum
- Latvia: Commander Grand Cross with Chain of the Order of Three Stars
- Lithuania: Golden Collar of the Order of Vytautas the Great
- Mexico : Collar of the Order of the Aztec Eagle
- Netherlands : Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion
- Norway : Knight Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of St. Olav
- Poland: Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the White Eagle
- Portugal : Grand Cross of the Order of Aviz

- Portugal : Grand Cross of the Order of Christ (Portugal)
- Portugal : Grand Cross (1970) *later* Grand Collar (2000) of the Order of the Tower and Sword
- Portugal : Knight Grand Collar of the Order of Prince Henry (1978)
- Portugal : Grand Collar of the Order of Saint James of the Sword (1978)
- Portugal : Grand Collar of the Order of Liberty (1988)
- Romania : Sash (Collar) of the Order of the Star of Romania
- Sweden : Knight of the Order of the Seraphim
- Thailand : Knight of the Order of the Rajamitrabhorn
- United Kingdom : Stranger Knight of the Order of the Garter (974th member, England)
- Commonwealth realms: Royal Victorian Chain (Commonwealth Realms)

International sovereign organisations

- : Bailiff and Knight Grand Cross of Honour and Devotion of the Sovereign Military Order of Malta

Former sovereign families

- Knight Grand Cross of Justice of the Sacred Military Constantinian Order of Saint George[28] (House of Bourbon)
- Knight of the Order of Saint Januarius (House of Bourbon-Two Sicilies)[29]
- Knight of the Order of the Most Holy Annunciation (House of Savoy)[30]
- Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Immaculate Conception of Vila Viçosa (House of Braganza)
- Lord Protector of the International Order of St Hubertus
- Laureate of the State Prize of the Russian Federation

Other honours

The king has been the recipient of numerous honorary degrees,[31] including from University of Santo Tomas, Philippines;[31] Harvard University;[31] Southern Methodist University[31] (where, in 2001, he formally opened the Meadows Museum, housing the largest collection of Spanish art outside Spain), and Georgetown University.[31] Juan Carlos also has received honorary Doctor of Laws degrees from New York University,[31] the University of Cambridge[31] and the University of Utrecht[31] in the Netherlands (25 October 2001).[32]

In 1997, NYU opened the King Juan Carlos I of Spain Center (to promote research and teaching on Spain and the Spanish-speaking world) in the historic Judson Hall and adjacent buildings on Washington Square in New York City. He is also a member of the Sons of the American Revolution organization.[33] In 1996, he received the Jean Monnet award of the Jean Monnet Foundation for Europe for his work on integrating Spain into the European Community.[34] Juan Carlos I Park, the main municipal park of Madrid, was named after the king.[35] The Spanish Antarctic Base on Livingston Island in the South Shetland Islands, Antarctica is named for King Juan Carlos I of Spain. The multi-purpose warship Juan Carlos I of the Spanish navy is named for King Juan Carlos I.[36] Juan Carlos also was awarded the Charlemagne Prize in 1982.

Ancestors

Main article: Ancestry of Juan Carlos I of Spain



The Coat of arms of the King of Spain.

King Juan Carlos is a direct descendant of many famous European rulers from different countries. He is a descendant of Queen Victoria of the United Kingdom through his grandmother, Victoria Eugenie; of Louis XIV of France through the House of Bourbon; of the Emperor Charles V, who belonged to the Habsburg dynasty of the Holy Roman Empire. The Capetian dynasty, to which he also belongs, is the oldest in Europe. Some of his distant ancestors include Joan, Duchess of Burgundy and queen consort of Philip VI of France. He is a descendant of Maria Leszczyńska, daughter of King Stanislaus Leszczynski of Poland, and Queen Consort of France through an unbroken line of Bourbon princesses who married within the Bourbon house. He's also a descendant of Pelagius, first king (718–737 a.C) during the Reconquista, as descendant of the kings of Castile and Leon, and through him the Visigothic kings. The King is a direct descendent of Ferdinand II of Aragon and Isabella I of Castile.

Patrilineal descent

Patrilineal descent

Juan Carlos' patriline is the line from which he is descended father to son.

Patrilineal descent is the principle behind membership in royal houses, as it can be traced back through the generations, which means that Juan Carlos I is a member of the House of Bourbon, the senior-surviving cadet branch of the Capetian dynasty.

1. Charibert of Neustria, dates unknown
2. Chrodobertus of Hesbaye, dates unknown
3. Lambert of Hesbaye, dates unknown
4. Chrodbert II of Hesbaye, ca. 640 – ???
5. Lambert II of Hesbaye, dates unknown
6. Robert I, Duke in Haspengau (Hesbaye), c. 700 – c. 764
7. Thuringbert, ??? – c. 770
8. Robert of Hesbaye, c. 765–807
9. Robert III of Worms, 800–834
10. Robert the Strong, 820–866
11. Robert I of France, 866–923
12. Hugh the Great, 898–956
13. Hugh Capet, c. 939–996
14. Robert II of France, 972–1031
15. Henry I of France, 1008–1060
16. Philip I of France, 1052–1108
17. Louis VI of France, 1081–1137
18. Louis VII of France, 1120–1180
19. Philip II of France, 1165–1223
20. Louis VIII of France, 1187–1226
21. Louis IX of France, 1214–1270
22. Robert, Count of Clermont, 1256–1317
23. Louis I, Duke of Bourbon, 1279–1342
24. James I, Count of La Marche, 1319–1362
25. John I, Count of La Marche, 1344–1393
26. Louis, Count of Vendôme, 1376–1446
27. John VIII, Count of Vendôme, 1426–1478
28. Francis, Count of Vendôme, 1470–1495
29. Charles, Duke of Vendôme, 1489–1537
30. Antoine of Navarre, Duke of Vendôme, 1518–1562
31. Henry IV of France, 1553–1610
32. Louis XIII of France, 1601–1643
33. Louis XIV of France, 1638–1715
34. Louis, *Grand* Dauphin of France, 1661–1711
35. Philip V of Spain, 1683–1746
36. Charles III of Spain, 1716–1788
37. Charles IV of Spain, 1748–1819
38. Infante Francisco de Paula of Spain, 1794–1865
39. Francis of Spain, Duke of Cádiz, 1822–1902
40. Alfonso XII of Spain, 1857–1885
41. Alfonso XIII of Spain, 1886–1941
42. Infante Juan of Spain, Count of Barcelona, 1913–1993
43. Juan Carlos I of Spain, b. 1938

See also

- List of national leaders
- History of Spain
- Politics of Spain
- Line of succession to the Spanish Throne
- List of titles and honours of the Spanish Crown
- List of titles and honours of Juan Carlos I of Spain

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2. ^ The English language version of the Official Royal Family website is rendered as **Borbon**, while in Spanish it is **Borbón**
3. ^ His name, while rarely anglicised, is rendered as *John Charles Alphonse Victor Mary of Bourbon and Bourbon-Two Sicilies*. He was given these baptismal names after his father (Juan de Borbón), grandfather (Alfonso XIII) and maternal grandfather (Prince Charles of Bourbon-Two Sicilies).
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5. ^ ***a b c*** Título II. De la Corona, Wikisource (http://es.wikisource.org/wiki/Constituci%C3%B3n_espa%C3%B1ola_de_1978:_04)
6. ^ ***a b*** Title II, Article 56, Subsection 1, Text:
   The King is Head of State, the symbol of its unity and permanence. He arbitrates and moderates the regular functioning of the institutions, assumes the highest representation of the Spanish State in international relations, especially with the nations of its historical community, and exercises the functions expressly conferred on him by the Constitution and the laws
   El Rey es el Jefe del Estado, símbolo de su unidad y permanencia, arbitra y modera el funcionamiento regular de las instituciones, asume la más alta representación del Estado español en las relaciones internacionales, especialmente con las naciones de su comunidad histórica, y ejerce las funciones que le atribuyen expresamente la Constitución y las leyes
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8. ^ Juan Carlos most popular leader in Ibero-America (spanish) (http://www.elmundo.es/elmundo/2008/07/09/internacional/1215635605.html)
9. ^ Quoted in Paul Preston, *Juan Carlos: Steering Spain from Dictatorship to Democracy* (New York: W.W. Norton, 2004), 101.
10. ^ Preston, 102.
11. ^ Su Majestad el Rey Don Juan Carlos (http://www.casareal.es/sm_rey/index-ides-idweb.html) , Página oficial de la Casa de Su Majestad el Re, retrieved 16 September 2011 **(Spanish)**
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13. ^ Title II, Section 57, Subsection 1:
   "The Crown shall be inherited by the successors of H.M. Juan Carlos I de Borbón, the legitimae heir of the historic dynasty."
   "La Corona de España es hereditaria en los sucesores de S. M. Don Juan Carlos I de Borbón, legítimo heredero de la dinastía histórica."
14. ^ Tarvainen, Sinikka (28 September 2007). "Spanish royals worried about protests against monarchy" (http://web.archive.org/web/20081201063734/http://eux.tv/article.aspx?articleId=15269) . EUX.TV. Archived from the original (http://eux.tv/article.aspx?articleId=15269) on 1 December 2008. http://web.archive.org/web/20081201063734/http://eux.tv/article.aspx?articleId=15269. Retrieved 29 December 2007.
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Notes

1. ^ In other languages of Spain, the name of the King **Juan Carlos I** is adapted as:
   - Catalan/Valencian *Joan Carles I* (IPA: [ʒu'aŋ 'karɬəs] or [(d)ʒu'aŋ 'karles]).
   - Galician *Xoán Carlos I* (IPA: [ʃo'aŋ 'karlos]).
   - Basque *Joan Karlos Ia* (IPA: [joan karlos]).

- Paul Preston, *Juan Carlos: Steering Spain from Dictatorship to Democracy*, W W Norton & Co Inc, June 2004. ISBN 0-393-05804-2.
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External links

- **(Spanish)** Biography of Juan Carlos I at CIDOB Foundation (http://www.cidob.org/es/documentacion/biografias_lideres_politicos/europa/espana/juan_carlos_i)
- Official website of the Spanish Royal Family (http://www.casareal.es)
- Juan Carlos I Family Tree (http://public.genoom.com/trees/familia-real/juan-carlos)
- Spanish king tells Chavez to 'shut up' (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/7089131.stm)
- Voices of the Transition – A Political History of Spain, 1975–1982 (http://www.voicesofthetransition.net/)
- Earth Times article (http://www.earthtimes.org/articles/show/118068.html)
- Spain supports the monarchy (http://www.angus-reid.com/polls/view/spaniards_clearly_support_the_monarchy/)
- Royals (http://news.yahoo.com/s/afp/20071114/en_afp/spainroyals_071114185753)
- King against Chavez (http://www.elmundo.es/elmundo/2007/11/10/internacional/1194711476.html)

Juan Carlos I of Spain **House of Bourbon** Cadet branch of the **Capetian dynasty** **Born:** 5 January 1938		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Alfonso XIII**	**King of Spain** 1975–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Felipe, Prince of Asturias*
Political offices		
Preceded by **Francisco Franco** ***as Head of State***	**Head of State of Spain** ***as King of Spain*** 1975–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Felipe, Prince of Asturias*
Spanish royalty		

Preceded by **Juan**	**Count of Barcelona** 1993–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Felipe, Prince of Asturias*
Titles in pretence		
Preceded by **Alphonse de Bourbon y Vargas**	**Legitimist line of succession to the French throne**	Succeeded by **Felipe, Prince of Asturias**
Academic offices		
Preceded by **Thomas Klestil**	**Speaker of the College of Europe Opening Ceremony** 1994	Succeeded by **Klaus Hänsch**

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House of Bourbon

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Bourbon** (English /ˈbʊərbən/; French pronunciation: [bu.bɔ̃]) is a European royal house, a branch of the Capetian dynasty (/kəˈpiːʃən/). Bourbon kings first ruled Navarre and France in the 16th century. By the 18th century, members of the Bourbon dynasty also held thrones in Spain, Naples, Sicily, and Parma. Spain and Luxembourg currently have Bourbon monarchs.

Bourbon monarchs ruled Navarre (from 1555) and France (from 1589) until the 1792 overthrow of the monarchy during the French Revolution. Restored briefly in 1814 and definitively in 1815 after the fall of the First French Empire, the senior line of the Bourbons was finally overthrown in the July Revolution of 1830. A cadet branch, the House of Orléans, then ruled for 18 years (1830–1848), until it too was overthrown. The Princes of Condé (Bourbon-Condé) were a cadet branch of the Bourbon-Vendômes and, in turn, were senior to the Princes of Conti (Bourbon-Conti). Both these lines became extinct in the early nineteenth century.

Philip V of Spain was the first Bourbon ruler of Spain, from 1700. The Spanish Bourbons (in Spain the name is spelled **Borbón** and rendered into English as **Borbon**[1][2]) have been overthrown and restored several times, reigning 1700–1808, 1813–1868, 1875–1931, and 1975 to the present day. From this Spanish line comes the royal line of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (1734–1806 and 1815–1860, and Sicily only in 1806–1816), the Bourbon-Sicilies family, and the Bourbon rulers of the Duchy of Parma.

Grand Duchess Charlotte of Luxembourg married a cadet of the Bourbon-Parma line and thus her successors, who have ruled Luxembourg since her abdication in 1964, have also been members of the House of Bourbon. Isabel, Princess Imperial, the declared heiress and thrice-regent of the now-defunct Empire of Brazil, married twenty years before their deposition Gaston, comte d'Eu a prince of Orléans, and their descendants, known as the Orléans-Braganza, would have ascended to that throne had the empire not ended in 1889.

From the time of Hugh Capet to Charles X (987–1830), the senior Capets were also the Kings of France. In 1589, Henry IV, Head of the House of Bourbon, became the senior Capet, following the extinction of male line of the House of Valois. All members of the House of Bourbon and its cadet branches

House of Bourbon



Country	France, Navarre, Spain, Luxembourg
Ancestral house	Capetian Dynasty
Titles	■ King of France ■ King of Navarre ■ King of Spain ■ King of the Two Sicilies ■ Grand Duke of Luxembourg ■ Duke of Orléans ■ Duke of Bourbon ■ Duke of Vendôme ■ Duke of Parma ■ Duke of Seville
Final sovereign	France and Navarre: Charles X (1830) of the French: Louis-Philippe I (1830–1848) Parma: Roberto I (1854–1859) Two Sicilies: Francesco II (1859–1861)
Founding	1268–Robert, Count of Clermont, the sixth son of King Louis IX of France,

alive today are direct agnatic descendants of Henry IV.

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married Beatrix of Bourbon.

Deposition	France and Navarre: 1830: July Revolution Parma: 1859: Annexation by Kingdom of Sardinia Two Sicilies: 1861: Italian unification
Cadet branches	▪ House of Bourbon (Spanish branch) ▪ House of Bourbon-Parma ▪ House of Bourbon-Parma (Luxembourgish branch) ▪ House of Bourbon-Two Sicilies ▪ House of Bourbon-Braganza ▪ House of Bourbon-Orléans ▪ House of Orléans-Braganza ▪ House of Orléans-Galliera

History of France



This article is part of **a series**

Prehistory

Palaeolithic
Mesolithic
Neolithic
Copper Age
Bronze Age
Iron Age

Ancient history

Greek colonies

Origins

The pre-Capetian House of Bourbon was a noble family, dating at least from the beginning of the 13th century, when the estate of Bourbon was ruled by a Lord who was a vassal of the King of France.

In 1268, Robert, Count of Clermont, sixth son of King Louis IX of France, married Beatrix of Bourbon, heiress to the lordship of Bourbon. Their son Louis was made Duke of Bourbon in 1327. His descendant, the Constable of France Charles de Bourbon, was the last of the senior Bourbon line when he died in 1527. Because he chose to fight under the banner of Holy Roman Emperor Charles V and lead a life of exile, his title was discontinued after his death.

However the junior line of La Marche-Vendôme remained, the ruling house of the Dukedom of Vendôme. The Bourbon-Vendôme branch were to become rulers of the Kingdom of Navarre on the northern side of the Pyrenees in 1555 and then of France, with Henry III of Navarre becoming Henry IV of France. From then on, they were simply called Bourbon, until the creation of cadet branches.

France

The rise of Henry IV

Main article: Henry IV of France's succession

The first Bourbon King of France was Henry IV. He was born on 13 December 1553 in the Kingdom of Navarre. Antoine de Bourbon, his father, was a ninth generation descendant of King Louis IX of France. Jeanne d'Albret, his mother, was the Queen of Navarre and the niece of King Francis I of France. He was baptized Catholic, but raised Calvinist. After his father was killed in 1563, he became Duke of Vendôme at the age of 10, with Admiral Gaspard de Coligny (1519–1572) as his regent. Five years later, the young duke became the nominal leader of the Huguenots after the death of his uncle the Prince of Condé in 1569.

Henry succeeded to Navarre as Henry III when his mother died in 1572. That same year Catherine de' Medici, the influential mother of King Charles IX of France, arranged for the marriage of her daughter, Margaret of Valois, to Henry as a peace offering between the Catholics and Huguenots. Many Huguenots had gathered for the wedding held on 24 August and were massacred by the Catholics in the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre. Henry saved his own life by converting to Catholicism. He repudiated his conversion in 1576 and resumed his leadership of the Huguenots.

Celtic Gaul
Roman Gaul (50 BC–486 AD)
Early Middle Ages
The Franks
Merovingians (481 AD–751 AD)
Carolingians (751–987)
Middle Ages
Direct Capetians (987–1328)
Valois (1328–1498)
Early Modern
Valois-Orléans (1498–1515)
Valois-Angoulême (1515–1589)
House of Bourbon (1589–1792)
Kingdom of France (1492–1791)
Kingdom of France (1791–1792)
French Revolution (1789)
19th century
First Republic (1792–1804)
National Convention (1792–1795)
Directory (1795–1799)
Consulate (1799–1804)
First Empire (1804–1814)
Restoration (1814–1830)
July Revolution (1830)
July Monarchy (1830–1848)
1848 Revolution
Second Republic (1848–1852)
Second Empire (1852–1870)
Third Republic (1870–1940)
Paris Commune (1871)
20th century
French State (1940–1944)
Provisional Government (1944–1946)
Fourth Republic (1946–1958)
Fifth Republic (1958–present)

France Portal

The period from 1576 to 1584 was relatively calm in France, with the Huguenots consolidating control of much of the south with only occasional interference from the royal government. Extended civil war erupted again in 1584, when François, Duke of Anjou, younger brother of King Henry III of France, died, leaving Navarre next in line for the throne. Thus began the War of the Three Henries, as Henry of Navarre, Henry III, and the ultra-Catholic leader, Henry of Guise, fought a confusing three-cornered struggle for dominance. When Henry III was

assassinated on 31 July 1589, Navarre became the first Bourbon king of France as Henry IV.

Much of Catholic France, organized into the Catholic League, refused to recognize a Protestant monarch and instead recognized Henry IV's uncle, Charles, Cardinal de Bourbon, as king as Charles X, and the civil war continued. Henry won a crucial victory at Ivry on 14 March 1590, and following the death of the Cardinal the same year, the forces of the League lacked an obvious Catholic candidate for the throne and divided into various factions. Nevertheless, as a Protestant, Henry IV was unable to take Paris, a Catholic stronghold, or to decisively defeat his enemies, now supported by the Spanish. He reconverted to Catholicism in 1593—he is said to have remarked, "Paris is well worth a mass"[3]—and was crowned King of France at the Cathedral of Chartres on 27 February 1594.

Early Bourbons in France

Henry granted the Edict of Nantes on 13 April 1598, establishing Catholicism as an official state religion, but otherwise assuring the Huguenots the right to practice their religion. However, it did not grant full civil and religious equality to the Huguenots. This compromise ended the religious wars in France. That same year the Treaty of Vervins ended the war with Spain, adjusted the Spanish-French border, and resulted in a belated recognition by Spain of Henry as king of France.

Ably assisted by Maximilien de Béthune, duc de Sully, Henry reduced the land tax known as the *taille*; promoted agriculture, public works, construction of highways, and the first French canal; started such important industries as the tapestry works of the Gobelins; and intervened in favor of Protestants in the duchies and earldoms along the German frontier. This last was to be the cause of his assassination.



Henry IV of France, the first Bourbon King of France

Henry's marriage to Margaret, which had produced no heir, was annulled in 1599 and he married Marie de Medici, the niece of the grand duke of Tuscany. A son, Louis, was born to them in 1601. Henry IV was assassinated on 14 May 1610 in Paris. Louis XIII was only nine years old when he succeeded his father. He was to prove a weak ruler; his reign was effectively a series of distinct regimes, depending who held the effective reins of power. At first, Marie de Medici, his mother, served as regent and advanced a pro-Spanish policy. To deal with the financial troubles of France, Louis summoned the Estates General in 1614; this would be the last time that body met until the eve of the French Revolution. Marie arranged the 1615 marriage of Louis to Anne of Austria, the daughter of King Philip III of Spain.

In 1617, however, Louis conspired with Charles d'Albert, duc de Luynes to dispense with her influence, having her favorite Concino Concini assassinated on 26 April of that year. After some years of weak government by Louis's favorites, the King made Armand Jean du Plessis, Cardinal Richelieu, a former protégé of his mother, the chief minister of France in 1624.

Richelieu advanced an anti-Habsburg policy. He arranged for Louis' sister, Henrietta Maria, to marry King Charles I of England, on 11 May 1625. Her pro-Catholic propaganda in England was one of the contributing factors for the English Civil War. Richelieu, as ambitious for France and the French monarchy as for himself, laid the ground for the absolute monarchy that would last in France until the Revolution. He wanted to establish a dominating position for France in Europe, and he wanted to unify France under the monarchy. He established the role of *intendants*, non-noble men whose arbitrary powers were granted by (and revocable by) the monarchy and superseded many of the traditional duties and privileges of the noble governors.

Although it required a succession of internal military campaigns, he abolished the fortified Huguenot towns that Henry had allowed. He involved France in the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) against the Habsburgs by concluding an alliance with Sweden in 1631 and, actively, in 1635. He died in 1642 before the conclusion of that conflict, having groomed Cardinal Jules Mazarin as a successor. Louis XIII outlived him but by one year, dying in 1643 at the age of forty-two. After a childless marriage for twenty-three years he had a son with Anne on 5 September 1638, whom he named after himself.

Louis XIV and Louis XV

Main article: Louis XIV of France

Main article: Louis XV of France



Royal Coat of Arms of the Kingdom of France and Navarre.

When Louis XIV succeeded his father he was only four years old; he would become the most powerful king in French history. His mother Anne served as his regent with her favorite Jules Mazarin as chief minister. Mazarin continued the policies of Richelieu, bringing the Thirty Years' War to a successful conclusion in 1648 and defeating the noble challenge to royal absolutism in a series of civil wars known as the Fronde. He continued to war with Spain until 1659.

In that year the Treaty of the Pyrenees was signed signifying a significant shift in power, France had replaced Spain as the dominant state in Europe. One of the terms of the treaty arranged the marriage of Louis to his cousin Maria Theresa, the daughter of King Philip IV of Spain, by his first wife Elizabeth, the sister of Louis XIII. They were married in 1660 and had a son, Louis, in 1661. Mazarin died on 9 March 1661 and it was expected that Louis would appoint another chief minister, as had become the tradition, but instead he shocked the country by announcing he would rule alone.

Louis intended to glorify France by making war on his neighbors. For six years he reformed the finances of his state and built formidable armed forces. France fought three wars between 1667 and 1697 and gained some minor territory. Maria Theresa died in 1683 and the next year he married Françoise d'Aubigné, marquise de Maintenon. She had great influence over him especially in matters of religion. Louis XIV was staunchly Catholic and he revoked the Edict of Nantes on 18 October 1685, undoing the religious tolerance established by grandfather, Henry IV, almost a hundred years before.

The last war waged by Louis XIV proved to be one of the most important to dynastic Europe. In 1700, King Charles II of Spain died without a son. Louis's son the Grand Dauphin, as nephew to the late king, was closest heir, and Charles willed the kingdom to the Dauphin's second son, the Duke of Anjou. Other powers, particularly the Austrian Habsburgs, who had the next closest claims, objected to such a vast increase in French power.

Initially, most of the other powers were willing to accept Anjou's reign as Philip V, but Louis's arrogance and blunders soon made the English, the Dutch, and other powers join the Austrians in a coalition against France. The War of the Spanish Succession began in 1701 and raged for 12 years. In the end Louis's grandson was recognized as King of Spain, but the Habsburg's other European territories were largely ceded to Austria, and France was nearly bankrupted by the cost of the struggle. Louis died on 1 September 1715 ending his seventy-two year reign, the longest in European history.

The reign of Louis XIV was so long that he had outlived both his son and eldest grandson. He was succeeded by his great-grandson Louis XV. Louis XV was born on 15 February 1710 and was thus aged only five at his



Dynastic group portrait of Louis XIV (seated) with his son *le Grand Dauphin* (to the left), his grandson Louis, Duke of Burgundy (to the right), his great-grandson the duc d'Anjou, later Louis XV, and Madame de Ventadour, his governess, who commissioned this painting some years later; busts of Henry IV and Louis XIII in the background.

ascension, the third Louis in a row to become king of France before the age of ten. Initially, the regency was held by Philip, Duke of Orléans, Louis XIV's nephew, as nearest adult male to the throne. This Regency period was seen as one of debauchery and loose morals following the austere nature of the latter years of Louis XIV's reign, which had seen a series of cripplingly expensive wars and the King's turn to religiosity.

Following Orléans's death in 1723, another junior Bourbon, the Duke of Bourbon, the representative of the Bourbon-Condé line, became Prime Minister. It was expected that Louis would marry his cousin, the daughter of King Philip V of Spain, but this marriage was cancelled by the duke in 1725 so that Louis could marry Maria Leszczynska, the daughter of Stanislas, former king of Poland. Bourbon's motive appears to have been a desire to produce an heir as soon as possible so as to reduce the chances of a succession dispute between Philip V and the Duke of Orléans in the event of the sickly king's death. Maria was already an adult woman at the time of the marriage, while the Infanta was still a young girl.



A posthumous painting commissioned around 1670 by Philippe de France.It shows the French Bourbon Family around that time. It includes: Henrietta Maria of France (d 1669), exiled Queen of England; Philippe I, Duke of Orléans, founder of the House of Orléans; his first wife Princess Henriette (d 1670); the couples first daughter Marie Louise d'Orléans (later Queen of Spain);Anne of Austria (d 1666); the Orléans daughters of Gaston de France; Louis XIV; the Dauphin of France with his wife Maria Theresa of Spain with her third daughter Marie-Thérèse de France, called Madame Royale (d 1672) and her

Nevertheless, Bourbon's action brought a very negative response from Spain, and for his incompetence Bourbon was soon replaced by Cardinal Andre Hercule de Fleury, the young king's tutor, in 1726. Fleury was a peace loving man who intended to keep France out of war, but circumstances presented themselves that made this impossible.

The first cause of these wars came in 1733 when Augustus II, the elector of Saxony and king of Poland died. With French backing Stanislas was again elected king. This brought France into conflict with Russia and Austria who supported Augustus III, duke of Saxony and son of Augustus II.

Stanislas lost the Polish crown, but he was given the Duchy of Lorraine as compensation, which would pass to France after his death. Next came the War of the Austrian Succession in 1740 in which France supported King Frederick II of Prussia against Maria Theresa of Austria, archduchess of Austria. Fleury died in 1743 before the conclusion of the war.

second son *Philippe-Charles de France, duc d'Anjou* (d1671). The first daughter of Gaston stands on the far right:Anne Marie Louise d'Orléans. The picture frame with the 2 children are the other 2 daughters of Louis and Maria Theresa who died in 1662 and 1664.

Shortly after Fleury's death in 1745 Louis was most influenced by his mistress the Marquise de Pompadour. She reversed the policy of France in 1756 by creating an alliance with Austria against Prussia in the Seven Years' War. The war was a disaster for France, losing most of her overseas possessions to the British in the Treaty of Paris in 1763. Louis' only son died in 1765 making his grandson the Dauphin. Maria, his wife, died in 1768 and Louis himself died on 10 May 1774.

French Revolution

Main article: French Revolution

Louis XVI had become the dauphin of France upon the death of his father, the son of Louis XV, in 1765. He married Marie Antoinette of Austria, a daughter of Maria Theresa, in 1770. Louis intervened in the American Revolution against Britain in 1778, but he is most remembered for his role in the French Revolution. France was in financial turmoil and Louis was forced to convene the Estates-General on 5 May 1789.

They formed the National Assembly and forced Louis to accept a constitution that limited his powers on 14 July 1790. He tried to flee France in June 1791, but was captured. The French monarchy was abolished on 21 September 1792 and a republic was proclaimed. The chain of Bourbon monarchs begun in 1589 was broken. Louis XVI was executed on 21 January 1793.

Marie Antoinette and her son, Louis, were held as prisoners. Many French royalists proclaimed him Louis XVII, but he never reigned. She was executed on 16 October 1793. He died of tuberculosis on 8 June 1795 at the age of ten while in captivity.

The French Revolutionary Wars and Napoleonic Wars spread nationalism and anti-absolutism throughout Europe, and the other Bourbon monarchs were threatened. Ferdinand was forced to flee from Naples in 1806 when Napoleon Bonaparte deposed him and installed his brother, Joseph, as king. Ferdinand continued to rule from Sicily until 1815.

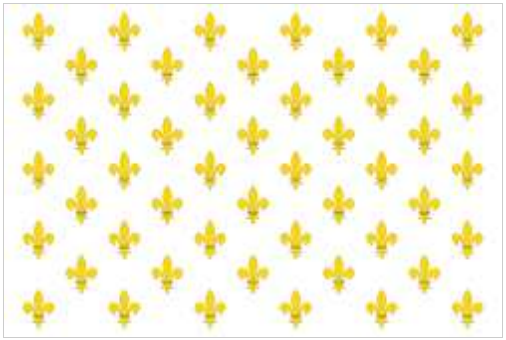
Napoleon conquered Parma in 1800 and compensated the Bourbon duke with Etruria, a new kingdom he created from the Grand Duchy of Tuscany. It was short-lived, as Napoleon annexed Etruria in 1807.

King Charles IV of Spain had been an ally of France. He succeeded his father, Charles III, in 1788. At first he declared war on France on 7 March 1793, but he made peace on 22 June 1795. This peace became an alliance on 19 August 1796. His chief minister, Manuel de Godoy convinced Charles that his son, Ferdinand, was plotting to overthrow him. Napoleon exploited the situation and invaded Spain in March 1808. This led to an uprising that forced Charles to abdicate on 19 March in favor of his son, Ferdinand VII. Napoleon forced Ferdinand to return the crown to Charles on 30 April and then convinced Charles to relinquish it to him on 10 May. In turn, he gave it to his brother, Joseph, king of Naples on 6 June. Joseph abandoned Naples to Joachim Murat, the husband of Napoleon's sister. This was very unpopular in Spain and resulted in the Peninsular War, a struggle that would contribute to the downfall of Napoleon.

The Bourbon Restoration

Main article: Bourbon Restoration

With the abdication of Napoleon on 11 April 1814 the Bourbon Dynasty was restored to the kingdom of France



The standard of the French royal family under the *Ancien Régime* and the restoration period.

in the person of Louis XVIII, brother of Louis XVI. Napoleon escaped from exile and Louis fled in March 1815. Louis was again restored after the Battle of Waterloo on 7 July.

The conservative elements of Europe dominated the post-Napoleonic age, but the values of the French Revolution could not be easily swept aside. Louis granted a constitution on 14 June 1814 to appease the liberals, but the ultra-royalist party, led by his brother, Charles, continued to influence his reign.[*citation needed*] When he died in 1824 his brother became king as Charles X much to the dismay of French liberals. In a saying ascribed to Talleyrand, "they had learned nothing and forgotten nothing".[4]

Aftermath

Charles passed several laws that appealed to the upper class, but angered the middle class. The situation came to a head when he appointed a new minister on 8 August 1829 who did not have the confidence of the chamber. The chamber censured the king on 18 March 1830 and in response Charles proclaimed five ordinances on 26 July intended to silence criticism against him.[*citation needed*] This almost resulted in another revolution as dramatic as the one in 1789, but moderates were able to control the situation.[*citation needed*] As a compromise the crown was offered to Louis-Philippe, duke of Orléans, a descendant of the brother of Louis XIV, and the head of the Orleanist cadet branch of the Bourbons. He was proclaimed King of the French on 7 August. The resulting regime, known as the July monarchy, lasted until the Revolution of 1848. The Bourbon monarchy in France ended on 24 February 1848, when Louis-Philippe was forced to abdicate and the short-lived French Second Republic was established.

Some legitimists refused to recognize the Orleanist monarchy. After the death of Charles in 1836 his son was proclaimed Louis XIX, though this title was never formally recognized. Charles' grandson Henri, comte de Chambord, the last Bourbon claimant of the French crown, was proclaimed by some Henry V, but the French monarchy was never restored.

Following the 1870 collapse of the empire of Emperor Napoleon III, Henri was offered a restored throne. However Chambord refused to accept the throne unless France abandoned the revolution-inspired tricolour and accepted what he regarded as the true Bourbon flag of France. The tricolour, originally associated with the French Revolution and the First French Republic, had been used by the July Monarchy, the Second Republic and both Empires; the French National Assembly could not possibly agree.

A *temporary* Third Republic was established, while monarchists waited for the comte de Chambord to die and for the succession to pass to the Comte de Paris, who was willing to accept the tricolour. Henri lived until 1883, by which time public opinion had come to accept the republic as the "form of government that divides us least." His death without issue marked the extinction of the French Bourbons. Thus head of the House of Bourbon became the now eldest male heir of the dynasty Juan, Count of Montizón of the Spanish line of the house who was also Carlist claimant to the throne of Spain. His heir as eldest Bourbon and head of the house is today Louis Alphonse, Duke of Anjou.

By an ordinance of Louis Philippe I of France of 13 August 1830, it was decided that the king's children (and his sister) would continue to bear the arms of Orléans, that Louis-Philippe's eldest son, as Prince Royal, would bear the title of duc d'Orléans, that the younger sons would continue to have their existing titles, and that the sister and daughters of the king would only be styled "princesses d'Orléans", which meant the Orléans royalty did not take the name "of France".

Bourbons of Spain and Italy

Philip V

The Spanish branch of the House of Bourbon was founded by Philip V. He was born in 1683 in Versailles, the second son of the Grand Dauphin, son of Louis XIV. He was Duke of Anjou and probably never expected to be raised to a rank higher than that. However King Charles II of Spain, dying without issue, willed the throne to his grand-nephew the Duke of Anjou, younger grandson of his eldest sister Marie-Thérèse, daughter of King Philip IV of Spain who had married Louis XIV of France.

The prospect of Bourbons on both the French and Spanish thrones was resisted as creating an imbalance of power in Europe by its dominant regimes and, upon Charles II's death on 1 November 1700, a Grand Alliance of European nations united against Philip. This was known as the War of Spanish Succession. In the Treaty of Utrecht, signed on 11 April 1713, Philip was recognized as king of Spain but his renunciation of succession rights to France was affirmed and, of the Spanish Empire's other European territories, Sicily was ceded to Savoy, and the Spanish Netherlands, Milan and Naples were alloted to the Austrian Habsburgs.

Philip had two sons by his first wife. After her death he married Elizabeth Farnese, niece of Francesco Farnese, Duke of Parma, in 1714. She presented Philip with three sons, for whom she had ambitions of securing Italian crowns. Thus she induced Philip to occupy Sardinia and Sicily in 1717.

A Quadruple Alliance of Britain, France, Austria and the Netherlands was organized on 2 August 1718 to stop him. In the Treaty of The Hague, signed on 17 February 1720, Philip renounced his conquests of Sardinia and Sicily, but assured the ascension of his eldest son by Elizabeth to the Duchy of Parma upon the reigning duke's death. Philip abdicated in January 1724 in favor of Louis I, his eldest son with his first wife, but Louis died in August and Philip resumed the crown.

When the War of the Polish Succession began in 1733, Philip and Elisabeth saw another opportunity to advance the claims of their sons and recover at least part of the former possessions of the Spanish crown on the Italian peninsula. Philip signed the Family Compact with Louis XV, his nephew and king of France. Charles, Duke of Parma since 1731, invaded Naples. At the conclusion of peace on 13 November 1738, control of Parma and Piacenza was ceded to Austria, which had occupied the duchies but was now forced to recognise Charles as King of Naples and Sicily. Philip also used the War of the Austrian Succession to win more territory in Italy. He did not live to see it to its conclusion, however, dying in 1746.

Ferdinand VI and Charles III

Ferdinand VI, second son of Philip V and his first wife, succeeded his father. He was a peace-loving monarch who kept Spain out of the Seven Years' War. He died in 1759 in the midst of that conflict and was succeeded by his half-brother Charles III. Charles was the eldest son of Philip and Elizabeth Farnese. He was born in 1716 and had become Duke of Parma when the last Farnese duke died in 1731.

Following Spain's victory over the Austrians at the battle of Bitonto, it proved inexpedient to reunite Naples and Sicily to Spain, so as a compromise Charles became King of Naples, as Charles IV and VII of Sicily. Following Charles' accession to the Spanish throne in 1759 he was required, by the Treaty of Naples of 3 October 1759, to abdicate Naples and Sicily to his third son, Ferdinand, thus initiating the branch known as the Neapolitan Bourbons.

Charles revived the Family Compact with France on 15 August 1761 and joined in the Seven Years' War against Britain in 1762; the reformist policies he had espoused in Naples were pursued with similar energy in Spain,

where he completely overhauled the cumbersome bureaucracy of the state. As a French ally he opposed Britain during the American Revolution in June 1779, supplying large quantities of weapons and munitions to the rebels and keeping one third of all the British forces in the Americas occupied defending Florida and what is now Alabama, which were ultimately recaptured by Spain. Charles died in 1788.

Bourbon-Parma

Elizabeth Farnese's ambitions were realized at the conclusion of the War of the Austrian Succession in 1748 when the Duchy of Parma and Piacenza, already occupied by Spanish troops, were ceded by Austria to her second son, Philip, and combined with the former Gonzaga duchy of Guastalla.

Elizabeth died in 1766.

Later Bourbon monarchs outside France

Upon the fall of the Napoleonic empire, Ferdinand I was restored to the throne of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies in 1815. His subjects revolted on 2 July 1820 and he was forced to grant a constitution on 13 July. Austria invaded in March 1821 and revoked the constitution. He was succeeded by his son, Francis I, in 1825 and by his grandson, Ferdinand II, in 1830. Another revolution erupted on 12 January 1848 and Ferdinand was also forced to grant a constitution on 10 February. This constitution was revoked in 1849. Ferdinand was succeeded by his son, Francis II, in May 1859.

When Giuseppe Garibaldi captured Naples on 7 September 1860 Francis restored the constitution on 2 July in an attempt to save his sovereignty. He fled to the fortress of Gaeta, which was captured by the Piedmontese troops on 13 February 1861; his kingdom was incorporated in the Kingdom of Italy on 17 March 1861, after the fall the fortress of Messina (surrendered on 12 March 1861), although the Neapolitan troops in Civitella del Tronto resisted until 20 March.

After the fall of Napoleon, Napoleon's wife, Maria Louisa, was made Duchess of Parma. As compensation, Charles Louis, the former king of Etruria, was made the Duke of Lucca. When Maria Louisa died in 1847 he was restored to Parma as Charles II. Lucca was incorporated into Tuscany. He was succeeded by his son, Charles III, and grandson, Robert I, in 1854. The people of Parma voted for a union with the kingdom of Sardinia on 13 March 1860. After Italian unification in 1861 the Bourbon dynasty in Italy was no more.

Ferdinand VII was restored to the throne of Spain after the fall of Napoleon in March 1814. Like his Italian Bourbon counterpart his subjects revolted against him in January 1820 and he was forced to grant a constitution. A French army invaded in 1823 and the constitution was revoked. Ferdinand married his fourth wife, Maria Christina, the daughter of Francis I, the Bourbon king of Sicily, in 1829. Despite his many marriages he did not have a son so on 30 June 1833 he was influenced by his wife to abolish the Salic Law so that her daughter, Isabella, could become queen depriving his brother, Don Carlos, of the throne.

Isabella II succeeded her father when he died on 29 September 1833. She was only three years old and Maria Cristina, her mother, served as regent. Maria knew that she needed the support of the liberals to oppose Don Carlos so she granted a constitution in 1834. Don Carlos found his greatest support in Catalonia and the Basques country because the constitution centralized the provinces thus denying them the autonomy they sought. He was defeated and fled the country in 1839. Isabella was declared of age in 1843 and she married her cousin Francisco de Asis, the son of her father's brother, on 10 October 1846. A military revolution broke out against Isabella in 1868 and she was deposed on 29 September. She abdicated in favor of her son, Alfonso, in 1870, but Spain was proclaimed a republic for a brief time.

When the First Spanish Republic failed the crown was offered to Isabella's son who accepted on 1 January 1875 as Alfonso XII. Don Carlos, who returned to Spain, was again defeated and resumed his exile in February 1876. Alfonso granted a new constitution on July 1876 that was more liberal than the one granted by his grandmother. His reign was cut short when he died in 1885 at the age of twenty-eight.

Alfonso XIII was born on 17 May 1886 after the death of his father. His mother, Maria Christina, the second wife of Alfonso XII served as regent. Alfonso XIII was declared of age in 1902 and he married Victoria Eugénie Julia Ena of Battenberg, the granddaughter of the British queen Victoria, on 31 May 1906. He remained neutral during World War I, but supported the military coup of Miguel Primo de Rivera on 13 September 1923. A movement towards the establishment of a republic began in 1930 and Alfonso fled the country on 14 April 1931. He never formally abdicated, but lived the rest of his life in exile. He died in 1941.

The Bourbon dynasty seemed finished in Spain as in the rest of the world, but it would be resurrected. The Second Spanish Republic was overthrown in the Spanish Civil War, leading to the dictatorship of Francisco Franco. He named Juan Carlos de Borbón, a grandson of Alfonso XIII, his successor on 22 July 1969. When Franco died on 20 November 1975 a Bourbon monarch was restored to the throne of Spain two days later as Juan Carlos I. The new king oversaw the Spanish transition to democracy; the Spanish Constitution of 1978, approved on 28 September 1978, recognized the monarchy.

Though it is not as powerful as it once was under Louis XIV and it no longer reigns in its native country of France, it is by no means extinct, and the House of Bourbon has survived to the present-day world of republics. The birth of a male heir to the Prince of Asturias in Spain is expected to trigger a change in the law of succession from male primogeniture to equal primogeniture.[*citation needed*] Since 1964 the Bourbon-Parma line has reigned agnatically in Luxembourg through Grand Dukes Jean and his son Henri. In June 2011, Luxembourg adopted equal primogeniture, replacing the old Semi-Salic law that might have guaranteed the survival of Bourbon rule for generations. The European phenomenon of equal primogeniture has doomed the security that the Bourbon monarchs once had.

List of Bourbons

Main articles: Descendants of Henry IV of France, Descendants of Louis XIV of France, Descendants of Philip V of Spain, Descendants of Charles III of Spain, and List of living legitimate male Capetians

List of Bourbon rulers

France

Monarchs of France

Dates indicate reigns, not lifetimes.

- Henry IV, the Great (1589–1610)
- Louis XIII, the Just (1610–1643)
- Louis XIV, the Sun King (1643–1715)
- Louis XV, the Well-Beloved (1715–1774)
- Louis XVI (1774–1792)

Claimants to the throne of France

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Louis XVI (1792–1793)
- Louis XVII (1793–1795)
- Louis XVIII (1795–1814)

Monarchs of France

Dates indicate reigns, not lifetimes.

- Louis XVIII (1814–1824)
- Charles X (1824–1830)
- Louis-Philippe (House of Bourbon-Orléans) (1830–1848)

Legitimist claimants in France

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Charles X (1830–1836)
- Louis-Antoine, Duke of Angoulême (Louis XIX) (1836–1844)
- Henry, Count of Chambord (Henri V) (1844–1883)

Legitimist claimants in France (Spanish branch)

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Juan, Count of Montizón (Jean III) (1883–1887)
- Carlos, Duke of Madrid (Charles XI) (1887–1903)
- Jaime, Duke of Anjou and Madrid (Jacques I) (1903–1931)
- Alfonso Carlos, Duke of San Jaime (Charles XII)(1931–1936)
- Alfonso XIII of Spain (Alphonse I) (1936–1941) (did not claim the Throne of France[5])
- Jaime, Duke of Segovia (Henri VI) (1941–1975)
- Alfonso, Duke of Anjou and Cádiz (Alphonse II) (1975–1989)
- Louis Alphonse, Duke of Anjou (Louis XX) (1989–present)

Orléanist and Unionist claimants in France

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Philippe, Count of Paris (Philippe VII) (1883–1894)
- Philippe, Duke of Orléans (Philippe VIII) (1894–1926)
- Jean, Duke of Guise (Jean III) (1926–1940)
- Henri, Count of Paris (Henry VI) (1940–1999)
- Henri, Count of Paris (Henry VII) (1999 – Present)

Spain

Monarchs of Spain

Dates indicate seniority, not lifetimes. Where reign as king or queen of Spain is different, this is noted.

- Philip V (1700–1746) [abdicated 1724, resumed throne on death of son]
  - Louis I [King 1724; ruled less than one year]
- Ferdinand VI (1746–1759)
- Charles III (1759–1788)
- Charles IV (1788–1808)
- Ferdinand VII, *El Deseado* (1808–1833) [King 1808, 1813–1833]
- Isabella II (1833–1870) [Queen 1833–1868]
- Alfonso XII (1870–1885) [King 1874–1885]
- Alfonso XIII (1886–1941) [King 1886–1931]
- Juan, Count of Barcelona (1941–1977) [did not become King]
- Juan Carlos I (1977–present) [King 1975–present]

Carlist claimants in Spain

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Infante Carlos, Count of Molina (Carlos V) (1833–1845)
- Infante Carlos, Count of Montemolin (Carlos VI) (1845–1861)
- Juan, Count of Montizón (Juan II) (1861–1868)
- Carlos, Duke of Madrid (Carlos VII) (1868–1909)
- Jaime, Duke of Madrid (Jaime III) (1909–1931)
- Alfonso Carlos of Bourbon, Duke of San Jaime (Alfonso Carlos I) (1931–1936)
- Xavier, Duke of Parma (Xavier I) (1936–1952–1977)
- Carlos Hugo of Bourbon, Duke of Parma (Carlos Hugo I) (1977–1979)
- Prince Sixtus Henry of Bourbon-Parma (Sixto Enrique I) (1979–present)

Luxembourg

Grand Dukes of Luxembourg

Dates indicate reigns, not lifetimes.

- Jean (1964–2000)
- Henri (2000–present)

Other significant Bourbon titles

- Dukes of Bourbon
- Dukes of Montpensier
- Dukes of Vendôme
- Dukes of Anjou
- Kings of the Two Sicilies
- Dukes of Parma
- Dukes of Orléans
- Princes of Orléans-Braganza
- Princes of Condé
- Princes of Conti

Bourbon branches

Notable legitimate branches

- House of Bourbon-Orléans
  - Called the House of Orléans and holders of the title Duke of Orléans. This house was founded by the younger brother of Louis XIV: Philippe I, Duke of Orléans. This is the oldest (and thus, the most genealogically junior) surviving cadet branch of the House of Bourbon.
- House of Bourbon-Two Sicilies
- House of Bourbon-Parma
- House of Bourbon-Braganza (also called Branch of the Infant Gabriel)
- House of Bourbon-Orléans-Braganza (called the House of Orléans-Braganza and now representing the Brazilian Imperial Family)
- House of Bourbon-Montpensier (extinct)
- House of Bourbon-Condé (extinct)
- House of Bourbon-Conti (extinct)
- **House of Bourbon-La Marche** (extinct)
- **House of Bourbon-Soissons** (extinct)

Notable morganatic branches

- **House of Bourbon-Orléans-Galliera** (called the *House of Orléans-Galliera*)

Notable illegitimate branches

- Bourbon-Busset
  - an illegitimate branch senior to the Henry IV's House of Bourbon
- Bourbon-Vendôme
  - (extinct at the death of Louis Joseph de Bourbon, duc de Vendôme, great grandson of Henry IV of France) – 1598–1712
- Bourbon-Maine
  - (extinct at the death of *Louis Charles de Bourbon, comte d'Eu*, grandson of Louis XIV) – 1672–1775
- Bourbon-Penthièvre
  - (extinct at the death of Louis Jean Marie de Bourbon, duc de Penthièvre in 1793 but his daughter Louise Marie Adélaïde de Bourbon-Penthièvre who died in 1821 inherited all of the Bourbon-Penthièvre wealth) – 1725–1793/1821
- Bourbon-Bhopal

Surnames used

Officially, the King of France had no family name. A prince with the rank of *fils de France* (Son of France) are surnamed "*de France*"; all his descendants, however, had his main title (whether an appanage or a courtesy title) as their family or last name.

Members of the House of Bourbon-Conde and its cadet branches, which never ascended to the throne, used the surname "de Bourbon" until their extinction in 1830.

The daughters of Gaston, Duke of Orleans, were the first members of the House of Bourbon since the accession of Henry IV to take their surname from the appanage of their father (d'Orleans). Gaston died without a male heir; his titles reverted to the crown. It was given to his nephew, Philippe I, Duke of Orleans, brother of Louis

XIV, whose descendants still bear the surname.

When Philippe, grandson of Louis XIV, became King of Spain as Philip V, he gave up his French titles. As a Son of France, his actual surname was "de France". However, since such surname cannot be passed to a descendant with a rank lower than Son of France, and since Philippe had already given up his French titles, his descendants simply took the name of their royal house as their surname ("de Bourbon", rendered in Spanish as "de Borbón").

The children of Philippe's brother, Charles, Duke of Berry (all of whom died in infancy), were given the surname "d'Alencon". He was Duke of Berry only by name, so the surname of his children were taken from his first substantial duchy.

The children of Charles Philippe, Count of Artois, brother of Louis XVI, were surnamed "d'Artois". When Charles succeeded to the throne as Charles X, his son Louis Antoine became a Son of France, with the corresponding change in surname. His grandson, Henri d'Artois, being merely a Grandson of France, would use the surname until his death.

See also

- List of living legitimate male Capetians
- Members of the House of Bourbon
- Bourbon County, Kentucky, USA, named after the royal family
- Bourbon family tree
- Bourbonnais
- Bourbons of India and the controversy about them.
- French Wars of Religion
- Image:Habsburg-bourbon-parma-2siciliesX.png: A chart of the dynastic links among the royal houses of Habsburg, Bourbon, Bourbon-Parma and Bourbon-Two Sicilies
- Kings of France family tree
- Le Retour des Princes Français à Paris
- Legitimists
- List of Spanish monarchs
- Members of the French Royal Families

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1. ^ The Royal Household of His Majesty the King_ Welcome (http://www.casareal.es/sm_rey/index-iden-idweb.html)
2. ^ The English language version of the Official Royal Family website is rendered as **Borbon**
3. ^ Frieda, Leonie, *Catherine de Medici*
4. ^ In French: *Ils n'ont rien appris, ni rien oublié.* There is no historic evidence linking the saying to Talleyrand. It may derive from a similar lamentation about the royalists, found in a letter by Charles Louis Etienne, chevalier de Panat, a French naval officer, dated January 1796 and sent from London to Mallet du Pan: *personne n'a su ni rien oublier, ni rien apprendre* ("nobody has been able to forget anything, nor to learn anything"), included in: A. Sayou, ed. (1852). *Mémoires et correspondance de Mallet du Pan* (http://books.google.com/books?id=LZpCAAAAYAAJ&pg=PA197) . **II**. p. 197. http://books.google.com/books?id=LZpCAAAAYAAJ&pg=PA197.
5. ^ Letter of the Count of Barcelona to the Spanish Minister of Justice(1972) (http://www.heraldica.org/topics/national/sp_succ.htm#juan1972%20)

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Chronology of French monarchs

House of Bourbon as Ruling House

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">— Royal house —
House of Bourbon
Cadet branch of the Capetian dynasty
Founding year: 1272</td></tr>
<tr><td>Preceded by
House of Valois</td><td>Ruling House of France
1589–1792</td><td>Monarchy Abolished
See French Revolution;
eventually House of Bonaparte</td></tr>
<tr><td>Preceded by
House of Bonaparte
Ruled as French Emperor</td><td>Ruling House of France
1814–1830</td><td>Succeeded by
House of Orléans</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Preceded by
House of Habsburg</td><td>Ruling House of the Duchy of Burgundy and the Burgundian Netherlands
1700–1713</td><td>Succeeded by
House of Habsburg</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ruling House of Spain
1700–1808</td><td rowspan="2">Succeeded by
House of Bonaparte</td></tr>
<tr><td>Vacant
Title last held by
House of Trastámara</td><td>Ruling House of Naples and Sicily
1753–1806</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Preceded by
House of Bonaparte</td><td>Ruling House of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies
1815–1860</td><td>Kingdom Abolished
Italian Unification under the House of Savoy</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ruling House of Spain
1813–1868</td><td>Interregnum
Bourbon Monarchy overthrown in Glorious Revolution;
eventually House of Savoy</td></tr>
<tr><td>Vacant
Title last held by
House of Savoy</td><td>Ruling House of Spain
1885–1931</td><td>Second Republic Declared</td></tr>
<tr><td>Vacant
Title last held by
House of Bourbon</td><td>Ruling House of Spain
1975–present</td><td rowspan="2">Incumbent</td></tr>
<tr><td>Preceded by
House of Nassau-Weilburg</td><td>Ruling House of Luxembourg
1964–present</td></tr>
</table>

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Categories: History of Spain | Roman Catholic families | House of Bourbon | European royal families

Capetian dynasty | French noble families | French royal families

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Sweden

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Sweden (/ˈswiːdən/ *SWEE-dən*; Swedish: *Sverige* ['sværjɛ] (listen)), officially the **Kingdom of Sweden** (Swedish: *Konungariket Sverige*), is a Nordic country on the Scandinavian Peninsula in Northern Europe. Sweden borders with Norway and Finland, and is connected to Denmark by a bridge-tunnel across the Öresund.

At 450,295 square kilometres (173,860 sq mi), Sweden is the third largest country in the European Union by area, with a total population of about 9.4 million.[5] Sweden has a low population density of 21 inhabitants per square kilometre (54 /sq mi) with the population mostly concentrated to the southern half of the country. About 85% of the population live in urban areas.[12] Sweden's capital is Stockholm, which is also the largest city.

Sweden emerged as an independent and unified country during the Middle Ages. In the 17th century, the country expanded its territories to form the Swedish Empire. The empire grew to be one of the great powers of Europe in the 17th and early 18th century. Most of the conquered territories outside the Scandinavian Peninsula were lost during the 18th and 19th centuries. The eastern half of Sweden, present-day Finland, was lost to Russia in 1809. The last war in which Sweden was directly involved was in 1814, when Sweden by military means forced Norway into a personal union. Since then, Sweden has been at peace, adopting a non-aligned foreign policy in peacetime and neutrality in wartime.[13]

Today, Sweden is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy of government and a highly developed economy. In 2010, it ranked fourth in the world in *The Economist*'s Democracy Index and ninth in the United Nations' Human Development Index. In 2010, the World Economic Forum ranked Sweden as the second most competitive country in the world, after Switzerland.[14] According to the UN, it has the third lowest infant mortality rate in the world. Sweden also has the lowest Gini coefficient of all countries (0.23) which makes Sweden the most equal country on earth in terms of economic division. Sweden has been a member of the European Union since 1 January 1995 and is a member of the OECD.

Kingdom of Sweden
Konungariket Sverige



Flag Coat of arms

Motto: (Royal) "*För Sverige i tiden*"[a]
"For Sweden – With the Times"

Anthem: *Du gamla, Du fria*[b]
Thou ancient, thou free
Royal anthem: *Kungssången*
The Song of the King



Location of **Sweden** (dark green)
– in Europe (green & dark grey)
– in the European Union (green) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Stockholm 59°21′N 18°4′E
Official language(s)	Swedish[c]
Ethnic groups	90.8% Swedes[1][d] ~3% Finns[2] ~1% other Nordics ~5,2% other (2011)[3][4]
Demonym	Swedish or Swedes
Government	Constitutional monarchy, Unitary parliamentary representative democracy
- Monarch	King Carl XVI Gustaf
- Prime Minister	Fredrik Reinfeldt (M)

Contents

- 1 Etymology
- 2 History
  - 2.1 Prehistory
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  - 2.4 Modern history
  - 2.5 World Wars
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  - 2.7 Recent history
- 3 Geography
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- 4 Politics
  - 4.1 Administrative divisions
  - 4.2 Political history
  - 4.3 Political system
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- 5 Economy
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- 7 Culture
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- 8 See also
- 9 References
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- Speaker of the riksdag	Per Westerberg (M)
Legislature	Riksdag
Consolidation	Middle Ages
Area	
- Total	449,964 km^2 (57th) 173,745 sq mi
- Water (%)	8.7
Population	
- 2011 census	9,415,295[5]
- Density	20.6/km^2 (192nd) 53.8/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate
- Total	$337.893 billion[6]
- Per capita	$36,502[6]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$443.718 billion[6]
- Per capita	$47,934[6]
Gini (2005)	23 (low)
HDI (2010)	▲ 0.885[7] (very high) (9th)
Currency	Swedish krona (SEK)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Date formats	yyyy-mm-dd
Drives on the	right[e]
ISO 3166 code	SE
Internet TLD	.se[f]
Calling code	46

a. ^ *För Sverige – I tiden* has been adopted by Carl XVI Gustaf as his personal motto.

b. ^ *Du gamla, Du fria* has never been officially adopted as national anthem, but is so by convention.

c. ^ Since 1 July 2009.[8][9] Five other languages are officially recognized as minority languages.[10] They are: Finnish, Meänkieli, Romani, Sami and Yiddish. The Swedish Sign Language also has a special status.

d. ^ As of 2008, 18% of the population had foreign origins (13% if excluding Finns and 9% if also excluding other Scandinavians), with 14% foreign-born and another 4% born in Sweden of two foreign-born parents.[11]

Etymology

Main article: Name of Sweden

The modern name *Sweden* is derived through back-formation from Old English *Swēoþēod*, which meant "people of the Swedes" (Old Norse *Svíþjóð*, Latin *Suetidi*). This word is derived from *Sweon/Sweonas* (Old Norse *Sviar*, Latin S*uiones*). The Swedish name *Sverige* (a conjunction of the words *Svea* and *Rike*, first recorded as *Swēorice* in Beowulf, with the consonant 'k' softened to 'g'[15] – compare "rige" in modern Danish) literally means "Kingdom of the Swedes", excluding the Geats in Götaland.

e. ^ Since 3 September 1967.

f. ^ The .eu domain is also used, as it is shared with other European Union member states. The .nu domain is another commonly used top-level domain ("nu" means "now" in Swedish).

Variations of the name *Sweden* are used in most languages, with the exception of Danish and Norwegian using *Sverige*, Icelandic *Svíþjóð*, and the more notable exception of some Finno-Ugric languages where *Ruotsi* (Finnish) and *Rootsi* (Estonian) are used, names commonly considered etymologically related to the English name for Russia, referring to the people, *Rus'*, originally from the coastal areas of Roslagen, Uppland.

The etymology of *Swedes*, and thus *Sweden*, is generally not agreed upon but may derive from Proto-Germanic *Swihoniz* meaning "one's own",[16] referring to one's own Germanic tribe.

History

Main article: History of Sweden

Prehistory

Main article: Prehistoric Sweden

Sweden's prehistory begins in the Allerød warm period c. 12,000 BC with Late Palaeolithic reindeer-hunting camps of the Bromme culture at the edge of the ice in what is now the country's southernmost province. This period was characterized by small bands of hunter-gatherer-fishers using flint technology.

Sweden enters proto-history with the *Germania* of Tacitus in AD 98. In Germania 44, 45 he mentions the Swedes (*Suiones*) as a powerful tribe (*distinguished not merely for their arms and men, but for their powerful fleets*) with ships that had a prow in both ends (longships). Which kings (*kuningaz*) ruled these Suiones is unknown, but Norse mythology presents a long line of legendary and semi-legendary kings going back to the last centuries BC. As for literacy in Sweden itself, the runic script was in use among the south Scandinavian elite by at least the 2nd century AD, but all that has come down to the present from the Roman Period is curt inscriptions on artefacts, mainly of male names, demonstrating that the people of south Scandinavia spoke Proto-Norse at the time, a language ancestral to Swedish and other North Germanic languages.

In the 6th century Jordanes named two tribes he calls the *Suehans* and the *Suetidi* who lived in Scandza. These two names are both considered to refer to the same tribe. The *Suehans*, he says, has very fine horses just as the "Thyringi" tribe (*alia vero gens ibi moratur Suehans, quae velud Thyringi equis utuntur eximiis*). Snorri Sturluson wrote that the contemporary Swedish king Adils (Eadgils) had the finest horses of his days. The Suehans were the suppliers of black fox skins for the Roman market. Then Jordanes names the *Suetidi* which is considered to be the Latin form of *Svitjod*. He writes that the Suetidi are the tallest of men together with the Dani who were of the same stock. Later he mentions other Scandinavian tribes for being of the same height.

Originating in semi-legendary Scandza, believed to be somewhere in modern Götaland, Sweden, a Gothic population had crossed the Baltic Sea before the 2nd century AD, reaching Scythia at the coast of the Black Sea in modern Ukraine where Goths left their archaeological traces in the Chernyakhov culture. In the 5th and 6th

centuries, they became divided as the Visigoths and the Ostrogoths, and established powerful successor-states of the Roman Empire in the Iberian peninsula and Italy.[17] Crimean Gothic communities appear to have survived intact in Crimea until the late 18th century.[18]

Viking and Middle Ages

See also: Early Swedish history, Foundation of Modern Sweden, and Varangians

The Swedish Viking Age lasted roughly between the 8th and 11th centuries. It is believed that Swedish Vikings and Gutar mainly travelled east and south, going to Finland, the Baltic countries, Russia, Belarus, Ukraine the Black Sea and further as far as Baghdad. Their routes passed through the Dnieper down south to Constantinople, on which they did numerous raids. The Byzantine Emperor Theophilos noticed their great skills in war and invited them to serve as his personal bodyguard, known as the varangian guard. The Swedish Vikings, called "Rus" are also believed to be the founding fathers of Kievan Rus. The Arabic traveller "Ibn Fadlan" described these Vikings as following:

> *I have seen the Rus as they came on their merchant journeys and encamped by the Itil. I have never seen more perfect physical specimens, tall as date palms, blond and ruddy; they wear neither tunics nor caftans, but the men wear a garment which covers one side of the body and leaves a hand free. Each man has an axe, a sword, and a knife, and keeps each by him at all times. The swords are broad and grooved, of Frankish sort.*[19]

The adventures of these Swedish Vikings are commemorated on many runestones in Sweden, such as the Greece Runestones and the Varangian Runestones. There was also considerable participation in expeditions westwards, which are commemorated on stones such as the England Runestones. The last major Swedish Viking expedition appears to have been the ill-fated expedition of Ingvar the Far-Travelled to Serkland, the region south-east of the Caspian Sea. Its members are commemorated on the Ingvar Runestones, none of which mentions any survivor. What happened to the crew is unknown, but it is believed that they died of sickness.

The Kingdom of Sweden

It is not known when and how the kingdom of Sweden was born, but the list of Swedish monarchs is drawn from the first kings known to have ruled both Svealand (Sweden) and Götaland (Gothia) as one province, beginning with Erik the Victorious. Sweden and Gothia were two separate nations long before that into antiquity. It is not known how long they existed, *Beowulf* described semi-legendary Swedish-Geatish wars in the 6th century.

Cultural advances



Gamla Uppsala, a site of religious and political importance in the early days of Sweden.

During the early stages of the Scandinavian Viking Age, Ystad in Scania and Paviken on Gotland, in present-day Sweden, were flourishing trade centres. Remains of what is believed to have been a large market have been found in Ystad dating from 600–700 AD.[20] In Paviken, an important centre of trade in the Baltic region during the 9th and 10th century, remains have been found of a large Viking Age harbour with shipbuilding yards and handicraft industries. Between 800 and 1000, trade brought an abundance of silver to Gotland, and according to some scholars, the Gotlanders of this era hoarded more silver than the rest of the population of Scandinavia combined.[20]

St. Ansgar is usually credited for introducing Christianity in 829, but the new religion did not begin to fully

replace paganism until the 12th century. During the 11th century, Christianity became the most prevalent religion, and from 1050 Sweden is counted as a Christian nation. The period between 1100 and 1400 was characterized by internal power struggles and competition among the Nordic kingdoms. Swedish kings also began to expand the Swedish-controlled territory in Finland, creating conflicts with the Rus who no longer had any connection with Sweden.[21]

Feudal institutions in Sweden

Except for the province of Skane, on the southernmost tip of Sweden which was under Danish control during this time, feudalism never developed in Sweden as it did in the rest of Europe.[22] Therefore, the peasantry remained largely a class of free farmers throughout most of Swedish history. Slavery (also called thralldom) was not common in Sweden,[23] and what slavery there was tended to be driven out of existence by the spread of Christianity, the difficulty in obtaining slaves from the lands east of the Baltic Sea, and by the development of cities before the 16th century[24] Indeed, both slavery and serfdom were abolished altogether by a decree of King Magnus Erickson in 1335. Former slaves tended to be absorbed into the peasantry and some became labourers in the towns. Still, Sweden remained a poor and economically backward country in which barter was the means of exchange. For instance, the farmers of the province of Dalsland would transport their butter to the mining districts of Sweden and exchange it there for iron, which they would then take down to the coast and trade the iron for fish they needed for food while the iron would be shipped abroad.[25]

The Plague in Sweden

In the 14th century, Sweden was struck by the Black Death. The population of Sweden was decimated.[26] During this period the Swedish cities also began to acquire greater rights and were strongly influenced by German merchants of the Hanseatic League, active especially at Visby. In 1319, Sweden and Norway were united under King Magnus Eriksson, and in 1397 Queen Margaret I of Denmark effected the personal union of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark through the Kalmar Union. However, Margaret's successors, whose rule was also centred in Denmark, were unable to control the Swedish nobility.



Valdemar IV takes control over Swedish Gotland. The final fight outside the walls of Visby ended with a total massacre of 1,800 Gotlanders.

Minors and Regents

A large number of children inherited the Swedish crown over the course of the kingdom's existence, consequently — real power was held for long periods by regents (notably those of the Sture family) chosen by the Swedish parliament. King Christian II of Denmark, who asserted his claim to Sweden by force of arms, ordered a massacre in 1520 of Swedish nobles at Stockholm. This came to be known as the "Stockholm blood bath" and stirred the Swedish nobility to new resistance and, on 6 June (now Sweden's national holiday) in 1523, they made Gustav Vasa their king.[27] This is sometimes considered as the foundation of modern Sweden. Shortly afterwards he rejected Catholicism and led Sweden into the Protestant Reformation. Economically, Gustav Vasa broke the monopoly of the Hanseatic League over Swedish Baltic Sea trade.[28]

The Hanseatic League had been officially formed at Lübeck on the sea coast of Northern Germany in 1356. The Hanseatic League sought civil and commercial privileges from the princes and royalty of the countries and cities along the coasts of the Baltic Sea.[29] In exchange they offered a certain amount of protection. Having their own navy the Hansa were able to sweep the Baltic Sea free of pirates.[30] The privileges obtained by the Hansa included assurances that only Hansa citizens would be allowed to trade from the ports where they were located. They also sought agreement to be free of all customs and taxes. With these concessions, Lübeck merchants

flocked to Stockholm, Sweden and soon came to dominate the economic life of that city and made the port city of Stockholm into the leading commercial and industrial city of Sweden.[31] Under the Hanseatic trade 2/3rds of Stockholm's imports consisted of textiles and 1/3 of salt. Exports from Sweden consisted of iron and copper.[32]

However, the Swedes began to resent the monopoly trading position of the Hansa (mostly German citizens) and to resent the income they felt they lost to the Hansa. Consequently, when Gustav Vasa or Gustav I broke the monopoly power of the Hanseatic League he was regarded as a hero to the Swedish people. History now views Gustav I as the father of the modern Swedish nation. The foundations laid by Gustav would take time to develop. Furthermore, when Sweden did develop, freed itself from the Hanseatic League and entered its golden era, the fact the peasantry had traditionally been free meant that more of the economic benefits flowed back to them rather than going to a feudal landowning class.[33] This was not the case in other countries of Europe like Poland where the peasantry was still bound by serfdom and a strong feudalistic land owning system.

Swedish Empire

See also: History of Sweden (1611–1648), Swedish Empire, Swedish overseas colonies, Sweden and the Great Northern War, Absolute Monarchy in Sweden, Sweden-Finland, and Union between Sweden and Norway



The Swedish Empire between 1560 and 1815

During the 17th century Sweden emerged as a European great power. Before the emergence of the Swedish Empire, Sweden was a very poor and scarcely populated country on the fringe of European civilization, with no significant power or reputation. Sweden rose to prominence on a continental scale during the tenure of king Gustavus Adolphus, seizing territories from Russia and Poland–Lithuania in multiple conflicts, including the Thirty Years' War.

During the Thirty Years' War, Sweden conquered approximately half of the Holy Roman states. Gustav Adolphus planned to become the new Holy Roman Emperor, ruling over a united Scandinavia and the Holy Roman states, but he died at the Battle of Lützen in 1632. After the Battle of Nördlingen, Sweden's only significant military defeat of the war, pro-Swedish sentiment among the German states faded. These German provinces excluded themselves from Swedish power one by one, leaving Sweden with only a few northern German territories: Swedish Pomerania, Bremen-Verden and Wismar. The Swedish armies may have destroyed up to 2,000 castles, 18,000 villages and 1,500 towns in Germany, one-third of all German towns.[34]


Stockholm in mid-17th century

In the middle of the 17th century Sweden was the third largest country in Europe by land area, only surpassed by Russia and Spain. Sweden reached its largest territorial extent under the rule of Charles X after the treaty of Roskilde in 1658.[35][36] The foundation of Sweden's success during this period is credited to Gustav I's major changes on the Swedish economy in the 16th century, and his introduction of Protestantism.[37] In the 17th century, Sweden was engaged in many wars, for example with the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth with both sides competing for territories of today's Baltic states, with the disastrous Battle of Kircholm being one of the highlights.[38] One-third of the Finnish population died in the devastating famine that struck the country in 1696.[39] Famine also hit Sweden,[40] killing roughly 10% of Sweden's population.[41]

The Swedes conducted a series of invasions into the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, known as the Deluge.

After more than half a century of almost constant warfare, the Swedish economy had deteriorated. It became the lifetime task of Charles' son, Charles XI, to rebuild the economy and refit the army. His legacy to his son, the coming ruler of Sweden Charles XII, was one of the finest arsenals in the world, a large standing army and a great fleet. Sweden's largest threat at this time, Russia, had a larger army but was far behind in both equipment and training.

After the Battle of Narva in 1700, one of the first battles of the Great Northern War, the Russian army was so severely decimated that Sweden had an open chance to invade Russia. However, Charles did not pursue the Russian army, instead turning against Poland-Lithuania and defeating the Polish king Augustus II and his Saxon allies at the Battle of Kliszow in 1702. This gave Russia time to rebuild and modernize its army.



Death of Gustav II Adolf at the Battle of Lützen

After the success of invading Poland, Charles decided to make an invasion attempt of Russia which ended in a decisive Russian victory at the Battle of Poltava in 1709. After a long march exposed to Cossack raids, Russian Tsar Peter the Great's scorched-earth techniques and the cold Russian climate, the Swedes stood weakened with a shattered morale and enormously outnumbered against the Russian army at Poltava. The defeat meant the beginning of the end for the Swedish Empire.



The Battle of Poltava in 1709. In the years following Poltava, Russia occupied all the Swedish annexations on the Baltic coast and even Finland.

Charles XII attempted to invade Norway 1716; however, he was shot dead at Fredriksten fortress in 1718. The Swedes were not militarily defeated at Fredriksten, but the whole structure and organization of the Norwegian campaign fell apart with the king's death, and the army withdrew.

Forced to cede large areas of land in the Treaty of Nystad in 1721, Sweden also lost its place as an empire and as the dominant state on the Baltic Sea. With Sweden's lost influence, Russia emerged as an empire and became one of Europe's dominant nations. As the war finally ended in 1721, Sweden had lost an estimated 200,000 men, 150,000 of those from the area of present-day Sweden and 50,000 from the Finnish part of Sweden.[42]

In the 18th century, Sweden did not have enough resources to maintain its territories outside Scandinavia, and most of them were lost, culminating with the 1809 loss of eastern Sweden to Russia which became the highly autonomous Grand Principality of Finland in Imperial Russia.

In interest of re-establishing Swedish dominance in the Baltic Sea, Sweden allied itself against its traditional ally and benefactor, France, in the Napoleonic Wars. Sweden's role in the Battle of Leipzig gave it the authority to force Denmark-Norway, an ally of France, to cede Norway to the King of Sweden on 14 January 1814 in exchange for northern German provinces, at the Treaty of Kiel. The Norwegian attempts to keep their status as a sovereign state were rejected by the Swedish king, Charles XIII. He launched a military campaign against Norway on 27 July 1814, ending in the Convention of Moss, which forced Norway into a personal union with Sweden under the Swedish crown, which lasted until 1905. The 1814 campaign was the last war in which Sweden participated as a combatant. Swedish troops partake in peace-keeping missions and currently have forces deployed in Afghanistan and Kosovo.

Modern history

See also: Modernization of Sweden and Swedish emigration to the United States

There was a significant population increase during the 18th and 19th centuries, which the writer Esaias Tegnér in 1833 attributed to *"the peace, the (smallpox) vaccine, and the potatoes"*.[43] Between 1750 and 1850, the population in Sweden doubled. According to some scholars, mass emigration to America became the only way to prevent famine and rebellion; over 1% of the population emigrated annually during the 1880s.[44] Nevertheless, Sweden remained poor, retaining a nearly entirely agricultural economy even as Denmark and Western European countries began to industrialize.[44][45]



Swedish emigrants boarding ship in Gothenburg in 1905



Illustration of starvation in northern Sweden, Famine of 1866–1868

Many looked towards America for a better life during this time. It is believed that between 1850 and 1910 more than one million Swedes moved to the United States.[46] In the early 20th century, more Swedes lived in Chicago than in Gothenburg (Sweden's second largest city).[47] Most Swedish immigrants moved to the Midwestern United States, with a large population in Minnesota, with a few others moving to other parts of the United States and Canada.

Despite the slow rate of industrialization into the 19th century, many important changes were taking place in the agrarian economy because of innovations and the large population growth.[48] These innovations included government-sponsored programs of enclosure, aggressive exploitation of agricultural lands, and the introduction of new crops such as the potato.[48] Because the Swedish peasantry had never been enserfed as elsewhere in Europe,[49] the Swedish farming culture began to take on a critical role in the Swedish political process, which has continued through modern times with modern Agrarian party (now called the Centre Party).[50] Between 1870 and 1914, Sweden began developing the industrialized economy that exists today.[51]

Strong grassroots movements sprung up in Sweden during the latter half of the 19th century (trade unions, temperance groups, and independent religious groups), creating a strong foundation of democratic principles. In 1889 The Swedish Social Democratic Party was founded. These movements precipitated Sweden's migration into a modern parliamentary democracy, achieved by the time of World War I. As the Industrial Revolution progressed during the 20th century, people gradually began moving into cities to work in factories and became involved in socialist unions. A communist revolution was avoided in 1917, following the re-introduction of parliamentarism, and the country was democratized.

World Wars

See also: Sweden during World War II

Sweden remained officially neutral during World War I and World War II, although its neutrality during World War II has been disputed.[52][53] Sweden was under German influence for much of the war, as ties to the rest of the world were cut off through blockades.[52] The Swedish government felt that it was in no position to openly contest Germany,[54] and therefore made some concessions.[55] Sweden also supplied steel and machined parts to Germany throughout the war. However, Sweden supported Norwegian resistance, and in 1943 helped rescue Danish Jews from deportation to concentration camps. Sweden also supported Finland in the Winter War and the Continuation War



Swedish soldier during World War II

with volunteers and materiel.

Toward the end of the war, Sweden began to play a role in humanitarian efforts and many refugees, among them many Jews from Nazi-occupied Europe, were saved partly because of the Swedish involvement in rescue missions at the internment camps and partly because Sweden served as a haven for refugees, primarily from the Nordic countries and the Baltic states.[54] The Swedish diplomat Raoul Wallenberg and his colleagues may have saved up to 100,000 Hungarian Jews.[56] Nevertheless, internal and external critics have argued that Sweden could have done more to resist the Nazi war effort, even if risking occupation.[54]

Post-war era

Sweden was officially a neutral country and remained outside NATO or Warsaw pact membership during the cold war, but privately Sweden's leadership had strong ties with the United States and other western governments.

Following the war, Sweden took advantage of an intact industrial base, social stability and its natural resources to expand its industry to supply the rebuilding of Europe.[57] Sweden was part of the Marshall Plan and participated in the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). During most of the post-war era, the country was governed by the Swedish Social Democratic Party largely in cooperation with trade unions and industry. The government actively pursued an internationally competitive manufacturing sector of primarily large corporations.[58]



A typical red house in Tällberg, Sweden

Sweden, like countries around the globe, entered a period of economic decline and upheaval, following the oil embargoes of 1973–74 and 1978–79.[59] In the 1980s pillars of Swedish industry were massively restructured. Shipbuilding was discontinued, wood pulp was integrated into modernized paper production, the steel industry was concentrated and specialized, and mechanical engineering was robotized.[60]

Between 1970 and 1990 the overall tax burden rose by over 10%, and the growth was low compared to other countries in Western Europe. Eventually government spent over half of the country's gross domestic product. Sweden GDP per capita ranking declined during this time.[58]

Recent history

See also: History of Sweden (since 1989)

A bursting real estate bubble caused by inadequate controls on lending combined with an international recession and a policy switch from anti-unemployment policies to anti-inflationary policies resulted in a fiscal crisis in the early 1990s.[61] Sweden's GDP declined by around 5%. In 1992, there was a run on the currency, with the central bank briefly jacking up interest to 500%.[62][63]



Sweden joined the European Union in 1995 and signed the Lisbon Treaty in 2007.

The response of the government was to cut spending and institute a multitude of reforms to improve Sweden's competitiveness, among them reducing the welfare state and privatising public services and goods. Much of the political establishment promoted EU membership, and the

Swedish referendum passed with 52% in favour of joining the EU on 13 November 1994. Sweden joined the European Union on 1 January 1995.

Sweden remains non-aligned militarily, although it participates in some joint military exercises with NATO and some other countries, in addition to extensive cooperation with other European countries in the area of defence technology and defence industry. Among others, Swedish companies export weapons that are used by the American military in Iraq.[64] Sweden also has a long history of participating in international military operations, including most recently, Afghanistan, where Swedish troops are under NATO command, and in EU sponsored peacekeeping operations in UN protectorate Kosovo, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Cyprus. Sweden held the chair of the European Union from 1 July to 31 December 2009.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Sweden



View of the Stora Sjöfallet National Park

Situated in Northern Europe, Sweden lies west of the Baltic Sea and Gulf of Bothnia, providing a long coastline, and forms the eastern part of the Scandinavian Peninsula. To the west is the Scandinavian mountain chain (Skanderna), a range that separates Sweden from Norway. Finland is located to its northeast. It has maritime borders with Denmark, Germany, Poland, Russia, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, and it is also linked to Denmark (southwest) by the Öresund Bridge.

Sweden lies between latitudes 55° and 70° N, and mostly between longitudes 11° and 25° E (part of Stora Drammen island is just west of 11°).

At 449,964 km^2 (173,732 sq mi), Sweden is the 55th largest country in the world,[65] the 4th largest country entirely in Europe, and the largest in Northern Europe. The lowest elevation in Sweden is in the bay of Lake Hammarsjön, near Kristianstad at −2.41 m (−7.91 ft) below sea level. The highest point is Kebnekaise at 2,111 m (6,926 ft) above sea level.

Sweden has 25 provinces or *landskap* (landscapes), based on culture, geography and history. While these provinces serve no political or administrative purpose, they play an important role for people's self-identification. The provinces are usually grouped together in three large *lands*, parts, the northern Norrland, the central Svealand and southern Götaland. The sparsely populated Norrland encompasses almost 60% of the country.



Lake landscape at the outskirts of Ramsjö

About 15% of Sweden lies north of the Arctic Circle. Southern Sweden is predominantly agricultural, with increasing forest coverage northward. Around 65% of Sweden's total land area is covered with forests. The highest population density is in the Öresund Region in southern Sweden, along the western coast up to central Bohuslän, and in the valley of lake Mälaren and Stockholm. Gotland and Öland are Sweden's largest islands; Vänern and Vättern are its largest lakes. Vänern is the third largest in Europe, after Lake Ladoga and Lake Onega in Russia.

Climate



The Scandinavian Mountains

Most of Sweden has a temperate climate, despite its northern latitude, with four distinct seasons and mild temperatures throughout the year. The country can be divided into three types of climate; the southernmost part has an oceanic climate, the central part has a humid continental climate and the northernmost part has a subarctic climate. However, Sweden is much warmer and drier than other places at a similar latitude, and even somewhat farther south, mainly because of the Gulf Stream.[66][67] For example, central and southern Sweden has much warmer winters than many parts of Russia, Canada, and the northern United States.[68] Because of its high latitude, the length of daylight varies greatly. North of the Arctic Circle, the sun never sets for part of each summer, and it never rises for part of each winter. In the capital, Stockholm, daylight lasts for more than 18 hours in late June but only around 6 hours in late December. Sweden receives between 1,100 to 1,900 hours of sunshine annually.[69][70]

Temperatures vary greatly from north to south. Southern and central parts of the country have warm summers and cold winters, with average high temperatures of 20 to 25 °C (68 to 77 °F)[71] and lows of 12 to 15 °C (54 to 59 °F)[72] in the summer, and average temperatures of -4 to 2 °C (25 to 36 °F) in the winter,[73] while the northern part of the country has shorter, cooler summers and longer, colder and snowier winters, with temperatures that often drop below freezing from September through May.[74][75] The highest temperature ever recorded in Sweden was 38 °C (100 °F) in Målilla in 1947, while the coldest temperature ever recorded was −52.6 °C (−62.7 °F) in Vuoggatjålme in 1966.[76][77]

On average, most of Sweden receives between 500 and 800 mm (20 and 31 in) of precipitation each year, making it considerably drier than the global average. The southwestern part of the country receives more precipitation, between 1000 and 1200 mm (39 and 47 in), and some mountain areas in the north are estimated to receive up to 2000 mm (79 in). Despite northerly locations, southern and central Sweden may have almost no snow in some winters.[78][79]

Average high and low temperatures in various cities in Sweden (°C)[80]

City	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Kiruna	−10/−16	−8/−15	−4/−13	2/−7	8/0	14/6	17/8	14/6	9/2	1/−4	−5/−10	−8/−15
Östersund	−5/−10	−3/−9	0/−6	5/−2	12/3	16/8	18/10	17/10	12/6	6/2	0/−3	−3/−8
Stockholm	1/−2	1/−3	4/−2	11/3	16/8	20/12	23/15	22/14	17/10	10/6	5/2	1/−1
Gothenburg *(Göteborg)*	2/−1	4/−1	6/0	11/3	16/8	19/12	22/14	22/14	18/10	12/6	7/3	3/−1
Visby	1/−2	1/−3	3/−2	9/1	14/6	18/10	21/13	20/13	16/9	10/6	5/2	2/0
Malmö	3/−1	3/−1	6/0	12/3	17/8	19/11	22/13	22/14	18/10	12/6	8/4	4/1

Politics

Main article: Politics of Sweden

Sweden is a constitutional monarchy, in which King Carl XVI Gustaf is head of state, but royal power has long been limited to official and ceremonial functions.[81] The Economist Intelligence Unit, while acknowledging that democracy is difficult to measure, listed Sweden in fourth place in 2010 in its index of democracy assessing 167 countries.

The nation's legislative body is the riksdag (Swedish Parliament), with 349 members, which chooses the Prime Minister. Parliamentary elections are held every four years, on the third Sunday of September.

Administrative divisions


Sweden municipal borders

Main articles: Counties of Sweden and Municipalities of Sweden

Sweden is a unitary state, currently divided into twenty-one counties (*län*): Stockholm, Uppsala, Södermanland, Östergötland, Jönköping, Kronoberg, Kalmar, Gotland, Blekinge, Skåne, Halland, Västra Götaland, Värmland, Örebro, Västmanland, Dalarna, Gävleborg, Västernorrland, Jämtland, Västerbotten and Norrbotten.

Each county has a County Administrative Board or *länsstyrelse*, which is a Government appointed board. It is led by a Governor or *Landshövding* appointed for a term of six years and the list of succession, in most cases, stretches back to 1634 when the counties were created by the Swedish Lord High Chancellor Axel Oxenstierna. The main responsibility of the County Administrative Board is to coordinate the development of the county in line with goals set in national politics. In each county there is also a County Council or *landsting* which is a policy-making assembly elected by the residents of the county.

Each county further divides into a number of municipalities or *kommuner*, with a total of 290 municipalities in 2004. Municipal government in Sweden is similar to city commission government and cabinet-style council government. A legislative municipal assembly *(kommunfullmäktige)* of between 31 and 101 members (always an uneven number) is elected from party-list proportional representation at municipal elections, held every four years in conjunction with the national parliamentary elections.

The municipalities are divided into a total of 2,512 parishes, or *församlingar*. These have traditionally been a subdivision of the Church of Sweden but still have importance as districts for census and elections. There are older historical divisions, primarily the twenty-five provinces and three lands, which still retain cultural significance.

Further information: Subdivisions of Sweden and National Areas of Sweden

Political history

The actual age of the kingdom of Sweden is unknown.[82] It depends mostly on whether Sweden should be considered a nation when the *Svear* (Sweonas) ruled Svealand or if the emergence of the nation started with the *Svear* and the *Götar* (Geats) of Götaland being united under one ruler. In the first case, Sweden was first mentioned as having one single ruler in the year 98 by Tacitus, but it is almost impossible to know for how long it had been this way. However, historians usually start the line of Swedish monarchs from when Svealand and



Kingdoms of Svear (Sweonas) and Götar (Geats) in the 12th century, with modern borders in grey

Götaland were ruled under the same king, namely Erik the Victorious (Geat) and his son Olof Skötkonung in the 10th century. These events are often described as the consolidation of Sweden, although substantial areas were conquered and incorporated later.

Earlier kings, for which no reliable historical sources exist, can be read about in mythical kings of Sweden and semi-legendary kings of Sweden. Many of these kings are only mentioned in various saga and blend with Norse mythology.

The title *Sveriges och Götes Konung* was last used for Gustaf I of Sweden, after which the title became "King of Sweden, of the Goths and of the Wends" (*Sveriges, Götes och Vendes Konung*) in official documentation. Up until the beginning of the 1920s, all laws in Sweden were introduced with the words, "We, the king of Sweden, of the Goths and Wends". This title was used up until 1973.[83] The present King of Sweden, Carl XVI Gustaf, was the first monarch officially proclaimed "King of Sweden" (*Sveriges Konung*) with no additional peoples mentioned in his title.

The term *riksdag* was used for the first time in the 1540s, although the first meeting where representatives of different social groups were called to discuss and determine affairs affecting the country as a whole took place as early as 1435, in the town of Arboga.[84] During the assemblies of 1527 and 1544, under King Gustav Vasa, representatives of all four estates of the realm (clergy, nobility, townsmen and peasants) were called on to participate for the first time.[84] The monarchy became hereditary in 1544.

Executive power was historically shared between the King and a noble Privy Council until 1680, followed by the King's autocratic rule initiated by the common estates of the Parliament. As a reaction to the failed Great Northern War, a parliamentary system was introduced in 1719, followed by three different flavours of constitutional monarchy in 1772, 1789 and 1809, the latter granting several civil liberties. The monarch remains as the formal, but merely symbolic, head of state with ceremonial duties.

The Riksdag of the Estates consisted of two chambers. In 1866 Sweden became a constitutional monarchy with a bicameral parliament, with the First Chamber indirectly elected by local governments, and the Second Chamber directly elected in national elections every four years. In 1971 the parliament became unicameral. Legislative power was (symbolically) shared between king and parliament until 1975. Swedish taxation is controlled by the Parliament of Sweden (riksdagen).

Sweden has a history of strong political involvement by ordinary people through its "popular movements" (*Folkrörelser*), the most notable being trade unions, the independent Christian movement, the temperance movement, the women's movement and more recently the sports and intellectual property pirate movements.

Sweden is currently leading the EU in statistics measuring equality in the political system and equality in the education system.[85] The *Global Gender Gap Report 2006* ranked Sweden as the number one country in terms of gender equality.[86]

Political system

Constitutionally, the 349-member riksdag (Parliament) holds supreme authority in modern Sweden. The riksdag is responsible for choosing the prime minister, who then appoints the government department heads (cabinet

ministers). Legislative power is only exercised by the riksdag. Executive power is exercised by the prime minister and the cabinet, while the judiciary is independent. Sweden lacks compulsory judicial review, although the non-compulsory review carried out by *lagrådet* (Law Council) is mostly respected in technical matters but less so in controversial political matters. Acts of the parliament and government decrees can be made inapplicable at every level if they are manifestly against constitutional laws. However, because of the restrictions in this form of judicial review and a weak judiciary, this has had little practical consequence.



The Parliament House in Stockholm.

Legislation may be initiated by the cabinet or by members of Parliament. Members are elected on the basis of proportional representation to a four-year term. The Constitution of Sweden can be altered by the riksdag, which requires a simple but absolute majority with two separate votes, separated by general elections in between. Sweden has three other constitutional laws: the Act of Royal Succession, the Freedom of Press Act and the Fundamental Law on Freedom of Expression.



Carl XVI Gustaf, the King of Sweden and ceremonial head of state

The Swedish Social Democratic Party has played a leading political role since 1917, after Reformists had confirmed their strength and the revolutionaries left the party. After 1932, cabinets have been dominated by the Social Democrats. Only five general elections (1976, 1979, 1991, 2006 and 2010) have given the centre-right bloc enough seats in Parliament to form a government. However, due to poor economic performance since the beginning of the 1970s, and especially since the fiscal crisis of the early 1990s, Sweden's political system has become less one-sided, and more like other European countries.

In the 2006 general election the Moderate Party, allied with the Centre Party, Liberal People's Party, and the Christian Democrats formed the centre-right Alliance for Sweden and won a majority of the votes. Together they formed a majority government under the leadership of the Moderate party's leader Fredrik Reinfeldt. In the September 2010 election the Alliance contended against a unified left block consisting of the Social Democrats, the Greens and the Left Party. It also saw the first election of the Sweden Democrats into the riksdag.[87]

Following is the current party lineup in the Swedish parliament, as of October 2011, organized by voting blocks:[88]

English name	Swedish name	Abbr.	Seats
Moderate Party	Moderata samlingspartiet	(M)	107
Liberal People's Party	Folkpartiet liberalerna	(FP)	24
Centre Party	Centerpartiet	(C)	23
Christian Democrats	Kristdemokraterna	(KD)	19
Total centre-right block			**173**
Social Democrats	Socialdemokraterna	(S)	112
The Greens	Miljöpartiet	(MP)	25
Left Party	Vänsterpartiet	(V)	19
Total left-of-centre[89] block			**156**

Sweden Democrats	Sverigedemokraterna	(SD)	19
Independent member	utan partibeteckning		1
Total parliament			**349**

The Alliance won a plurality of 173 seats, but remained two seats short of a 175-seat majority. Nevertheless, neither the Alliance, nor the left block chose to form a coalition with the Sweden Democrats, and the Alliance is currently governing as a minority government.[90]

Election turnout in Sweden has always been high by international comparison, although it has declined in recent decades, and is currently around 80% (80.11 in 2002, and 81.99% in 2006). Swedish politicians enjoyed a high degree of confidence from the citizens in the 1960s, However, that confidence level has since declined steadily, and is now at a markedly lower level than in its Scandinavian neighbours.[91]

Some Swedish political figures have become known worldwide, among these are: Raoul Wallenberg, Folke Bernadotte, former Secretary General of the United Nations Dag Hammarskjöld, former Prime Minister Olof Palme, former Prime Minister and Foreign minister Carl Bildt, former President of the General Assembly of the United Nations Jan Eliasson, and former International Atomic Energy Agency Iraq inspector Hans Blix.

Law, law enforcement, and judicial system

Main article: Judicial system of Sweden

The Supreme Court of Sweden is the third and final instance in all civil and criminal cases in Sweden. Before a case can be decided by the Supreme Court, leave to appeal must be obtained, and with few exceptions, leave to appeal can be granted only when the case is of interest as a precedent. The Supreme Court consists of 16 Councillors of Justice or *justitieråd* which are appointed by the government, but the court as an institution is independent of the Parliament of Sweden, and the government is not able to interfere with the decisions of the court.

Law enforcement in Sweden is carried out by several government entities. The Swedish Police Service is a Government agency concerned with police matters. The National Task Force is a national SWAT unit within the National Criminal Investigation Department. Swedish Security Service's responsibilities are counter-espionage, anti-terrorist activities, protection of the constitution and protection of sensitive objects and people.

According to a victimization survey of 1,201 residents in 2005, Sweden has above average crime rates compared to other EU countries. Sweden has high or above average levels of assaults, sexual assaults, hate crimes, and consumer fraud. Sweden has low levels of burglary, car theft and drug problems. Bribe seeking is rare.[92]

Foreign relations

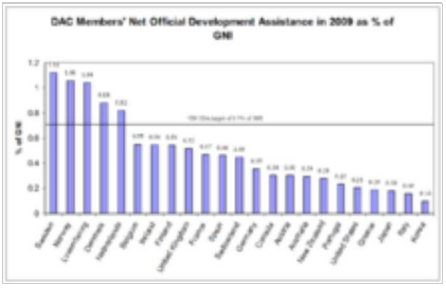
Main article: Foreign relations of Sweden

Throughout the 20th century, Swedish foreign policy was based on the principle of non-alignment in peacetime and neutrality in wartime. Sweden's government pursued an independent course of nonalignment in times of peace so that neutrality would be possible in the event of war.[57]

Sweden's doctrine of neutrality is often traced back to the 19th century as the country has not been in a state of war since the end of the Swedish campaign against Norway in 1814. During World War II Sweden joined neither the allied nor axis powers. This has sometimes been disputed since in effect Sweden allowed in select cases the

Nazi regime to use its railroad system to transport troops and goods,[52][54] especially iron ore from mines in northern Sweden, which was vital to the German war machine.[54][93] However, Sweden also indirectly contributed to the defence of Finland in the Winter War, and permitted the training of Norwegian and Danish troops in Sweden after 1943.

During the early Cold War era, Sweden combined its policy of non-alignment and a low profile in international affairs with a security policy based on strong national defence.[94] The function of the Swedish military was to deter attack.[95] At the same time, the country maintained relatively close informal connections with the Western bloc, especially in the realm of intelligence exchange. In 1952, a Swedish DC-3 was shot down over the Baltic Sea by a Soviet MiG-15 jet fighter. Later investigations revealed that the plane was actually gathering information for NATO.[96] Another plane, a Catalina search and rescue plane, was sent out a few days later and shot down by the Soviets as well. Olof Palme, the former prime minister of Sweden, visited Cuba during the 1970s and showed his support for Cuba in his speech.



Development aid measured in GNI in 2009. Source: OECD. As a percentage Sweden is the largest donor.

Beginning in the late 1960s, Sweden for a period attempted to play a more significant and independent role in international relations. This involved significant activity in international peace efforts, especially through the United Nations, and in support to the Third World. Since the assassination of Olof Palme in 1986 and the end of the Cold War, this has been significantly toned down, although Sweden remains comparatively active in peace keeping missions and maintains a generous foreign aid budget.

In 1981 a Soviet Whiskey class submarine ran aground close to the Swedish naval base at Karlskrona in the southern part of the country. It has never been clearly established whether the submarine ended up on the shoals through a navigational mistake or if it was a matter of espionage against Swedish military potential. The incident triggered a diplomatic crisis between Sweden and the Soviet Union.

Since 1995 Sweden has been a member of the European Union, and as a consequence of a new world security situation the country's foreign policy doctrine has been partly modified, with Sweden playing a more active role in European security co-operation.

Military

Main article: Swedish Armed Forces

Försvarsmakten (Swedish Armed Forces) is a government agency reporting to the Swedish Ministry of Defence and responsible for the peacetime operation of the armed forces of Sweden. The primary task of the agency is to train and deploy peace support forces abroad, while maintaining the long-term ability to refocus on the defence of Sweden in the event of war. The armed forces are divided into Army, Air Force and Navy. The head of the armed forces is the Supreme Commander (*Överbefälhavaren*, ÖB), the most senior officer in the country. Up to 1974 the head of state (=the King) was *pro forma* Commander-in-Chief, but in reality it was clearly understood all through the 20th century that the Monarch would have no *active* role as a military leader.


The JAS 39 Gripen is an advanced Swedish multi-role fighter aircraft of the Swedish Air Force.

When King Gustav V asserted his right to decide and bypass the

government in military matters just before the First World War (*"borggårdskrisen"*, the Castle Court Crisis) it was seen as a deliberate provocation against established terms of how the country would be ruled. The office of an appointed Supreme Commander was set up in 1939; before that date, from the late 19th century onwards, the leading men of the army and navy would report directly to the cabinet (and the king), and no fully unified command existed in the professional military sphere itself.



The Infantry fighting vehicle Strf 90 produced and used by Sweden.

Until the end of the Cold War, nearly all males reaching the age of military service were conscripted. In recent years, the number of conscripted males has shrunk dramatically, while the number of female volunteers has increased slightly. Recruitment has generally shifted towards finding the most motivated recruits, rather than solely those otherwise most fit for service. All soldiers serving abroad must by law be volunteers. In 1975 the total number of conscripts was 45,000. By 2003 it was down to 15,000.

On 1 July 2010 Sweden stopped routine conscription, switching to an all volunteer force unless otherwise required for defence readiness.[97][98][99] The need to recruit only the soldiers later prepared to volunteer for international service will be emphasized. The total forces gathered would consist of about 60,000 men. This could be compared with the 80s before the fall of the Soviet Union, when Sweden could gather up to 1,000,000 men.

Swedish units have taken part in peacekeeping operations in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Cyprus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Liberia, Lebanon, Afghanistan and Chad.

Currently, one of the most important tasks for the Swedish Armed Forces has been to form a Swedish-led EU Battle Group to which Norway, Finland, Ireland and Estonia will also contribute.[100] The Nordic Battle Group (NBG) had a 10-day deployment readiness during the first half of 2008 and, although Swedish-led, had its Operational Headquarters (OHQ) in Northwood, outside London.

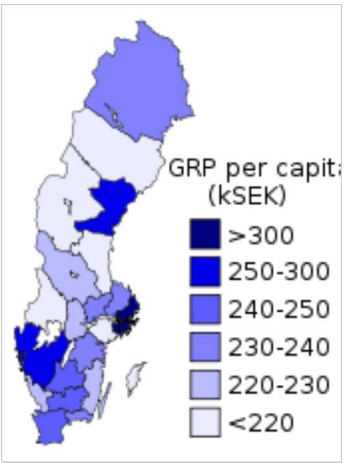
Economy

Main article: Economy of Sweden



Nordstan is one of the largest shopping malls in northern Europe

Sweden is an export-oriented mixed economy featuring a modern distribution system, excellent internal and external communications, and a skilled labour force. Timber, hydropower and iron ore constitute the resource base of an economy heavily oriented toward foreign trade. Sweden's engineering sector accounts for 50% of output and exports. Telecommunications, the automotive industry and the pharmaceutical industries are also of great importance. Agriculture accounts for 2% of GDP and employment. Income is relatively flatly distributed, Sweden has the lowest Gini coefficient (0.23) of any country.

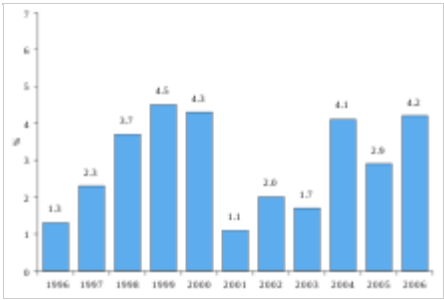


Gross Regional Product (GRP) per capita in thousands of kronor (2004).

In terms of structure, the Swedish economy is characterised by a large,

knowledge-intensive and export-oriented manufacturing sector, an increasing, but comparatively small, business service sector, and by international standards, a large public service sector. Large organisations both in manufacturing and services dominate the Swedish economy.[101]

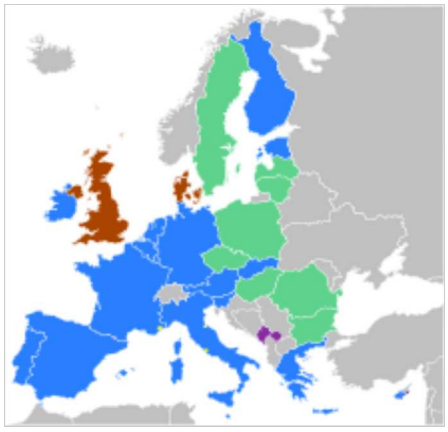
The 20 largest (by turnover in 2007) companies registered in Sweden are Volvo, Ericsson, Vattenfall, Skanska, Sony Ericsson Mobile Communications AB, Svenska Cellulosa Aktiebolaget, Electrolux, Volvo Personvagnar, TeliaSonera, Sandvik, Scania, ICA, Hennes & Mauritz, IKEA, Nordea, Preem, Atlas Copco, Securitas, Nordstjernan and SKF.[102] Sweden's industry is overwhelmingly in private control; unlike some other industrialised Western countries, such as Austria and Italy, publicly owned enterprises have always been of minor importance.



Real GDP growth in Sweden, 1996–2006.

Some 4.5 million residents are working, out of which around a third has tertiary education. GDP per hour worked is the world's 9th highest at 31 USD in 2006, compared to 22 USD in Spain and 35 USD in United States.[103] GDP per hour worked is growing 2½ per cent per year for the economy as a whole and the trade-terms-balanced productivity growth is 2%.[103] According to OECD, deregulation, globalisation, and technology sector growth have been key productivity drivers.[103] Sweden is a world leader in privatised pensions and pension funding problems are relatively small compared to many other Western European countries.[104]

The typical worker receives 40% of his or her income after the tax wedge. The slowly declining overall taxation, 51.1% of GDP in 2007, is still nearly double of that in the United States or Ireland. The share of employment financed via tax income amounts to a third of Swedish workforce, a substantially higher proportion than in most other countries. Overall, GDP growth has been fast since reforms in the early 1990s, especially in manufacturing.[105]


Sweden is part of the Schengen Area and the EU single market.

The World Economic Forum 2009–2010 competitiveness index ranks Sweden the 4th most competitive economy in the world.[106] In the World Economic Forum 2010–2011 Global Competitiveness Report, Sweden climbed two positions, and is now ranked 2nd in the world.[107] Sweden is ranked 6th in the IMD Competitiveness Yearbook 2009, scoring high in private sector efficiency.[108] According to the book, *The Flight of the Creative Class*, by the U.S. economist, Professor Richard Florida of the University of Toronto, Sweden is ranked as having the best creativity in Europe for business and is predicted to become a talent magnet for the world's most purposeful workers. The book compiled an index to measure the kind of creativity it claims is most useful to business—talent, technology and tolerance.[109]

Sweden maintains its own currency, the Swedish krona (SEK), a result of the Swedes having rejected the euro in a referendum. The Swedish Riksbank—founded in 1668 and thus making it the oldest central bank in the world—is currently focusing on price stability with an inflation target of 2%. According to the *Economic Survey of Sweden 2007* by the OECD, the average inflation in Sweden has been one of the lowest among European countries since the mid-1990s, largely because of deregulation and quick utilisation of globalisation.[103]

The largest trade flows are with Germany, the United States, Norway, the United Kingdom, Denmark and Finland.

Energy

See also: Nordic energy market, Nuclear power phase-out in Sweden, and Oil phase-out in Sweden

Sweden's energy market is largely privatized. The Nordic energy market is one of the first liberalized energy markets in Europe and it is traded in NASDAQ OMX Commodities Europe and Nord Pool Spot. In 2006, out of a total electricity production of 139 TWh, electricity from hydropower accounted for 61 TWh (44%), and nuclear power delivered 65 TWh (47%). At the same time, the use of biofuels, peat etc. produced 13 TWh (9%) of electricity, while wind power produced 1 TWh (1%). Sweden was a net importer of electricity by a margin of 6 TWh.[110] Biomass is mainly used to produce heat for district heating and central heating and industry processes.

The 1973 oil crisis strengthened Sweden's commitment to decrease dependence on imported fossil fuels. Since then, electricity has been generated mostly from hydropower and nuclear power. The use of nuclear power has been limited, however. Among other things, the accident of Three Mile Island Nuclear Generating Station (United States) prompted the Swedish parliament to ban new nuclear plants. In March 2005, an opinion poll showed that 83% supported maintaining or increasing nuclear power.[111] Politicians have made announcements about oil phase-out in Sweden, decrease of nuclear power, and multi-billion dollar investments in renewable energy and energy efficiency.[112][113] The country has for many years pursued a strategy of indirect taxation as an instrument of environmental policy, including energy taxes in general and carbon dioxide taxes in particular.[112]

Transport

Main article: Transport in Sweden



Stockholm metro.



The Stockholm Central Station



The Öresund Bridge between Malmö and Copenhagen in Denmark.

Sweden has 162,707 km (101,101 mi) of paved road and 1,428 km (887 mi) of expressways. Motorways run through Sweden, Denmark and over the Öresund Bridge to Stockholm, Gothenburg, Uppsala and Uddevalla. The system of motorways is still under construction and a new motorway from Uppsala to Gävle was finished on 17 October 2007. Sweden had left-hand traffic (Vänstertrafik in Swedish) from approximately 1736 and continued to do so well into the 20th century. Voters rejected right-hand traffic in 1955, but after the riksdag passed legislation in 1963 changeover took place in 1967, known in Swedish as Dagen H.

The Stockholm metro is the only subway system in Sweden and serves the city of Stockholm, 100 metro stations are in use.

The rail transport market is privatized, but while there are many privately owned enterprises, many operators are still owned by state. The counties have financing, ticket and marketing responsibility for local trains. For other trains the operators handle tickets and marketing themselves. Operators include SJ, Veolia Transport, DSB, Green Cargo, Tågkompaniet and Inlandsbanan. Most of the railways are owned and operated by Trafikverket.

The largest airports include Stockholm-Arlanda Airport (16.1 million passengers in 2009) 40 km (25 mi) north of Stockholm, Gothenburg-Landvetter Airport (4.3 million passengers in 2008), and Stockholm-Skavsta Airport (2.0 million passengers). Sweden hosts the two largest port companies in Scandinavia, Port of Göteborg AB (Gothenburg) and the transnational company Copenhagen Malmö Port AB.

Public policy

See also: Nordic model and Swedish welfare

Sweden has one of the most highly developed welfare states in the world. The country has a higher level of social spending to GDP than any other nation. Additionally it provides equal as well as comprehensive access to education and health care.

Historically, Sweden provided solid support for free trade (except agriculture) and mostly relatively strong and stable property rights (both private and public), though some economists have pointed out that Sweden promoted industries with tariffs and used publicly subsidised R&D during the country's early critical years of industrialisation.[114] After World War II a succession of governments expanded the welfare state by raising the tax level. During this period Sweden's economic growth was also one of the highest in the industrial world. A series of successive social reforms transformed the country into one of the most equal and developed on earth. The consistent growth of the welfare state led to Swedes achieving unprecedented levels of social mobility and quality of life—to this day Sweden consistently ranks at the top of league tables for health, literacy and Human Development—far ahead of some wealthier countries (for example the United States).[115]

However, from the 1970s and onwards Sweden's GDP growth fell behind other industrialised countries and the country's per capita ranking fell from the 4th to 14th place in a few decades.[116] From the mid 90s until today Sweden's economic growth has once again accelerated and has been higher than in most other industrialised countries (including the US) during the last 15 years.[117]

Sweden began slowing the expansion of the welfare state in the 1980s, or even trimming it back, and according to the OECD and McKinsey, Sweden has recently been relatively quick to adopt neo-liberal policies, such as deregulation, compared to countries such as France.[103][118] The current Swedish government is continuing the trend of moderate rollbacks of previous social reforms.[103][119] Growth has been higher than in many other EU-15 countries.

Sweden adopted neo-liberal agricultural policies in 1990. Since the 1930s, the agricultural sector had been subject to price controls. In June 1990, the Parliament voted for a new agricultural policy marking a significant shift away from price controls. As a result, food prices fell somewhat. However, the liberalizations soon became moot because EU agricultural controls supervened.[120]

Since the late 1960s, Sweden has had the highest tax quota (as percentage of GDP) in the industrialised world, although today the gap has narrowed and Denmark has surpassed Sweden as the most heavily taxed country among developed countries. Sweden has a two step progressive tax scale with a municipal income tax of about 30% and an additional high-income state tax of 20–25% when a salary exceeds roughly 320,000 SEK per year. Payroll taxes amount to 32%. In addition, a national VAT of 25% is added to many things bought by private citizens, with the exception of food (12% VAT), transportation, and books (6% VAT). Certain items are subject to additional taxes, e.g. electricity, petrol/diesel and alcoholic beverages.

As of 2007, total tax revenue was 47.8% of GDP, the second highest tax burden among developed countries, down from 49.1% 2006.[121] Sweden's inverted tax wedge – the amount going to the service worker's wallet – is

approximately 15% compared to 10% in Belgium, 30% in Ireland, and 50% in United States.[116] Public sector spending amounts to 53% of the GDP. State and municipal employees total around a third of the workforce, much more than in most Western countries. Only Denmark has a larger public sector (38% of Danish workforce). Spending on transfers is also high.

Eighty percent of the workforce is organised in trade-unions which also have the right to elect two representatives to the board in all Swedish companies with more than 25 employees. Sweden has a relatively high amount of sick leave per worker in OECD: the average worker loses 24 days due to sickness.[105] In December 2008, the number employed in age group 16–64 was 75.0%. The employment tendency was very strong in 2007. The positive trend continued during the first half of 2008, but the rate of increase slackened. According to Statistics Sweden, the unemployment rate in December 2008 was at 6.4%.[122]

Science

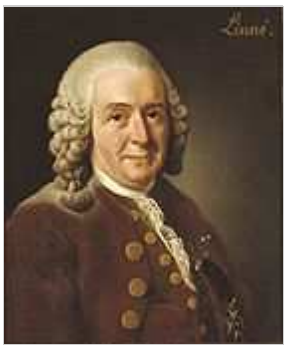
Altogether, the public and the private sector in Sweden allocate nearly four per cent of GDP to research & development (R&D) per year, which makes Sweden one of the countries that invest most in R&D in terms of percentage of GDP. The standard of Swedish research is high and Sweden is a world leader in a number of fields. [*citation needed*] Sweden tops Europe in comparative statistics both in terms of research investments as a percentage of GDP as well as in the number of published scientific works per capita.[123]

Though a relatively small country, Sweden has long been at the forefront of research and development. [*citation needed*] For several decades the Swedish government has prioritized scientific and R&D activities. This strong engagement has helped make Sweden a leading country in terms of innovation. In international comparison, high-technology manufacturing is relatively large in all high-technology segments, and particularly in telecommunications and pharmaceuticals.[*citation needed*]

Sweden ranked either as the first or second country publishing the highest number of scientific publications in the fields of medical science, natural science and engineering in 2001.[*citation needed*] Sweden was world-leading in medical science and second only to Switzerland in natural science and engineering in terms of the number of publications per capita.

Technology

Main article: Swedish inventions



Carl Linnaeus laid the foundations for the modern scheme of binomial nomenclature.

In the 18th century Sweden's scientific revolution took off. Previously, technical progress had mainly come from mainland Europe. In 1739, the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences was founded, with people such as Carolus Linnaeus and Anders Celsius as early members. Many of the companies founded by early pioneers are still remain major international brands. Gustaf Dalén founded AGA, and received the Nobel Prize for his sun valve. Alfred Nobel invented dynamite and instituted the Nobel Prizes. Lars Magnus Ericsson started the company bearing his name, Ericsson, still one of the largest telecom companies in the world. Jonas Wenström was an early pioneer in alternating current and is along with Serbian inventor Nikola Tesla credited



Alfred Nobel, inventor of dynamite and institutor of

He is known as the father of modern taxonomy, and is also considered one of the fathers of modern ecology.

as one of the inventors of the three-phase electrical system.[124]

the Nobel Prize.

The traditional engineering industry is still a major source of Swedish inventions, but pharmaceuticals, electronics and other high-tech industries are gaining ground. Tetra Pak was an invention for storing liquid foods, invented by Erik Wallenberg. Losec, an ulcer medicine, was the world's best-selling drug in the 1990s and was developed by AstraZeneca. More recently Håkan Lans invented the Automatic Identification System, a worldwide standard for shipping and civil aviation navigation. A large portion of the Swedish economy is to this day based on the export of technical inventions, and many large multinational corporations from Sweden have their origins in the ingenuity of Swedish inventors.[124]

Swedish inventors hold a total of 33,523 patents in the United States as of 2007, according to the United States Patent and Trademark Office. As a nation, only ten other countries hold more patents than Sweden.[125]

Demographics

Main articles: Demographics of Sweden and Swedish people

As of 2009, the total population of Sweden was estimated to be 9,325,429.[126] The population exceeded 9 million for the first time on approximately 12 August 2004 according to Statistics Sweden. The population density is 20.6 people per km² (53.3 per square mile) and it is substantially higher in the south than in the north. About 85% of the population live in urban areas.[12] The capital city Stockholm has a population of about 800,000 (with 1.3 million in the urban area and 2 million in the metropolitan area). The second and third largest cities are Gothenburg and Malmö.

Between 1820 and 1930, approximately 1.3 million Swedes, a third of the country's population, emigrated to North America, and most of them to the United States. There are more than 4.4 million Swedish Americans according to a 2006 U.S. Census Bureau estimate.[127] In Canada, the community of Swedish ancestry is 330,000 strong.[128]



Stockholm



Gothenburg

Largest cities[129]

#	City	Urban area population	Metro population
1	**Stockholm**	1,372,565	2,019,182
2	**Gothenburg**	549,839	926,654
3	**Malmö**	280,415	635,224
4	**Uppsala**	140,454	
5	**Västerås**	110,877	
6	**Örebro**	107,038	
7	**Linköping**	104,232	
8	**Helsingborg**	97,122	
9	**Jönköping**	89,396	
10	**Norrköping**	87,247	



Malmö



Uppsala

Language

Main articles: Swedish language and Languages of Sweden

See also: Swedish dialects



Distribution of speakers of the Swedish language

The official language of Sweden is Swedish,[8][9] a North Germanic language, related and very similar to Danish and Norwegian, but differing in pronunciation and orthography. Norwegians have little difficulty understanding Swedish, and Danes can also understand it, with slightly more difficulty than the Norwegians. The dialects spoken in Scania, the southernmost part of the country, are influenced by Danish because the region traditionally was a part of Denmark and is nowadays situated closely to it. Sweden Finns are Sweden's largest linguistic minority, comprising about 5% of Sweden's population,[2] and Finnish is recognized as a minority language.[9]

Along with Finnish, four other minority languages are also recognized: Meänkieli, Sami, Romani and Yiddish. Swedish became Sweden's official language on 1 July 2009, when a new language law was implemented.[9] The issue of whether Swedish should be declared the official language has been raised in the past, and the parliament voted on the matter in 2005, but the proposal narrowly failed.[130]

In varying degrees, depending largely on frequency of interaction with English, a majority of Swedes, especially those born after World War II, understand and speak English due to trade links, the popularity of overseas travel, a strong Anglo-American influence and the tradition of subtitling rather than dubbing foreign television shows and films, and the relative similarity of the two languages which makes learning English easier. In a 2005 survey by Eurobarometer, 89% of Swedes reported the ability to speak English.[131]

English became a compulsory subject for secondary school students studying natural sciences as early as 1849, and has been a compulsory subject for all Swedish students since the late 1940s.[132] Depending on the local school authorities, English is currently a compulsory subject between first grade and ninth grade, with all students continuing in secondary school studying English for at least another year. Most students also study one and sometimes two additional languages. These include (but are not limited to) German, French and Spanish. Some Danish and Norwegian is at times also taught as part of Swedish courses for native speakers.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Sweden

Before the 11th century, Swedes adhered to Norse paganism, worshiping Æsir gods, with its centre at the Temple in Uppsala. With Christianization in the 11th century, the laws of the country were changed, forbidding worship of other deities into the late 19th century.

After the Protestant Reformation in the 1530s, a change led by Martin Luther's Swedish associate Olaus Petri, the authority of the Roman Catholic Church was abolished. The church and state were separated, allowing Lutheranism to prevail. This process was completed by the Uppsala Synod of 1593. Lutheranism became Sweden's official religion. During the era following the Reformation, usually known as the period of Lutheran Orthodoxy, small groups of non-Lutherans, especially Calvinist Dutchmen, the Moravian Church and Walloons

or French Huguenots from Belgium, played a significant role in trade and industry, and were quietly tolerated as long as they kept a low religious profile. The Sami originally had their own shamanistic religion, but they converted to Lutheranism by the work of Swedish missionaries in the 17th and 18th centuries.

With religious liberalizations in the late 18th century believers of other faiths, including Judaism and Roman Catholicism, were allowed to openly live and work in the country. However, until 1860 it remained illegal for Lutheran Swedes to convert to another religion. The 19th century saw the arrival of various evangelical free churches, and, towards the end of the century, secularism, leading many to distance themselves from Church rituals. Leaving the Church of Sweden became legal with the so-called dissenter law of 1860, but only under the provision of entering another Christian denomination. The right to stand outside any religious denomination was formally established in the Law on Freedom of Religion in 1951. In 2000 the Church of Sweden was separated from the state and Sweden ceased to have any official church.



Uppsala Cathedral

Church of Sweden[133][134]

Year	Population	Church members	Percentage
1972	8,146,000	7,754,784	95.2%
1980	8,278,000	7,690,636	92.9%
1990	8,573,000	7,630,350	89.0%
2000	8,880,000	7,360,825	82.9%
2005	9,048,000	6,967,498	77.0%
2006	9,119,000	6,893,901	75.6%
2007	9,179,000	6,820,161	74.3%
2008	9,262,000	6,751,952	72.9%
2009	–	6,664,064	71.3% [135]

At the end of 2009, 71.3% of Swedes belonged to the Church of Sweden (Lutheran); this number has been decreasing by about one percentage point a year for the last two decades.[135][136] However, only approximately 2% of the church's members regularly attend Sunday services.[137] The reason for the large number of inactive members is partly that until 1996, children automatically became members at birth if at least one of the parents was a member. Since 1996, only children that are christened become members. Some 275,000 Swedes are today members of various free churches (where congregation attendance is much higher), and, in addition, immigration has meant that there are now some 92,000 Roman Catholics and 100,000 Eastern Orthodox Christians living in Sweden.[138]

Because of immigration, Sweden also has a significant Muslim population. They number about 500,000, but only approximately 5% (25,000) of these actively practice Islam (in the sense of attending Friday prayer and praying five times a day).[139]

Despite a high formal membership rate in the Church of Sweden, some studies have found Sweden to be one of the least religious countries in the world, with one of the highest levels of atheism. According to different studies, between 46% and 85% of Swedes do not believe in God.[140] In the Eurostat survey, 23% of Swedish citizens responded that "they believe there is a God", whereas 53% answered that "they believe there is some sort of spirit or life force" and 23% that "they do not believe there is any sort of spirit, God, or life force". Nevertheless, despite a lack of belief in God, these individuals resented the term atheist, and still called themselves Christians, being content with remaining in the Church of Sweden.[141] Other research has shown that religion in Sweden continues to play a role in cultural identity.[142] This is evidenced by the fact that around 80 percent of adults continue to remain members of the Lutheran Church despite having to pay a church tax; moreover, rates of baptism remain high and church weddings are increasing in Sweden.[142]

Health

See also: Healthcare in Sweden and Swedish National Board of Health and Welfare

Healthcare in Sweden is similar in quality to other developed nations. Sweden ranks in the top five countries with respect to low infant mortality. It also ranks high in life expectancy and in safe drinking water. A person seeking care first contacts a clinic for a doctor's appointment, and may then be referred to a specialist by the clinic physician, who may in turn recommend either in-patient or out-patient treatment, or an elective care option. The health care is governed by the 21 landsting of Sweden and is mainly funded by taxes, with nominal fees for patients.

Education

Main article: Education in Sweden


Uppsala University (established 1477)

Children aged 1–5 years old are guaranteed a place in a public kindergarten (Swedish: *förskola* or, colloquially, *dagis*). Between the ages of 6 and 16, children attend compulsory comprehensive school. In the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), Swedish 15-year-old pupils score close to the OECD average.[143] After completing the 9th grade, about 90% of the students continue with a three-year upper secondary school (*gymnasium*), which can lead to both a job qualification or entrance eligibility to university. The school system is largely financed by taxes.

The Swedish government treats public and independent schools equally[144] by introducing education vouchers in 1992 as one of the first countries in the world after The Netherlands. Anyone can establish a for-profit school and the municipality must pay new schools the same amount as municipal schools get. School lunch is free for all students in Sweden, and usually includes one or two different kinds of hot meals, a vegetarian meal, salad bar, fruit, bread, milk and water. Some schools, especially kindergartens and middle schools, even serve breakfast for free[*citation needed*] to those who want to eat before school starts.

There are a number of different universities and colleges in Sweden, the oldest and largest of which are situated in Uppsala, Lund, Gothenburg and Stockholm. Only a few countries such as Canada, the United States, Japan and South Korea have higher levels of tertiary education degree holders.[*citation needed*] Along with several other European countries, the government also subsidises tuition of international students pursuing a degree at Swedish institutions, although a recent bill passed in the Swedish parliament will limit this subsidy to students from EEA countries and Switzerland.[145]

Immigration

Main article: Immigration to Sweden

Immigration has been a major source of population growth and cultural change throughout much of the history of Sweden. Sweden has been transformed from a nation of emigration ending after World War I to a nation of immigration from World War II onwards. The economic, social, and political aspects of immigration have caused controversy regarding ethnicity, economic benefits, jobs for non-immigrants, settlement patterns, impact on upward social mobility, crime, and voting behaviour.

According to Eurostat, in 2010, there were 1.33 million foreign-born residents in Sweden, corresponding to 14.3% of the total population. Of these, 859 000 (9.2%) were born outside the EU and 477 000 (5.1%) were

born in another EU Member State.[146][147][148]

In 2009, immigration reached its highest level since records began with 102,280 people emigrating to Sweden.[149] Immigrants in Sweden are mostly concentrated in the urban areas of Svealand and Götaland.[148] Since the early 1970s, immigration to Sweden has been mostly due to refugee migration and family reunification from countries in the Middle East, Africa and Latin America.[150]



Immigrants and emigrants, Sweden 1850–2007

The largest groups in 2010 were:[148]

1. Finland (172,218)
2. Former Yugoslavia (152,268)
3. Iraq (117,919)
4. Poland (67,518)
5. Iran (59,922)
6. Germany (47,803)
7. Denmark (46,002)
8. Norway (43,819)
9. Turkey (40,766)
10. Somalia (31,734)

Culture

Main article: Culture of Sweden


Nationalmuseum in Stockholm.

Sweden has many authors of worldwide recognition including August Strindberg, Astrid Lindgren, and Nobel Prize winners Selma Lagerlöf and Harry Martinson. In total seven Nobel Prizes in Literature have been awarded to Swedes. The nation's most well-known artists are painters such as Carl Larsson and Anders Zorn, and the sculptors Tobias Sergel and Carl Milles.

Swedish 20th-century culture is noted by pioneering works in the early days of cinema, with Mauritz Stiller and Victor Sjöström. In the 1920s–1980s, the filmmaker Ingmar Bergman and actors Greta Garbo and Ingrid Bergman became internationally noted people within cinema. More recently, the films of Lukas Moodysson and Lasse Hallström have received international recognition.

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s Sweden was seen as an international leader in what is now referred to as the "sexual revolution", with gender equality having particularly been promoted.[151] At the present time, the number of single people is one of the highest in the world. The early Swedish film *I Am Curious (Yellow)* (1967) reflected a liberal view of sexuality, including scenes of love making that caught international attention, and introduced the concept of the "Swedish sin".

Sweden has also become very liberal towards homosexuality, as is reflected in the popular acceptance of films

such as *Show Me Love*, which is about two young lesbians in the small Swedish town of Åmål. Since 1 May 2009, Sweden repealed its "registered partnership" laws and fully replaced them with gender-neutral marriage,[152] Sweden also offers domestic partnerships for both same-sex and opposite-sex couples. Cohabitation (*sammanboende*) by couples of all ages, including teenagers as well as elderly couples, is widespread. Recently, Sweden is experiencing a baby boom.[153]

Music

Main article: Music of Sweden



Agnetha Fältskog of Swedish band ABBA performing in 1977.

Sweden has a rich musical tradition, ranging from mediaeval folk ballads to hip hop music. The music of the pre-Christian Norse has been lost to history, although historical re-creations have been attempted based on instruments found in Viking sites. The instruments used were the *lur* (a sort of trumpet), simple string instruments, wooden flutes and drums. It is possible that the Viking musical legacy lives on in some of the old Swedish folk music. Sweden has a significant folk-music scene, both in the traditional style as well as more modern interpretations which often mix in elements of rock and jazz. Väsen is more of a traditionalist group, using a unique, traditional Swedish instrument called the *nyckelharpa* while Garmarna, Nordman and Hedningarna have more modern elements. There is also Sami music, called the *joik*, which is actually a type of chant which is part of the traditional Saami animistic spirituality but has gained recognition in the international world of folk music. Sweden's most classic and notable composers includes Carl Michael Bellman and Franz Berwald.

Sweden also has a prominent choral music tradition, deriving in part from the cultural importance of Swedish folk songs. In fact, out of a population of 9.2 million, it is estimated that five to six hundred thousand people sing in choirs.[154]

In 2007, with over 800 million dollars in revenue, Sweden was the third largest music exporter in the world and surpassed only by the US and the UK.[155][156][*citation needed*] ABBA was one of the first internationally well-known popular music bands from Sweden, and still ranks among the most prominent bands in the world, with about 370 million records sold. With ABBA, Sweden entered into a new era, in which Swedish pop music gained international prominence.



The Gothenburg Opera.

There have been many other internationally successful bands since, such as Roxette, Ace of Base, Europe, A-teens, The Cardigans and The Hives, to name some of the biggest, and recently there has been a surge of Swedish Indie pop bands such as Loney, Dear, Shout Out Louds, The Radio Dept. and Dungen, a group which incorporates many elements of Swedish traditional folk music in their sound. One of the biggest bands in Sweden is the rock band Kent.

Sweden has also become known for a large number of heavy metal (mostly death metal and melodic death metal) as well as progressive- and power metal bands. Some of the most popular being In Flames, Amon Amarth, HammerFall, Pain of Salvation, Dark Tranquillity, Opeth, Arch Enemy and Meshuggah. The renowned neoclassical power metal guitarist Yngwie Malmsteen is also from Sweden.

Sweden has a rather lively jazz scene. During the last sixty years or so it has attained a remarkably high artistic

standard, stimulated by domestic as well as external influences and experiences. The Centre for Swedish Folk Music and Jazz Research has published an overview of jazz in Sweden by Lars Westin.[157]

Architecture

Main article: Architecture of Sweden


Djurgårdsbron.

Before the 13th century most buildings were made of brick, but a shift began towards stone. Early Swedish stone buildings are the Romanesque churches on the country side. As so happens, many of them were built in Scania and are in effect Danish churches. This would include the magnificent Lund Cathedral from the 11th century and the somewhat younger church in Dalby, but also many early Gothic churches built through influences of the Hanseatic League, such as in Ystad, Malmö and Helsingborg.

Cathedrals in other parts of Sweden were also built as seats of Sweden's bishops. The Skara Cathedral is of bricks from the 14th century, and the Uppsala Cathedral in the 15th. In 1230 the foundations of the Linköping Cathedral were made, the material was there limestone, but the building took some 250 years to finish.

Among older structures are also some significant fortresses and other historical buildings such as at Borgholm Castle, Halltorps Manor and Eketorp fortress on the island Öland, the Nyköping fortress and the Visby ring wall.

Around 1520 Sweden was out of the Middle Ages and united under King Gustav Vasa, who immediately initiated grand mansions, castles and fortresses to be built. Some of the more magnificent include the Kalmar fortress, the Gripsholm Castle and the one at Vadstena.


The Kalmar Cathedral.

In the next two centuries, Sweden was designated by Baroque architecture and later the rococo. Notable projects from that time include the city Karlskrona, which has now also been declared a World Heritage Site and the Drottningholm Palace.

1930 was the year of the great Stockholm exhibition, which marked the breakthrough of Functionalism, or "funkis" as it became known. The style came to dominate in the following decades. Some notable projects of this kind were the Million Programme, offering affordable but anti-human living in large apartment complexes.

Media

Main article: Media in Sweden

Swedes are among the greatest consumers of newspapers in the world, and nearly every town is served by a local paper. The country's main quality morning papers are Dagens Nyheter (liberal), Göteborgs-Posten (liberal), Svenska Dagbladet (liberal conservative) and Sydsvenska Dagbladet (liberal). The two largest evening tabloids are Aftonbladet (social democratic) and Expressen (liberal). The ad-financed, free international morning paper, Metro International, was originally founded in Stockholm, Sweden. The country's news is reported in English by, among others, The Local (liberal).

The public broadcasting companies held a monopoly on radio and television for a long time in Sweden. Licence funded radio broadcasts started in 1925. A second radio network was started in 1954 and a third opened 1962 in

response to pirate radio stations. Non-profit community radio was allowed in 1979 and in 1993 commercial local radio started.

The licence funded television service was officially launched in 1956. A second channel, TV2, was launched in 1969. These two channels (operated by Sveriges Television since the late '70s) held a monopoly until the 1980s when cable and satellite television became available. The first Swedish language satellite service was TV3 which started broadcasting from London in 1987. It was followed by Kanal 5 in 1989 (then known as Nordic Channel) and TV4 in 1990.

In 1991 the government announced it would begin taking applications from private television companies wishing to broadcast on the terrestrial network. TV4, which had previously been broadcasting via satellite, was granted a permit and began its terrestrial broadcasts in 1992, becoming the first private channel to broadcast television content from within the country.

Around half the population are connected to cable television. Digital terrestrial television in Sweden started in 1999 and the last analogue terrestrial broadcasts were terminated in 2007.

Literature

Main article: Swedish literature


Writer and playwright August Strindberg.

The first literary text from Sweden is the Rök Runestone, carved during the Viking Age c. 800 AD. With the conversion of the land to Christianity around 1100 AD, Sweden entered the Middle Ages, during which monastic writers preferred to use Latin. Therefore there are only a few texts in the Old Swedish from that period. Swedish literature only flourished when the Swedish language was standardized in the 16th century, a standardization largely due to the full translation of the Bible into Swedish in 1541. This translation is the so-called Gustav Vasa Bible.

With improved education and the freedom brought by secularization, the 17th century saw several notable authors develop the Swedish language further. Some key figures include Georg Stiernhielm (17th century), who was the first to write classical poetry in Swedish; Johan Henric Kellgren (18th century), the first to write fluent Swedish prose; Carl Michael Bellman (late 18th century), the first writer of burlesque ballads; and August Strindberg (late 19th century), a socio-realistic writer and playwright who won worldwide fame. The early 20th century continued to produce notable authors, such as Selma Lagerlöf, (Nobel laureate 1909), Verner von Heidenstam (Nobel laureate 1916) and Pär Lagerkvist (Nobel laureate 1951).

In recent decades, a handful of Swedish writers have established themselves internationally, including the detective novelist Henning Mankell and the writer of spy fiction Jan Guillou. The Swedish writer to have made the most lasting impression on world literature is the children's book writer Astrid Lindgren, and her books about Pippi Longstocking, Emil, and others. In 2008, the second best-selling fiction author in the world was Stieg Larsson, whose *Millennium* series of crime novels is being published posthumously to critical acclaim.[158] Larsson drew heavily on the work of Lindgren by basing his central character, Lisbeth Salander, on Longstocking.[159]

Holidays

Main article: Public holidays in Sweden


Walpurgis Night bonfire in Sweden.

Apart from traditional Protestant Christian holidays, Sweden also celebrates some unique holidays, some of a pre-Christian tradition. They include Midsummer celebrating the summer solstice; Walpurgis Night (*Valborgsmässoafton*) on 30 April lighting bonfires; and Labour Day or Mayday on 1 May is dedicated to socialist demonstrations. The day of giver-of-light Saint Lucia, 13 December, is widely acknowledged in elaborate celebrations which betoken its Italian origin and commence the month-long Christmas season.

6 June is the National Day of Sweden and, as of 2005, a public holiday. Furthermore, there are official flag day observances and a Namesdays in Sweden calendar. In August many Swedes have *kräftskivor* (crayfish dinner parties). Martin of Tours Eve is celebrated in Scania in November with *Mårten Gås* parties, where roast goose and *svartsoppa* ('black soup', made of goose stock, fruit, spices, spirits and goose blood) are served. The Sami, one of Sweden's indigenous minorities, have their holiday on 6 February and Scania celebrate their Scanian Flag day on the third Sunday in July.

Cuisine

Main article: Swedish cuisine

Swedish cuisine, like that of the other Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Norway and Finland), was traditionally simple. Fish (particularly herring), meat, potatoes and dairy products played prominent roles.


Swedish knäckebröd (crisp bread).


Swedish saffron buns

Spices were sparse. Famous dishes include Swedish meatballs, traditionally served with gravy, boiled potatoes and lingonberry jam; pancakes, *lutfisk*, and Smörgåsbord, or lavish buffet. *Akvavit* is a popular alcoholic distilled beverage, and the drinking of *snaps* is of cultural importance. The traditional flat and dry crisp bread has developed into several contemporary variants. Regionally important foods are the *surströmming* (a fermented fish) in Northern Sweden and eel in Scania in Southern Sweden.

Swedish traditional dishes, some of which are many hundreds of years old, others perhaps a century or less, are still a very important part of Swedish everyday meals, in spite of the fact that modern day Swedish cuisine adopts many international dishes.

In August, at the traditional feast known as crayfish party, *kräftskiva*, Swedes eat large amounts of boiled crayfish with boiled potato and dill.

Cinema

Main article: Cinema of Sweden

Swedes have been fairly prominent in the film area through the years, several successful Swedish Hollywood actors can be mentioned: Ingrid Bergman, Greta Garbo, Max von Sydow, Dolph Lundgren, Lena Olin, Britt Ekland, Maud Adams, Stellan Skarsgård, Peter Stormare, Izabella Scorupco, Pernilla August, Ann-Margret, Anita Ekberg, Alexander Skarsgård, Harriet Andersson, Bibi Andersson, Ingrid Thulin, Malin Åkerman and Gunnar Björnstrand. Amongst several directors who have made internationally successful films can be

mentioned: Ingmar Bergman, Lukas Moodysson and Lasse Hallström.

Fashion

Interest in fashion is big in Sweden and the country is headquartering famous brands like Hennes & Mauritz (operating as H&M), J. Lindeberg (operating as JL), Acne, Gina Tricot, Lindex, Tiger of Sweden, Odd Molly, Cheap Monday, Dr. Denim, Gant, Resteröds, Nudie Jeans, WESC, WAX, Uniforms for the Dedicated, Filippa K, Nakkna and Fifth Avenue Shoe Repair within its borders. These companies, however, are composed largely of buyers who import fashionable goods from throughout Europe and America, continuing the trend of Swedish business toward multinational economic dependency like many of its neighbours.

Sports

Main article: Sport in Sweden

Sport activities are a national movement with half of the population actively participating in organized sporting activities. The two main spectator sports are football and ice hockey. Second to football, horse sports have the highest number of practitioners, mostly women. Thereafter follow golf, athletics, and the team sports of handball, floorball, basketball and bandy.



Robin Söderling

The Swedish ice hockey team Tre Kronor is regarded as one of the best in the world. The team has won the World Championships eight times, placing them third in the all-time medal count. Tre Kronor also won Olympic gold medals in 1994 and 2006. In 2006, Tre Kronor became the first national hockey team to win both the Olympic and world championships in the same year. The Swedish national football team has seen some success at the World Cup in the past, finishing second when they hosted the tournament in 1958, and third twice, in 1950 and 1994. Athletics has enjoyed a surge in popularity due to several successful athletes in recent years, such as Carolina Klüft and Stefan Holm.

Sweden hosted the 1912 Summer Olympics and the FIFA World Cup in 1958. Other big sports events held here include 1992 UEFA European Football Championship, FIFA Women's World Cup 1995, and several championships of ice hockey, curling, athletics, skiing, bandy, figure skating and swimming.

Successful tennis players include former world No. 1's Björn Borg, Mats Wilander and Stefan Edberg.

Other famous Swedish athletes include the heavyweight boxing champion and International Boxing Hall of Famer – Ingemar Johansson; World Golf Hall of Famer – Annika Sörenstam and multiple World Championships and Olympics medalist in table tennis – Jan-Ove Waldner.

See also

- Outline of Sweden

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House of Bourbon

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Bourbon** (English /ˈbʊərbən/; French pronunciation: [bu.bɔ̃]) is a European royal house, a branch of the Capetian dynasty (/kəˈpiːʃən/). Bourbon kings first ruled Navarre and France in the 16th century. By the 18th century, members of the Bourbon dynasty also held thrones in Spain, Naples, Sicily, and Parma. Spain and Luxembourg currently have Bourbon monarchs.

Bourbon monarchs ruled Navarre (from 1555) and France (from 1589) until the 1792 overthrow of the monarchy during the French Revolution. Restored briefly in 1814 and definitively in 1815 after the fall of the First French Empire, the senior line of the Bourbons was finally overthrown in the July Revolution of 1830. A cadet branch, the House of Orléans, then ruled for 18 years (1830–1848), until it too was overthrown. The Princes of Condé (Bourbon-Condé) were a cadet branch of the Bourbon-Vendômes and, in turn, were senior to the Princes of Conti (Bourbon-Conti). Both these lines became extinct in the early nineteenth century.

Philip V of Spain was the first Bourbon ruler of Spain, from 1700. The Spanish Bourbons (in Spain the name is spelled **Borbón** and rendered into English as **Borbon**[1][2]) have been overthrown and restored several times, reigning 1700–1808, 1813–1868, 1875–1931, and 1975 to the present day. From this Spanish line comes the royal line of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (1734–1806 and 1815–1860, and Sicily only in 1806–1816), the Bourbon-Sicilies family, and the Bourbon rulers of the Duchy of Parma.

Grand Duchess Charlotte of Luxembourg married a cadet of the Bourbon-Parma line and thus her successors, who have ruled Luxembourg since her abdication in 1964, have also been members of the House of Bourbon. Isabel, Princess Imperial, the declared heiress and thrice-regent of the now-defunct Empire of Brazil, married twenty years before their deposition Gaston, comte d'Eu a prince of Orléans, and their descendants, known as the Orléans-Braganza, would have ascended to that throne had the empire not ended in 1889.

From the time of Hugh Capet to Charles X (987–1830), the senior Capets were also the Kings of France. In 1589, Henry IV, Head of the House of Bourbon, became the senior Capet, following the extinction of male line of the House of Valois. All members of the House of Bourbon and its cadet branches

House of Bourbon



Country	France, Navarre, Spain, Luxembourg
Ancestral house	Capetian Dynasty
Titles	■ King of France ■ King of Navarre ■ King of Spain ■ King of the Two Sicilies ■ Grand Duke of Luxembourg ■ Duke of Orléans ■ Duke of Bourbon ■ Duke of Vendôme ■ Duke of Parma ■ Duke of Seville
Final sovereign	France and Navarre: Charles X (1830) of the French: Louis-Philippe I (1830–1848) Parma: Roberto I (1854–1859) Two Sicilies: Francesco II (1859–1861)
Founding	1268–Robert, Count of Clermont, the sixth son of King Louis IX of France,

alive today are direct agnatic descendants of Henry IV.

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	married Beatrix of Bourbon.
Deposition	France and Navarre: 1830: July Revolution Parma: 1859: Annexation by Kingdom of Sardinia Two Sicilies: 1861: Italian unification
Cadet branches	▪ House of Bourbon (Spanish branch) ▪ House of Bourbon-Parma ▪ House of Bourbon-Parma (Luxembourgish branch) ▪ House of Bourbon-Two Sicilies ▪ House of Bourbon-Braganza ▪ House of Bourbon-Orléans ▪ House of Orléans-Braganza ▪ House of Orléans-Galliera

History of France



This article is part of **a series**

Prehistory

Palaeolithic
Mesolithic
Neolithic
Copper Age
Bronze Age
Iron Age

Ancient history

Greek colonies

Origins

The pre-Capetian House of Bourbon was a noble family, dating at least from the beginning of the 13th century, when the estate of Bourbon was ruled by a Lord who was a vassal of the King of France.

In 1268, Robert, Count of Clermont, sixth son of King Louis IX of France, married Beatrix of Bourbon, heiress to the lordship of Bourbon. Their son Louis was made Duke of Bourbon in 1327. His descendant, the Constable of France Charles de Bourbon, was the last of the senior Bourbon line when he died in 1527. Because he chose to fight under the banner of Holy Roman Emperor Charles V and lead a life of exile, his title was discontinued after his death.

However the junior line of La Marche-Vendôme remained, the ruling house of the Dukedom of Vendôme. The Bourbon-Vendôme branch were to become rulers of the Kingdom of Navarre on the northern side of the Pyrenees in 1555 and then of France, with Henry III of Navarre becoming Henry IV of France. From then on, they were simply called Bourbon, until the creation of cadet branches.

France

The rise of Henry IV

Main article: Henry IV of France's succession

The first Bourbon King of France was Henry IV. He was born on 13 December 1553 in the Kingdom of Navarre. Antoine de Bourbon, his father, was a ninth generation descendant of King Louis IX of France. Jeanne d'Albret, his mother, was the Queen of Navarre and the niece of King Francis I of France. He was baptized Catholic, but raised Calvinist. After his father was killed in 1563, he became Duke of Vendôme at the age of 10, with Admiral Gaspard de Coligny (1519–1572) as his regent. Five years later, the young duke became the nominal leader of the Huguenots after the death of his uncle the Prince of Condé in 1569.

Henry succeeded to Navarre as Henry III when his mother died in 1572. That same year Catherine de' Medici, the influential mother of King Charles IX of France, arranged for the marriage of her daughter, Margaret of Valois, to Henry as a peace offering between the Catholics and Huguenots. Many Huguenots had gathered for the wedding held on 24 August and were massacred by the Catholics in the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre. Henry saved his own life by converting to Catholicism. He repudiated his conversion in 1576 and resumed his leadership of the Huguenots.

Celtic Gaul
Roman Gaul (50 BC–486 AD)
Early Middle Ages
The Franks
Merovingians (481 AD–751 AD)
Carolingians (751–987)
Middle Ages
Direct Capetians (987–1328)
Valois (1328–1498)
Early Modern
Valois-Orléans (1498–1515)
Valois-Angoulême (1515–1589)
House of Bourbon (1589–1792)
Kingdom of France (1492–1791)
Kingdom of France (1791–1792)
French Revolution (1789)
19th century
First Republic (1792–1804)
National Convention (1792–1795)
Directory (1795–1799)
Consulate (1799–1804)
First Empire (1804–1814)
Restoration (1814–1830)
July Revolution (1830)
July Monarchy (1830–1848)
1848 Revolution
Second Republic (1848–1852)
Second Empire (1852–1870)
Third Republic (1870–1940)
Paris Commune (1871)
20th century
French State (1940–1944)
Provisional Government (1944–1946)
Fourth Republic (1946–1958)
Fifth Republic (1958–present)

France Portal

The period from 1576 to 1584 was relatively calm in France, with the Huguenots consolidating control of much of the south with only occasional interference from the royal government. Extended civil war erupted again in 1584, when François, Duke of Anjou, younger brother of King Henry III of France, died, leaving Navarre next in line for the throne. Thus began the War of the Three Henries, as Henry of Navarre, Henry III, and the ultra-Catholic leader, Henry of Guise, fought a confusing three-cornered struggle for dominance. When Henry III was

assassinated on 31 July 1589, Navarre became the first Bourbon king of France as Henry IV.

Much of Catholic France, organized into the Catholic League, refused to recognize a Protestant monarch and instead recognized Henry IV's uncle, Charles, Cardinal de Bourbon, as king as Charles X, and the civil war continued. Henry won a crucial victory at Ivry on 14 March 1590, and following the death of the Cardinal the same year, the forces of the League lacked an obvious Catholic candidate for the throne and divided into various factions. Nevertheless, as a Protestant, Henry IV was unable to take Paris, a Catholic stronghold, or to decisively defeat his enemies, now supported by the Spanish. He reconverted to Catholicism in 1593—he is said to have remarked, "Paris is well worth a mass"[3]—and was crowned King of France at the Cathedral of Chartres on 27 February 1594.

Early Bourbons in France

Henry granted the Edict of Nantes on 13 April 1598, establishing Catholicism as an official state religion, but otherwise assuring the Huguenots the right to practice their religion. However, it did not grant full civil and religious equality to the Huguenots. This compromise ended the religious wars in France. That same year the Treaty of Vervins ended the war with Spain, adjusted the Spanish-French border, and resulted in a belated recognition by Spain of Henry as king of France.

Ably assisted by Maximilien de Béthune, duc de Sully, Henry reduced the land tax known as the *taille*; promoted agriculture, public works, construction of highways, and the first French canal; started such important industries as the tapestry works of the Gobelins; and intervened in favor of Protestants in the duchies and earldoms along the German frontier. This last was to be the cause of his assassination.



Henry IV of France, the first Bourbon King of France

Henry's marriage to Margaret, which had produced no heir, was annulled in 1599 and he married Marie de Medici, the niece of the grand duke of Tuscany. A son, Louis, was born to them in 1601. Henry IV was assassinated on 14 May 1610 in Paris. Louis XIII was only nine years old when he succeeded his father. He was to prove a weak ruler; his reign was effectively a series of distinct regimes, depending who held the effective reins of power. At first, Marie de Medici, his mother, served as regent and advanced a pro-Spanish policy. To deal with the financial troubles of France, Louis summoned the Estates General in 1614; this would be the last time that body met until the eve of the French Revolution. Marie arranged the 1615 marriage of Louis to Anne of Austria, the daughter of King Philip III of Spain.

In 1617, however, Louis conspired with Charles d'Albert, duc de Luynes to dispense with her influence, having her favorite Concino Concini assassinated on 26 April of that year. After some years of weak government by Louis's favorites, the King made Armand Jean du Plessis, Cardinal Richelieu, a former protégé of his mother, the chief minister of France in 1624.

Richelieu advanced an anti-Habsburg policy. He arranged for Louis' sister, Henrietta Maria, to marry King Charles I of England, on 11 May 1625. Her pro-Catholic propaganda in England was one of the contributing factors for the English Civil War. Richelieu, as ambitious for France and the French monarchy as for himself, laid the ground for the absolute monarchy that would last in France until the Revolution. He wanted to establish a dominating position for France in Europe, and he wanted to unify France under the monarchy. He established the role of *intendants*, non-noble men whose arbitrary powers were granted by (and revocable by) the monarchy and superseded many of the traditional duties and privileges of the noble governors.

Although it required a succession of internal military campaigns, he abolished the fortified Huguenot towns that Henry had allowed. He involved France in the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) against the Habsburgs by concluding an alliance with Sweden in 1631 and, actively, in 1635. He died in 1642 before the conclusion of that conflict, having groomed Cardinal Jules Mazarin as a successor. Louis XIII outlived him but by one year, dying in 1643 at the age of forty-two. After a childless marriage for twenty-three years he had a son with Anne on 5 September 1638, whom he named after himself.

Louis XIV and Louis XV

Main article: Louis XIV of France

Main article: Louis XV of France



Royal Coat of Arms of the Kingdom of France and Navarre.

When Louis XIV succeeded his father he was only four years old; he would become the most powerful king in French history. His mother Anne served as his regent with her favorite Jules Mazarin as chief minister. Mazarin continued the policies of Richelieu, bringing the Thirty Years' War to a successful conclusion in 1648 and defeating the noble challenge to royal absolutism in a series of civil wars known as the Fronde. He continued to war with Spain until 1659.

In that year the Treaty of the Pyrenees was signed signifying a significant shift in power, France had replaced Spain as the dominant state in Europe. One of the terms of the treaty arranged the marriage of Louis to his cousin Maria Theresa, the daughter of King Philip IV of Spain, by his first wife Elizabeth, the sister of Louis XIII. They were married in 1660 and had a son, Louis, in 1661. Mazarin died on 9 March 1661 and it was expected that Louis would appoint another chief minister, as had become the tradition, but instead he shocked the country by announcing he would rule alone.

Louis intended to glorify France by making war on his neighbors. For six years he reformed the finances of his state and built formidable armed forces. France fought three wars between 1667 and 1697 and gained some minor territory. Maria Theresa died in 1683 and the next year he married Françoise d'Aubigné, marquise de Maintenon. She had great influence over him especially in matters of religion. Louis XIV was staunchly Catholic and he revoked the Edict of Nantes on 18 October 1685, undoing the religious tolerance established by grandfather, Henry IV, almost a hundred years before.

The last war waged by Louis XIV proved to be one of the most important to dynastic Europe. In 1700, King Charles II of Spain died without a son. Louis's son the Grand Dauphin, as nephew to the late king, was closest heir, and Charles willed the kingdom to the Dauphin's second son, the Duke of Anjou. Other powers, particularly the Austrian Habsburgs, who had the next closest claims, objected to such a vast increase in French power.

Initially, most of the other powers were willing to accept Anjou's reign as Philip V, but Louis's arrogance and blunders soon made the English, the Dutch, and other powers join the Austrians in a coalition against France. The War of the Spanish Succession began in 1701 and raged for 12 years. In the end Louis's grandson was recognized as King of Spain, but the Habsburg's other European territories were largely ceded to Austria, and France was nearly bankrupted by the cost of the struggle. Louis died on 1 September 1715 ending his seventy-two year reign, the longest in European history.

The reign of Louis XIV was so long that he had outlived both his son and eldest grandson. He was succeeded by his great-grandson Louis XV. Louis XV was born on 15 February 1710 and was thus aged only five at his



Dynastic group portrait of Louis XIV (seated) with his son *le Grand Dauphin* (to the left), his grandson Louis, Duke of Burgundy (to the right), his great-grandson the duc d'Anjou, later Louis XV, and Madame de Ventadour, his governess, who commissioned this painting some years later; busts of Henry IV and Louis XIII in the background.

ascension, the third Louis in a row to become king of France before the age of ten. Initially, the regency was held by Philip, Duke of Orléans, Louis XIV's nephew, as nearest adult male to the throne. This Regency period was seen as one of debauchery and loose morals following the austere nature of the latter years of Louis XIV's reign, which had seen a series of cripplingly expensive wars and the King's turn to religiosity.

Following Orléans's death in 1723, another junior Bourbon, the Duke of Bourbon, the representative of the Bourbon-Condé line, became Prime Minister. It was expected that Louis would marry his cousin, the daughter of King Philip V of Spain, but this marriage was cancelled by the duke in 1725 so that Louis could marry Maria Leszczynska, the daughter of Stanislas, former king of Poland. Bourbon's motive appears to have been a desire to produce an heir as soon as possible so as to reduce the chances of a succession dispute between Philip V and the Duke of Orléans in the event of the sickly king's death. Maria was already an adult woman at the time of the marriage, while the Infanta was still a young girl.



A posthumous painting commissioned around 1670 by Philippe de France.It shows the French Bourbon Family around that time. It includes: Henrietta Maria of France (d 1669), exiled Queen of England; Philippe I, Duke of Orléans, founder of the House of Orléans; his first wife Princess Henriette (d 1670); the couples first daughter Marie Louise d'Orléans (later Queen of Spain);Anne of Austria (d 1666); the Orléans daughters of Gaston de France; Louis XIV; the Dauphin of France with his wife Maria Theresa of Spain with her third daughter Marie-Thérèse de France, called Madame Royale (d 1672) and her

Nevertheless, Bourbon's action brought a very negative response from Spain, and for his incompetence Bourbon was soon replaced by Cardinal Andre Hercule de Fleury, the young king's tutor, in 1726. Fleury was a peace loving man who intended to keep France out of war, but circumstances presented themselves that made this impossible.

The first cause of these wars came in 1733 when Augustus II, the elector of Saxony and king of Poland died. With French backing Stanislas was again elected king. This brought France into conflict with Russia and Austria who supported Augustus III, duke of Saxony and son of Augustus II.

Stanislas lost the Polish crown, but he was given the Duchy of Lorraine as compensation, which would pass to France after his death. Next came the War of the Austrian Succession in 1740 in which France supported King Frederick II of Prussia against Maria Theresa of Austria, archduchess of Austria. Fleury died in 1743 before the conclusion of the war.

second son *Philippe-Charles de France, duc d'Anjou* (d1671). The first daughter of Gaston stands on the far right:Anne Marie Louise d'Orléans. The picture frame with the 2 children are the other 2 daughters of Louis and Maria Theresa who died in 1662 and 1664.

Shortly after Fleury's death in 1745 Louis was most influenced by his mistress the Marquise de Pompadour. She reversed the policy of France in 1756 by creating an alliance with Austria against Prussia in the Seven Years' War. The war was a disaster for France, losing most of her overseas possessions to the British in the Treaty of Paris in 1763. Louis' only son died in 1765 making his grandson the Dauphin. Maria, his wife, died in 1768 and Louis himself died on 10 May 1774.

French Revolution

Main article: French Revolution

Louis XVI had become the dauphin of France upon the death of his father, the son of Louis XV, in 1765. He married Marie Antoinette of Austria, a daughter of Maria Theresa, in 1770. Louis intervened in the American Revolution against Britain in 1778, but he is most remembered for his role in the French Revolution. France was in financial turmoil and Louis was forced to convene the Estates-General on 5 May 1789.

They formed the National Assembly and forced Louis to accept a constitution that limited his powers on 14 July 1790. He tried to flee France in June 1791, but was captured. The French monarchy was abolished on 21 September 1792 and a republic was proclaimed. The chain of Bourbon monarchs begun in 1589 was broken. Louis XVI was executed on 21 January 1793.

Marie Antoinette and her son, Louis, were held as prisoners. Many French royalists proclaimed him Louis XVII, but he never reigned. She was executed on 16 October 1793. He died of tuberculosis on 8 June 1795 at the age of ten while in captivity.

The French Revolutionary Wars and Napoleonic Wars spread nationalism and anti-absolutism throughout Europe, and the other Bourbon monarchs were threatened. Ferdinand was forced to flee from Naples in 1806 when Napoleon Bonaparte deposed him and installed his brother, Joseph, as king. Ferdinand continued to rule from Sicily until 1815.

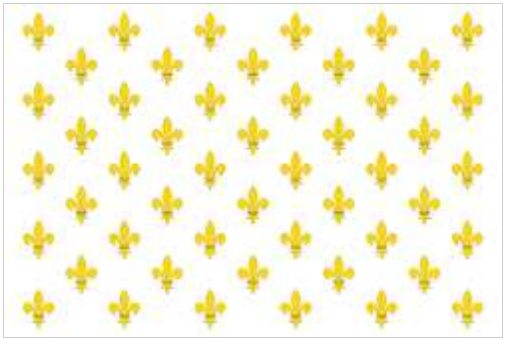
Napoleon conquered Parma in 1800 and compensated the Bourbon duke with Etruria, a new kingdom he created from the Grand Duchy of Tuscany. It was short-lived, as Napoleon annexed Etruria in 1807.

King Charles IV of Spain had been an ally of France. He succeeded his father, Charles III, in 1788. At first he declared war on France on 7 March 1793, but he made peace on 22 June 1795. This peace became an alliance on 19 August 1796. His chief minister, Manuel de Godoy convinced Charles that his son, Ferdinand, was plotting to overthrow him. Napoleon exploited the situation and invaded Spain in March 1808. This led to an uprising that forced Charles to abdicate on 19 March in favor of his son, Ferdinand VII. Napoleon forced Ferdinand to return the crown to Charles on 30 April and then convinced Charles to relinquish it to him on 10 May. In turn, he gave it to his brother, Joseph, king of Naples on 6 June. Joseph abandoned Naples to Joachim Murat, the husband of Napoleon's sister. This was very unpopular in Spain and resulted in the Peninsular War, a struggle that would contribute to the downfall of Napoleon.

The Bourbon Restoration

Main article: Bourbon Restoration

With the abdication of Napoleon on 11 April 1814 the Bourbon Dynasty was restored to the kingdom of France



The standard of the French royal family under the *Ancien Régime* and the restoration period.

in the person of Louis XVIII, brother of Louis XVI. Napoleon escaped from exile and Louis fled in March 1815. Louis was again restored after the Battle of Waterloo on 7 July.

The conservative elements of Europe dominated the post-Napoleonic age, but the values of the French Revolution could not be easily swept aside. Louis granted a constitution on 14 June 1814 to appease the liberals, but the ultra-royalist party, led by his brother, Charles, continued to influence his reign.[*citation needed*] When he died in 1824 his brother became king as Charles X much to the dismay of French liberals. In a saying ascribed to Talleyrand, "they had learned nothing and forgotten nothing".[4]

Aftermath

Charles passed several laws that appealed to the upper class, but angered the middle class. The situation came to a head when he appointed a new minister on 8 August 1829 who did not have the confidence of the chamber. The chamber censured the king on 18 March 1830 and in response Charles proclaimed five ordinances on 26 July intended to silence criticism against him.[*citation needed*] This almost resulted in another revolution as dramatic as the one in 1789, but moderates were able to control the situation.[*citation needed*] As a compromise the crown was offered to Louis-Philippe, duke of Orléans, a descendant of the brother of Louis XIV, and the head of the Orleanist cadet branch of the Bourbons. He was proclaimed King of the French on 7 August. The resulting regime, known as the July monarchy, lasted until the Revolution of 1848. The Bourbon monarchy in France ended on 24 February 1848, when Louis-Philippe was forced to abdicate and the short-lived French Second Republic was established.

Some legitimists refused to recognize the Orleanist monarchy. After the death of Charles in 1836 his son was proclaimed Louis XIX, though this title was never formally recognized. Charles' grandson Henri, comte de Chambord, the last Bourbon claimant of the French crown, was proclaimed by some Henry V, but the French monarchy was never restored.

Following the 1870 collapse of the empire of Emperor Napoleon III, Henri was offered a restored throne. However Chambord refused to accept the throne unless France abandoned the revolution-inspired tricolour and accepted what he regarded as the true Bourbon flag of France. The tricolour, originally associated with the French Revolution and the First French Republic, had been used by the July Monarchy, the Second Republic and both Empires; the French National Assembly could not possibly agree.

A *temporary* Third Republic was established, while monarchists waited for the comte de Chambord to die and for the succession to pass to the Comte de Paris, who was willing to accept the tricolour. Henri lived until 1883, by which time public opinion had come to accept the republic as the "form of government that divides us least." His death without issue marked the extinction of the French Bourbons. Thus head of the House of Bourbon became the now eldest male heir of the dynasty Juan, Count of Montizón of the Spanish line of the house who was also Carlist claimant to the throne of Spain. His heir as eldest Bourbon and head of the house is today Louis Alphonse, Duke of Anjou.

By an ordinance of Louis Philippe I of France of 13 August 1830, it was decided that the king's children (and his sister) would continue to bear the arms of Orléans, that Louis-Philippe's eldest son, as Prince Royal, would bear the title of duc d'Orléans, that the younger sons would continue to have their existing titles, and that the sister and daughters of the king would only be styled "princesses d'Orléans", which meant the Orléans royalty did not take the name "of France".

Bourbons of Spain and Italy

Philip V

The Spanish branch of the House of Bourbon was founded by Philip V. He was born in 1683 in Versailles, the second son of the Grand Dauphin, son of Louis XIV. He was Duke of Anjou and probably never expected to be raised to a rank higher than that. However King Charles II of Spain, dying without issue, willed the throne to his grand-nephew the Duke of Anjou, younger grandson of his eldest sister Marie-Thérèse, daughter of King Philip IV of Spain who had married Louis XIV of France.

The prospect of Bourbons on both the French and Spanish thrones was resisted as creating an imbalance of power in Europe by its dominant regimes and, upon Charles II's death on 1 November 1700, a Grand Alliance of European nations united against Philip. This was known as the War of Spanish Succession. In the Treaty of Utrecht, signed on 11 April 1713, Philip was recognized as king of Spain but his renunciation of succession rights to France was affirmed and, of the Spanish Empire's other European territories, Sicily was ceded to Savoy, and the Spanish Netherlands, Milan and Naples were alloted to the Austrian Habsburgs.

Philip had two sons by his first wife. After her death he married Elizabeth Farnese, niece of Francesco Farnese, Duke of Parma, in 1714. She presented Philip with three sons, for whom she had ambitions of securing Italian crowns. Thus she induced Philip to occupy Sardinia and Sicily in 1717.

A Quadruple Alliance of Britain, France, Austria and the Netherlands was organized on 2 August 1718 to stop him. In the Treaty of The Hague, signed on 17 February 1720, Philip renounced his conquests of Sardinia and Sicily, but assured the ascension of his eldest son by Elizabeth to the Duchy of Parma upon the reigning duke's death. Philip abdicated in January 1724 in favor of Louis I, his eldest son with his first wife, but Louis died in August and Philip resumed the crown.

When the War of the Polish Succession began in 1733, Philip and Elisabeth saw another opportunity to advance the claims of their sons and recover at least part of the former possessions of the Spanish crown on the Italian peninsula. Philip signed the Family Compact with Louis XV, his nephew and king of France. Charles, Duke of Parma since 1731, invaded Naples. At the conclusion of peace on 13 November 1738, control of Parma and Piacenza was ceded to Austria, which had occupied the duchies but was now forced to recognise Charles as King of Naples and Sicily. Philip also used the War of the Austrian Succession to win more territory in Italy. He did not live to see it to its conclusion, however, dying in 1746.

Ferdinand VI and Charles III

Ferdinand VI, second son of Philip V and his first wife, succeeded his father. He was a peace-loving monarch who kept Spain out of the Seven Years' War. He died in 1759 in the midst of that conflict and was succeeded by his half-brother Charles III. Charles was the eldest son of Philip and Elizabeth Farnese. He was born in 1716 and had become Duke of Parma when the last Farnese duke died in 1731.

Following Spain's victory over the Austrians at the battle of Bitonto, it proved inexpedient to reunite Naples and Sicily to Spain, so as a compromise Charles became King of Naples, as Charles IV and VII of Sicily. Following Charles' accession to the Spanish throne in 1759 he was required, by the Treaty of Naples of 3 October 1759, to abdicate Naples and Sicily to his third son, Ferdinand, thus initiating the branch known as the Neapolitan Bourbons.

Charles revived the Family Compact with France on 15 August 1761 and joined in the Seven Years' War against Britain in 1762; the reformist policies he had espoused in Naples were pursued with similar energy in Spain,

where he completely overhauled the cumbersome bureaucracy of the state. As a French ally he opposed Britain during the American Revolution in June 1779, supplying large quantities of weapons and munitions to the rebels and keeping one third of all the British forces in the Americas occupied defending Florida and what is now Alabama, which were ultimately recaptured by Spain. Charles died in 1788.

Bourbon-Parma

Elizabeth Farnese's ambitions were realized at the conclusion of the War of the Austrian Succession in 1748 when the Duchy of Parma and Piacenza, already occupied by Spanish troops, were ceded by Austria to her second son, Philip, and combined with the former Gonzaga duchy of Guastalla.

Elizabeth died in 1766.

Later Bourbon monarchs outside France

Upon the fall of the Napoleonic empire, Ferdinand I was restored to the throne of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies in 1815. His subjects revolted on 2 July 1820 and he was forced to grant a constitution on 13 July. Austria invaded in March 1821 and revoked the constitution. He was succeeded by his son, Francis I, in 1825 and by his grandson, Ferdinand II, in 1830. Another revolution erupted on 12 January 1848 and Ferdinand was also forced to grant a constitution on 10 February. This constitution was revoked in 1849. Ferdinand was succeeded by his son, Francis II, in May 1859.

When Giuseppe Garibaldi captured Naples on 7 September 1860 Francis restored the constitution on 2 July in an attempt to save his sovereignty. He fled to the fortress of Gaeta, which was captured by the Piedmontese troops on 13 February 1861; his kingdom was incorporated in the Kingdom of Italy on 17 March 1861, after the fall the fortress of Messina (surrendered on 12 March 1861), although the Neapolitan troops in Civitella del Tronto resisted until 20 March.

After the fall of Napoleon, Napoleon's wife, Maria Louisa, was made Duchess of Parma. As compensation, Charles Louis, the former king of Etruria, was made the Duke of Lucca. When Maria Louisa died in 1847 he was restored to Parma as Charles II. Lucca was incorporated into Tuscany. He was succeeded by his son, Charles III, and grandson, Robert I, in 1854. The people of Parma voted for a union with the kingdom of Sardinia on 13 March 1860. After Italian unification in 1861 the Bourbon dynasty in Italy was no more.

Ferdinand VII was restored to the throne of Spain after the fall of Napoleon in March 1814. Like his Italian Bourbon counterpart his subjects revolted against him in January 1820 and he was forced to grant a constitution. A French army invaded in 1823 and the constitution was revoked. Ferdinand married his fourth wife, Maria Christina, the daughter of Francis I, the Bourbon king of Sicily, in 1829. Despite his many marriages he did not have a son so on 30 June 1833 he was influenced by his wife to abolish the Salic Law so that her daughter, Isabella, could become queen depriving his brother, Don Carlos, of the throne.

Isabella II succeeded her father when he died on 29 September 1833. She was only three years old and Maria Cristina, her mother, served as regent. Maria knew that she needed the support of the liberals to oppose Don Carlos so she granted a constitution in 1834. Don Carlos found his greatest support in Catalonia and the Basques country because the constitution centralized the provinces thus denying them the autonomy they sought. He was defeated and fled the country in 1839. Isabella was declared of age in 1843 and she married her cousin Francisco de Asis, the son of her father's brother, on 10 October 1846. A military revolution broke out against Isabella in 1868 and she was deposed on 29 September. She abdicated in favor of her son, Alfonso, in 1870, but Spain was proclaimed a republic for a brief time.

When the First Spanish Republic failed the crown was offered to Isabella's son who accepted on 1 January 1875 as Alfonso XII. Don Carlos, who returned to Spain, was again defeated and resumed his exile in February 1876. Alfonso granted a new constitution on July 1876 that was more liberal than the one granted by his grandmother. His reign was cut short when he died in 1885 at the age of twenty-eight.

Alfonso XIII was born on 17 May 1886 after the death of his father. His mother, Maria Christina, the second wife of Alfonso XII served as regent. Alfonso XIII was declared of age in 1902 and he married Victoria Eugénie Julia Ena of Battenberg, the granddaughter of the British queen Victoria, on 31 May 1906. He remained neutral during World War I, but supported the military coup of Miguel Primo de Rivera on 13 September 1923. A movement towards the establishment of a republic began in 1930 and Alfonso fled the country on 14 April 1931. He never formally abdicated, but lived the rest of his life in exile. He died in 1941.

The Bourbon dynasty seemed finished in Spain as in the rest of the world, but it would be resurrected. The Second Spanish Republic was overthrown in the Spanish Civil War, leading to the dictatorship of Francisco Franco. He named Juan Carlos de Borbón, a grandson of Alfonso XIII, his successor on 22 July 1969. When Franco died on 20 November 1975 a Bourbon monarch was restored to the throne of Spain two days later as Juan Carlos I. The new king oversaw the Spanish transition to democracy; the Spanish Constitution of 1978, approved on 28 September 1978, recognized the monarchy.

Though it is not as powerful as it once was under Louis XIV and it no longer reigns in its native country of France, it is by no means extinct, and the House of Bourbon has survived to the present-day world of republics. The birth of a male heir to the Prince of Asturias in Spain is expected to trigger a change in the law of succession from male primogeniture to equal primogeniture.[*citation needed*] Since 1964 the Bourbon-Parma line has reigned agnatically in Luxembourg through Grand Dukes Jean and his son Henri. In June 2011, Luxembourg adopted equal primogeniture, replacing the old Semi-Salic law that might have guaranteed the survival of Bourbon rule for generations. The European phenomenon of equal primogeniture has doomed the security that the Bourbon monarchs once had.

List of Bourbons

Main articles: Descendants of Henry IV of France, Descendants of Louis XIV of France, Descendants of Philip V of Spain, Descendants of Charles III of Spain, and List of living legitimate male Capetians

List of Bourbon rulers

France

Monarchs of France

Dates indicate reigns, not lifetimes.

- Henry IV, the Great (1589–1610)
- Louis XIII, the Just (1610–1643)
- Louis XIV, the Sun King (1643–1715)
- Louis XV, the Well-Beloved (1715–1774)
- Louis XVI (1774–1792)

Claimants to the throne of France

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Louis XVI (1792–1793)
- Louis XVII (1793–1795)
- Louis XVIII (1795–1814)

Monarchs of France

Dates indicate reigns, not lifetimes.

- Louis XVIII (1814–1824)
- Charles X (1824–1830)
- Louis-Philippe (House of Bourbon-Orléans) (1830–1848)

Legitimist claimants in France

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Charles X (1830–1836)
- Louis-Antoine, Duke of Angoulême (Louis XIX) (1836–1844)
- Henry, Count of Chambord (Henri V) (1844–1883)

Legitimist claimants in France (Spanish branch)

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Juan, Count of Montizón (Jean III) (1883–1887)
- Carlos, Duke of Madrid (Charles XI) (1887–1903)
- Jaime, Duke of Anjou and Madrid (Jacques I) (1903–1931)
- Alfonso Carlos, Duke of San Jaime (Charles XII)(1931–1936)
- Alfonso XIII of Spain (Alphonse I) (1936–1941) (did not claim the Throne of France[5])
- Jaime, Duke of Segovia (Henri VI) (1941–1975)
- Alfonso, Duke of Anjou and Cádiz (Alphonse II) (1975–1989)
- Louis Alphonse, Duke of Anjou (Louis XX) (1989–present)

Orléanist and Unionist claimants in France

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Philippe, Count of Paris (Philippe VII) (1883–1894)
- Philippe, Duke of Orléans (Philippe VIII) (1894–1926)
- Jean, Duke of Guise (Jean III) (1926–1940)
- Henri, Count of Paris (Henry VI) (1940–1999)
- Henri, Count of Paris (Henry VII) (1999 – Present)

Spain

Monarchs of Spain

Dates indicate seniority, not lifetimes. Where reign as king or queen of Spain is different, this is noted.

- Philip V (1700–1746) [abdicated 1724, resumed throne on death of son]
  - Louis I [King 1724; ruled less than one year]
- Ferdinand VI (1746–1759)
- Charles III (1759–1788)
- Charles IV (1788–1808)
- Ferdinand VII, *El Deseado* (1808–1833) [King 1808, 1813–1833]
- Isabella II (1833–1870) [Queen 1833–1868]
- Alfonso XII (1870–1885) [King 1874–1885]
- Alfonso XIII (1886–1941) [King 1886–1931]
- Juan, Count of Barcelona (1941–1977) [did not become King]
- Juan Carlos I (1977–present) [King 1975–present]

Carlist claimants in Spain

Dates indicate claims, not lifetimes.

- Infante Carlos, Count of Molina (Carlos V) (1833–1845)
- Infante Carlos, Count of Montemolin (Carlos VI) (1845–1861)
- Juan, Count of Montizón (Juan II) (1861–1868)
- Carlos, Duke of Madrid (Carlos VII) (1868–1909)
- Jaime, Duke of Madrid (Jaime III) (1909–1931)
- Alfonso Carlos of Bourbon, Duke of San Jaime (Alfonso Carlos I) (1931–1936)
- Xavier, Duke of Parma (Xavier I) (1936–1952–1977)
- Carlos Hugo of Bourbon, Duke of Parma (Carlos Hugo I) (1977–1979)
- Prince Sixtus Henry of Bourbon-Parma (Sixto Enrique I) (1979–present)

Luxembourg

Grand Dukes of Luxembourg

Dates indicate reigns, not lifetimes.

- Jean (1964–2000)
- Henri (2000–present)

Other significant Bourbon titles

- Dukes of Bourbon
- Dukes of Montpensier
- Dukes of Vendôme
- Dukes of Anjou
- Kings of the Two Sicilies
- Dukes of Parma
- Dukes of Orléans
- Princes of Orléans-Braganza
- Princes of Condé
- Princes of Conti

Bourbon branches

Notable legitimate branches

- House of Bourbon-Orléans
  - Called the House of Orléans and holders of the title Duke of Orléans. This house was founded by the younger brother of Louis XIV: Philippe I, Duke of Orléans. This is the oldest (and thus, the most genealogically junior) surviving cadet branch of the House of Bourbon.
- House of Bourbon-Two Sicilies
- House of Bourbon-Parma
- House of Bourbon-Braganza (also called Branch of the Infant Gabriel)
- House of Bourbon-Orléans-Braganza (called the House of Orléans-Braganza and now representing the Brazilian Imperial Family)
- House of Bourbon-Montpensier (extinct)
- House of Bourbon-Condé (extinct)
- House of Bourbon-Conti (extinct)
- **House of Bourbon-La Marche** (extinct)
- **House of Bourbon-Soissons** (extinct)

Notable morganatic branches

- **House of Bourbon-Orléans-Galliera** (called the *House of Orléans-Galliera*)

Notable illegitimate branches

- Bourbon-Busset
  - an illegitimate branch senior to the Henry IV's House of Bourbon
- Bourbon-Vendôme
  - (extinct at the death of Louis Joseph de Bourbon, duc de Vendôme, great grandson of Henry IV of France) – 1598–1712
- Bourbon-Maine
  - (extinct at the death of *Louis Charles de Bourbon, comte d'Eu*, grandson of Louis XIV) – 1672–1775
- Bourbon-Penthièvre
  - (extinct at the death of Louis Jean Marie de Bourbon, duc de Penthièvre in 1793 but his daughter Louise Marie Adélaïde de Bourbon-Penthièvre who died in 1821 inherited all of the Bourbon-Penthièvre wealth) – 1725–1793/1821
- Bourbon-Bhopal

Surnames used

Officially, the King of France had no family name. A prince with the rank of *fils de France* (Son of France) are surnamed "*de France*"; all his descendants, however, had his main title (whether an appanage or a courtesy title) as their family or last name.

Members of the House of Bourbon-Conde and its cadet branches, which never ascended to the throne, used the surname "de Bourbon" until their extinction in 1830.

The daughters of Gaston, Duke of Orleans, were the first members of the House of Bourbon since the accession of Henry IV to take their surname from the appanage of their father (d'Orleans). Gaston died without a male heir; his titles reverted to the crown. It was given to his nephew, Philippe I, Duke of Orleans, brother of Louis

XIV, whose descendants still bear the surname.

When Philippe, grandson of Louis XIV, became King of Spain as Philip V, he gave up his French titles. As a Son of France, his actual surname was "de France". However, since such surname cannot be passed to a descendant with a rank lower than Son of France, and since Philippe had already given up his French titles, his descendants simply took the name of their royal house as their surname ("de Bourbon", rendered in Spanish as "de Borbón").

The children of Philippe's brother, Charles, Duke of Berry (all of whom died in infancy), were given the surname "d'Alencon". He was Duke of Berry only by name, so the surname of his children were taken from his first substantial duchy.

The children of Charles Philippe, Count of Artois, brother of Louis XVI, were surnamed "d'Artois". When Charles succeeded to the throne as Charles X, his son Louis Antoine became a Son of France, with the corresponding change in surname. His grandson, Henri d'Artois, being merely a Grandson of France, would use the surname until his death.

See also

- List of living legitimate male Capetians
- Members of the House of Bourbon
- Bourbon County, Kentucky, USA, named after the royal family
- Bourbon family tree
- Bourbonnais
- Bourbons of India and the controversy about them.
- French Wars of Religion
- Image:Habsburg-bourbon-parma-2siciliesX.png: A chart of the dynastic links among the royal houses of Habsburg, Bourbon, Bourbon-Parma and Bourbon-Two Sicilies
- Kings of France family tree
- Le Retour des Princes Français à Paris
- Legitimists
- List of Spanish monarchs
- Members of the French Royal Families

References

1. ^ The Royal Household of His Majesty the King_ Welcome (http://www.casareal.es/sm_rey/index-iden-idweb.html)
2. ^ The English language version of the Official Royal Family website is rendered as **Borbon**
3. ^ Frieda, Leonie, *Catherine de Medici*
4. ^ In French: *Ils n'ont rien appris, ni rien oublié.* There is no historic evidence linking the saying to Talleyrand. It may derive from a similar lamentation about the royalists, found in a letter by Charles Louis Etienne, chevalier de Panat, a French naval officer, dated January 1796 and sent from London to Mallet du Pan: *personne n'a su ni rien oublier, ni rien apprendre* ("nobody has been able to forget anything, nor to learn anything"), included in: A. Sayou, ed. (1852). *Mémoires et correspondance de Mallet du Pan* (http://books.google.com/books?id=LZpCAAAAYAAJ&pg=PA197) . **II**. p. 197. http://books.google.com/books?id=LZpCAAAAYAAJ&pg=PA197.
5. ^ Letter of the Count of Barcelona to the Spanish Minister of Justice(1972) (http://www.heraldica.org/topics/national/sp_succ.htm#juan1972%20)

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Chronology of French monarchs

House of Bourbon as Ruling House

— Royal house — **House of Bourbon** Cadet branch of the **Capetian dynasty** Founding year: 1272		
Preceded by **House of Valois**	**Ruling House of France** 1589–1792	**Monarchy Abolished** ***See French Revolution;*** eventually House of Bonaparte
Preceded by **House of Bonaparte** ***Ruled as French Emperor***	**Ruling House of France** 1814–1830	Succeeded by **House of Orléans**
Preceded by **House of Habsburg**	**Ruling House of the Duchy of Burgundy and the Burgundian Netherlands** 1700–1713	Succeeded by **House of Habsburg**
	Ruling House of Spain 1700–1808	Succeeded by **House of Bonaparte**
Vacant Title last held by **House of Trastámara**	**Ruling House of Naples and Sicily** 1753–1806	
Preceded by **House of Bonaparte**	**Ruling House of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies** 1815–1860	**Kingdom Abolished** Italian Unification under the House of Savoy
	Ruling House of Spain 1813–1868	**Interregnum** ***Bourbon Monarchy overthrown in Glorious Revolution;*** eventually House of Savoy
Vacant Title last held by **House of Savoy**	**Ruling House of Spain** 1885–1931	**Second Republic Declared**
Vacant Title last held by **House of Bourbon**	**Ruling House of Spain** 1975–present	**Incumbent**
Preceded by **House of Nassau-Weilburg**	**Ruling House of Luxembourg** 1964–present	

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Categories: History of Spain | Roman Catholic families | House of Bourbon | European royal families

Capetian dynasty | French noble families | French royal families

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Sweden

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Sweden (/ˈswiːdən/ *SWEE-dən*; Swedish: *Sverige* ['sværjɛ] (listen)), officially the **Kingdom of Sweden** (Swedish: *Konungariket Sverige*), is a Nordic country on the Scandinavian Peninsula in Northern Europe. Sweden borders with Norway and Finland, and is connected to Denmark by a bridge-tunnel across the Öresund.

At 450,295 square kilometres (173,860 sq mi), Sweden is the third largest country in the European Union by area, with a total population of about 9.4 million.[5] Sweden has a low population density of 21 inhabitants per square kilometre (54 /sq mi) with the population mostly concentrated to the southern half of the country. About 85% of the population live in urban areas.[12] Sweden's capital is Stockholm, which is also the largest city.

Sweden emerged as an independent and unified country during the Middle Ages. In the 17th century, the country expanded its territories to form the Swedish Empire. The empire grew to be one of the great powers of Europe in the 17th and early 18th century. Most of the conquered territories outside the Scandinavian Peninsula were lost during the 18th and 19th centuries. The eastern half of Sweden, present-day Finland, was lost to Russia in 1809. The last war in which Sweden was directly involved was in 1814, when Sweden by military means forced Norway into a personal union. Since then, Sweden has been at peace, adopting a non-aligned foreign policy in peacetime and neutrality in wartime.[13]

Today, Sweden is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy of government and a highly developed economy. In 2010, it ranked fourth in the world in *The Economist*'s Democracy Index and ninth in the United Nations' Human Development Index. In 2010, the World Economic Forum ranked Sweden as the second most competitive country in the world, after Switzerland.[14] According to the UN, it has the third lowest infant mortality rate in the world. Sweden also has the lowest Gini coefficient of all countries (0.23) which makes Sweden the most equal country on earth in terms of economic division. Sweden has been a member of the European Union since 1 January 1995 and is a member of the OECD.

Kingdom of Sweden
Konungariket Sverige



Flag Coat of arms

Motto: (Royal) "*För Sverige i tiden*"[a]
"For Sweden – With the Times"

Anthem: *Du gamla, Du fria*[b]
Thou ancient, thou free
Royal anthem: *Kungssången*
The Song of the King



Location of **Sweden** (dark green)
– in Europe (green & dark grey)
– in the European Union (green) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Stockholm 59°21′N 18°4′E
Official language(s)	Swedish[c]
Ethnic groups	90.8% Swedes[1][d] ~3% Finns[2] ~1% other Nordics ~5,2% other (2011)[3][4]
Demonym	Swedish or Swedes
Government	Constitutional monarchy, Unitary parliamentary representative democracy
- Monarch	King Carl XVI Gustaf
- Prime Minister	Fredrik Reinfeldt (M)

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- Speaker of the riksdag	Per Westerberg (M)
Legislature	Riksdag
Consolidation	Middle Ages
Area	
- Total	449,964 km^2 (57th) 173,745 sq mi
- Water (%)	8.7
Population	
- 2011 census	9,415,295[5]
- Density	20.6/km^2 (192nd) 53.8/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate
- Total	$337.893 billion[6]
- Per capita	$36,502[6]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$443.718 billion[6]
- Per capita	$47,934[6]
Gini (2005)	23 (low)
HDI (2010)	▲ 0.885[7] (very high) (9th)
Currency	Swedish krona (SEK)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Date formats	yyyy-mm-dd
Drives on the	right[e]
ISO 3166 code	SE
Internet TLD	.se[f]
Calling code	46

a. ^ *För Sverige – I tiden* has been adopted by Carl XVI Gustaf as his personal motto.

b. ^ *Du gamla, Du fria* has never been officially adopted as national anthem, but is so by convention.

c. ^ Since 1 July 2009.[8][9] Five other languages are officially recognized as minority languages.[10] They are: Finnish, Meänkieli, Romani, Sami and Yiddish. The Swedish Sign Language also has a special status.

d. ^ As of 2008, 18% of the population had foreign origins (13% if excluding Finns and 9% if also excluding other Scandinavians), with 14% foreign-born and another 4% born in Sweden of two foreign-born parents.[11]

Etymology

Main article: Name of Sweden

The modern name *Sweden* is derived through back-formation from Old English *Swēoþēod*, which meant "people of the Swedes" (Old Norse *Svíþjóð*, Latin *Suetidi*). This word is derived from *Sweon/Sweonas* (Old Norse *Sviar*, Latin S*uiones*). The Swedish name *Sverige* (a conjunction of the words *Svea* and *Rike*, first recorded as *Swēorice* in Beowulf, with the consonant 'k' softened to 'g'[15] – compare "rige" in modern Danish) literally means "Kingdom of the Swedes", excluding the Geats in Götaland.

e. ^ Since 3 September 1967.

f. ^ The .eu domain is also used, as it is shared with other European Union member states. The .nu domain is another commonly used top-level domain ("nu" means "now" in Swedish).

Variations of the name *Sweden* are used in most languages, with the exception of Danish and Norwegian using *Sverige*, Icelandic *Svíþjóð*, and the more notable exception of some Finno-Ugric languages where *Ruotsi* (Finnish) and *Rootsi* (Estonian) are used, names commonly considered etymologically related to the English name for Russia, referring to the people, *Rus'*, originally from the coastal areas of Roslagen, Uppland.

The etymology of *Swedes*, and thus *Sweden*, is generally not agreed upon but may derive from Proto-Germanic *Swihoniz* meaning "one's own",[16] referring to one's own Germanic tribe.

History

Main article: History of Sweden

Prehistory

Main article: Prehistoric Sweden

Sweden's prehistory begins in the Allerød warm period c. 12,000 BC with Late Palaeolithic reindeer-hunting camps of the Bromme culture at the edge of the ice in what is now the country's southernmost province. This period was characterized by small bands of hunter-gatherer-fishers using flint technology.

Sweden enters proto-history with the *Germania* of Tacitus in AD 98. In Germania 44, 45 he mentions the Swedes (*Suiones*) as a powerful tribe (*distinguished not merely for their arms and men, but for their powerful fleets*) with ships that had a prow in both ends (longships). Which kings (*kuningaz*) ruled these Suiones is unknown, but Norse mythology presents a long line of legendary and semi-legendary kings going back to the last centuries BC. As for literacy in Sweden itself, the runic script was in use among the south Scandinavian elite by at least the 2nd century AD, but all that has come down to the present from the Roman Period is curt inscriptions on artefacts, mainly of male names, demonstrating that the people of south Scandinavia spoke Proto-Norse at the time, a language ancestral to Swedish and other North Germanic languages.

In the 6th century Jordanes named two tribes he calls the *Suehans* and the *Suetidi* who lived in Scandza. These two names are both considered to refer to the same tribe. The *Suehans*, he says, has very fine horses just as the "Thyringi" tribe (*alia vero gens ibi moratur Suehans, quae velud Thyringi equis utuntur eximiis*). Snorri Sturluson wrote that the contemporary Swedish king Adils (Eadgils) had the finest horses of his days. The Suehans were the suppliers of black fox skins for the Roman market. Then Jordanes names the *Suetidi* which is considered to be the Latin form of *Svitjod*. He writes that the Suetidi are the tallest of men together with the Dani who were of the same stock. Later he mentions other Scandinavian tribes for being of the same height.

Originating in semi-legendary Scandza, believed to be somewhere in modern Götaland, Sweden, a Gothic population had crossed the Baltic Sea before the 2nd century AD, reaching Scythia at the coast of the Black Sea in modern Ukraine where Goths left their archaeological traces in the Chernyakhov culture. In the 5th and 6th

centuries, they became divided as the Visigoths and the Ostrogoths, and established powerful successor-states of the Roman Empire in the Iberian peninsula and Italy.[17] Crimean Gothic communities appear to have survived intact in Crimea until the late 18th century.[18]

Viking and Middle Ages

See also: Early Swedish history, Foundation of Modern Sweden, and Varangians

The Swedish Viking Age lasted roughly between the 8th and 11th centuries. It is believed that Swedish Vikings and Gutar mainly travelled east and south, going to Finland, the Baltic countries, Russia, Belarus, Ukraine the Black Sea and further as far as Baghdad. Their routes passed through the Dnieper down south to Constantinople, on which they did numerous raids. The Byzantine Emperor Theophilos noticed their great skills in war and invited them to serve as his personal bodyguard, known as the varangian guard. The Swedish Vikings, called "Rus" are also believed to be the founding fathers of Kievan Rus. The Arabic traveller "Ibn Fadlan" described these Vikings as following:

> *I have seen the Rus as they came on their merchant journeys and encamped by the Itil. I have never seen more perfect physical specimens, tall as date palms, blond and ruddy; they wear neither tunics nor caftans, but the men wear a garment which covers one side of the body and leaves a hand free. Each man has an axe, a sword, and a knife, and keeps each by him at all times. The swords are broad and grooved, of Frankish sort.*[19]

The adventures of these Swedish Vikings are commemorated on many runestones in Sweden, such as the Greece Runestones and the Varangian Runestones. There was also considerable participation in expeditions westwards, which are commemorated on stones such as the England Runestones. The last major Swedish Viking expedition appears to have been the ill-fated expedition of Ingvar the Far-Travelled to Serkland, the region south-east of the Caspian Sea. Its members are commemorated on the Ingvar Runestones, none of which mentions any survivor. What happened to the crew is unknown, but it is believed that they died of sickness.

The Kingdom of Sweden

It is not known when and how the kingdom of Sweden was born, but the list of Swedish monarchs is drawn from the first kings known to have ruled both Svealand (Sweden) and Götaland (Gothia) as one province, beginning with Erik the Victorious. Sweden and Gothia were two separate nations long before that into antiquity. It is not known how long they existed, *Beowulf* described semi-legendary Swedish-Geatish wars in the 6th century.

Cultural advances



Gamla Uppsala, a site of religious and political importance in the early days of Sweden.

During the early stages of the Scandinavian Viking Age, Ystad in Scania and Paviken on Gotland, in present-day Sweden, were flourishing trade centres. Remains of what is believed to have been a large market have been found in Ystad dating from 600–700 AD.[20] In Paviken, an important centre of trade in the Baltic region during the 9th and 10th century, remains have been found of a large Viking Age harbour with shipbuilding yards and handicraft industries. Between 800 and 1000, trade brought an abundance of silver to Gotland, and according to some scholars, the Gotlanders of this era hoarded more silver than the rest of the population of Scandinavia combined.[20]

St. Ansgar is usually credited for introducing Christianity in 829, but the new religion did not begin to fully

replace paganism until the 12th century. During the 11th century, Christianity became the most prevalent religion, and from 1050 Sweden is counted as a Christian nation. The period between 1100 and 1400 was characterized by internal power struggles and competition among the Nordic kingdoms. Swedish kings also began to expand the Swedish-controlled territory in Finland, creating conflicts with the Rus who no longer had any connection with Sweden.[21]

Feudal institutions in Sweden

Except for the province of Skane, on the southernmost tip of Sweden which was under Danish control during this time, feudalism never developed in Sweden as it did in the rest of Europe.[22] Therefore, the peasantry remained largely a class of free farmers throughout most of Swedish history. Slavery (also called thralldom) was not common in Sweden,[23] and what slavery there was tended to be driven out of existence by the spread of Christianity, the difficulty in obtaining slaves from the lands east of the Baltic Sea, and by the development of cities before the 16th century[24] Indeed, both slavery and serfdom were abolished altogether by a decree of King Magnus Erickson in 1335. Former slaves tended to be absorbed into the peasantry and some became labourers in the towns. Still, Sweden remained a poor and economically backward country in which barter was the means of exchange. For instance, the farmers of the province of Dalsland would transport their butter to the mining districts of Sweden and exchange it there for iron, which they would then take down to the coast and trade the iron for fish they needed for food while the iron would be shipped abroad.[25]

The Plague in Sweden

In the 14th century, Sweden was struck by the Black Death. The population of Sweden was decimated.[26] During this period the Swedish cities also began to acquire greater rights and were strongly influenced by German merchants of the Hanseatic League, active especially at Visby. In 1319, Sweden and Norway were united under King Magnus Eriksson, and in 1397 Queen Margaret I of Denmark effected the personal union of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark through the Kalmar Union. However, Margaret's successors, whose rule was also centred in Denmark, were unable to control the Swedish nobility.



Valdemar IV takes control over Swedish Gotland. The final fight outside the walls of Visby ended with a total massacre of 1,800 Gotlanders.

Minors and Regents

A large number of children inherited the Swedish crown over the course of the kingdom's existence, consequently — real power was held for long periods by regents (notably those of the Sture family) chosen by the Swedish parliament. King Christian II of Denmark, who asserted his claim to Sweden by force of arms, ordered a massacre in 1520 of Swedish nobles at Stockholm. This came to be known as the "Stockholm blood bath" and stirred the Swedish nobility to new resistance and, on 6 June (now Sweden's national holiday) in 1523, they made Gustav Vasa their king.[27] This is sometimes considered as the foundation of modern Sweden. Shortly afterwards he rejected Catholicism and led Sweden into the Protestant Reformation. Economically, Gustav Vasa broke the monopoly of the Hanseatic League over Swedish Baltic Sea trade.[28]

The Hanseatic League had been officially formed at Lübeck on the sea coast of Northern Germany in 1356. The Hanseatic League sought civil and commercial privileges from the princes and royalty of the countries and cities along the coasts of the Baltic Sea.[29] In exchange they offered a certain amount of protection. Having their own navy the Hansa were able to sweep the Baltic Sea free of pirates.[30] The privileges obtained by the Hansa included assurances that only Hansa citizens would be allowed to trade from the ports where they were located. They also sought agreement to be free of all customs and taxes. With these concessions, Lübeck merchants

flocked to Stockholm, Sweden and soon came to dominate the economic life of that city and made the port city of Stockholm into the leading commercial and industrial city of Sweden.[31] Under the Hanseatic trade 2/3rds of Stockholm's imports consisted of textiles and 1/3 of salt. Exports from Sweden consisted of iron and copper.[32]

However, the Swedes began to resent the monopoly trading position of the Hansa (mostly German citizens) and to resent the income they felt they lost to the Hansa. Consequently, when Gustav Vasa or Gustav I broke the monopoly power of the Hanseatic League he was regarded as a hero to the Swedish people. History now views Gustav I as the father of the modern Swedish nation. The foundations laid by Gustav would take time to develop. Furthermore, when Sweden did develop, freed itself from the Hanseatic League and entered its golden era, the fact the peasantry had traditionally been free meant that more of the economic benefits flowed back to them rather than going to a feudal landowning class.[33] This was not the case in other countries of Europe like Poland where the peasantry was still bound by serfdom and a strong feudalistic land owning system.

Swedish Empire

See also: History of Sweden (1611–1648), Swedish Empire, Swedish overseas colonies, Sweden and the Great Northern War, Absolute Monarchy in Sweden, Sweden-Finland, and Union between Sweden and Norway



The Swedish Empire between 1560 and 1815

During the 17th century Sweden emerged as a European great power. Before the emergence of the Swedish Empire, Sweden was a very poor and scarcely populated country on the fringe of European civilization, with no significant power or reputation. Sweden rose to prominence on a continental scale during the tenure of king Gustavus Adolphus, seizing territories from Russia and Poland–Lithuania in multiple conflicts, including the Thirty Years' War.

During the Thirty Years' War, Sweden conquered approximately half of the Holy Roman states. Gustav Adolphus planned to become the new Holy Roman Emperor, ruling over a united Scandinavia and the Holy Roman states, but he died at the Battle of Lützen in 1632. After the Battle of Nördlingen, Sweden's only significant military defeat of the war, pro-Swedish sentiment among the German states faded. These German provinces excluded themselves from Swedish power one by one, leaving Sweden with only a few northern German territories: Swedish Pomerania, Bremen-Verden and Wismar. The Swedish armies may have destroyed up to 2,000 castles, 18,000 villages and 1,500 towns in Germany, one-third of all German towns.[34]


Stockholm in mid-17th century

In the middle of the 17th century Sweden was the third largest country in Europe by land area, only surpassed by Russia and Spain. Sweden reached its largest territorial extent under the rule of Charles X after the treaty of Roskilde in 1658.[35][36] The foundation of Sweden's success during this period is credited to Gustav I's major changes on the Swedish economy in the 16th century, and his introduction of Protestantism.[37] In the 17th century, Sweden was engaged in many wars, for example with the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth with both sides competing for territories of today's Baltic states, with the disastrous Battle of Kircholm being one of the highlights.[38] One-third of the Finnish population died in the devastating famine that struck the country in 1696.[39] Famine also hit Sweden,[40] killing roughly 10% of Sweden's population.[41]

The Swedes conducted a series of invasions into the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, known as the Deluge.

After more than half a century of almost constant warfare, the Swedish economy had deteriorated. It became the lifetime task of Charles' son, Charles XI, to rebuild the economy and refit the army. His legacy to his son, the coming ruler of Sweden Charles XII, was one of the finest arsenals in the world, a large standing army and a great fleet. Sweden's largest threat at this time, Russia, had a larger army but was far behind in both equipment and training.

After the Battle of Narva in 1700, one of the first battles of the Great Northern War, the Russian army was so severely decimated that Sweden had an open chance to invade Russia. However, Charles did not pursue the Russian army, instead turning against Poland-Lithuania and defeating the Polish king Augustus II and his Saxon allies at the Battle of Kliszow in 1702. This gave Russia time to rebuild and modernize its army.



Death of Gustav II Adolf at the Battle of Lützen

After the success of invading Poland, Charles decided to make an invasion attempt of Russia which ended in a decisive Russian victory at the Battle of Poltava in 1709. After a long march exposed to Cossack raids, Russian Tsar Peter the Great's scorched-earth techniques and the cold Russian climate, the Swedes stood weakened with a shattered morale and enormously outnumbered against the Russian army at Poltava. The defeat meant the beginning of the end for the Swedish Empire.



The Battle of Poltava in 1709. In the years following Poltava, Russia occupied all the Swedish annexations on the Baltic coast and even Finland.

Charles XII attempted to invade Norway 1716; however, he was shot dead at Fredriksten fortress in 1718. The Swedes were not militarily defeated at Fredriksten, but the whole structure and organization of the Norwegian campaign fell apart with the king's death, and the army withdrew.

Forced to cede large areas of land in the Treaty of Nystad in 1721, Sweden also lost its place as an empire and as the dominant state on the Baltic Sea. With Sweden's lost influence, Russia emerged as an empire and became one of Europe's dominant nations. As the war finally ended in 1721, Sweden had lost an estimated 200,000 men, 150,000 of those from the area of present-day Sweden and 50,000 from the Finnish part of Sweden.[42]

In the 18th century, Sweden did not have enough resources to maintain its territories outside Scandinavia, and most of them were lost, culminating with the 1809 loss of eastern Sweden to Russia which became the highly autonomous Grand Principality of Finland in Imperial Russia.

In interest of re-establishing Swedish dominance in the Baltic Sea, Sweden allied itself against its traditional ally and benefactor, France, in the Napoleonic Wars. Sweden's role in the Battle of Leipzig gave it the authority to force Denmark-Norway, an ally of France, to cede Norway to the King of Sweden on 14 January 1814 in exchange for northern German provinces, at the Treaty of Kiel. The Norwegian attempts to keep their status as a sovereign state were rejected by the Swedish king, Charles XIII. He launched a military campaign against Norway on 27 July 1814, ending in the Convention of Moss, which forced Norway into a personal union with Sweden under the Swedish crown, which lasted until 1905. The 1814 campaign was the last war in which Sweden participated as a combatant. Swedish troops partake in peace-keeping missions and currently have forces deployed in Afghanistan and Kosovo.

Modern history

See also: Modernization of Sweden and Swedish emigration to the United States

There was a significant population increase during the 18th and 19th centuries, which the writer Esaias Tegnér in 1833 attributed to *"the peace, the (smallpox) vaccine, and the potatoes"*.[43] Between 1750 and 1850, the population in Sweden doubled. According to some scholars, mass emigration to America became the only way to prevent famine and rebellion; over 1% of the population emigrated annually during the 1880s.[44] Nevertheless, Sweden remained poor, retaining a nearly entirely agricultural economy even as Denmark and Western European countries began to industrialize.[44][45]



Swedish emigrants boarding ship in Gothenburg in 1905



Illustration of starvation in northern Sweden, Famine of 1866–1868

Many looked towards America for a better life during this time. It is believed that between 1850 and 1910 more than one million Swedes moved to the United States.[46] In the early 20th century, more Swedes lived in Chicago than in Gothenburg (Sweden's second largest city).[47] Most Swedish immigrants moved to the Midwestern United States, with a large population in Minnesota, with a few others moving to other parts of the United States and Canada.

Despite the slow rate of industrialization into the 19th century, many important changes were taking place in the agrarian economy because of innovations and the large population growth.[48] These innovations included government-sponsored programs of enclosure, aggressive exploitation of agricultural lands, and the introduction of new crops such as the potato.[48] Because the Swedish peasantry had never been enserfed as elsewhere in Europe,[49] the Swedish farming culture began to take on a critical role in the Swedish political process, which has continued through modern times with modern Agrarian party (now called the Centre Party).[50] Between 1870 and 1914, Sweden began developing the industrialized economy that exists today.[51]

Strong grassroots movements sprung up in Sweden during the latter half of the 19th century (trade unions, temperance groups, and independent religious groups), creating a strong foundation of democratic principles. In 1889 The Swedish Social Democratic Party was founded. These movements precipitated Sweden's migration into a modern parliamentary democracy, achieved by the time of World War I. As the Industrial Revolution progressed during the 20th century, people gradually began moving into cities to work in factories and became involved in socialist unions. A communist revolution was avoided in 1917, following the re-introduction of parliamentarism, and the country was democratized.

World Wars

See also: Sweden during World War II

Sweden remained officially neutral during World War I and World War II, although its neutrality during World War II has been disputed.[52][53] Sweden was under German influence for much of the war, as ties to the rest of the world were cut off through blockades.[52] The Swedish government felt that it was in no position to openly contest Germany,[54] and therefore made some concessions.[55] Sweden also supplied steel and machined parts to Germany throughout the war. However, Sweden supported Norwegian resistance, and in 1943 helped rescue Danish Jews from deportation to concentration camps. Sweden also supported Finland in the Winter War and the Continuation War



Swedish soldier during World War II

with volunteers and materiel.

Toward the end of the war, Sweden began to play a role in humanitarian efforts and many refugees, among them many Jews from Nazi-occupied Europe, were saved partly because of the Swedish involvement in rescue missions at the internment camps and partly because Sweden served as a haven for refugees, primarily from the Nordic countries and the Baltic states.[54] The Swedish diplomat Raoul Wallenberg and his colleagues may have saved up to 100,000 Hungarian Jews.[56] Nevertheless, internal and external critics have argued that Sweden could have done more to resist the Nazi war effort, even if risking occupation.[54]

Post-war era

Sweden was officially a neutral country and remained outside NATO or Warsaw pact membership during the cold war, but privately Sweden's leadership had strong ties with the United States and other western governments.

Following the war, Sweden took advantage of an intact industrial base, social stability and its natural resources to expand its industry to supply the rebuilding of Europe.[57] Sweden was part of the Marshall Plan and participated in the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). During most of the post-war era, the country was governed by the Swedish Social Democratic Party largely in cooperation with trade unions and industry. The government actively pursued an internationally competitive manufacturing sector of primarily large corporations.[58]



A typical red house in Tällberg, Sweden

Sweden, like countries around the globe, entered a period of economic decline and upheaval, following the oil embargoes of 1973–74 and 1978–79.[59] In the 1980s pillars of Swedish industry were massively restructured. Shipbuilding was discontinued, wood pulp was integrated into modernized paper production, the steel industry was concentrated and specialized, and mechanical engineering was robotized.[60]

Between 1970 and 1990 the overall tax burden rose by over 10%, and the growth was low compared to other countries in Western Europe. Eventually government spent over half of the country's gross domestic product. Sweden GDP per capita ranking declined during this time.[58]

Recent history

See also: History of Sweden (since 1989)

A bursting real estate bubble caused by inadequate controls on lending combined with an international recession and a policy switch from anti-unemployment policies to anti-inflationary policies resulted in a fiscal crisis in the early 1990s.[61] Sweden's GDP declined by around 5%. In 1992, there was a run on the currency, with the central bank briefly jacking up interest to 500%.[62][63]



Sweden joined the European Union in 1995 and signed the Lisbon Treaty in 2007.

The response of the government was to cut spending and institute a multitude of reforms to improve Sweden's competitiveness, among them reducing the welfare state and privatising public services and goods. Much of the political establishment promoted EU membership, and the

Swedish referendum passed with 52% in favour of joining the EU on 13 November 1994. Sweden joined the European Union on 1 January 1995.

Sweden remains non-aligned militarily, although it participates in some joint military exercises with NATO and some other countries, in addition to extensive cooperation with other European countries in the area of defence technology and defence industry. Among others, Swedish companies export weapons that are used by the American military in Iraq.[64] Sweden also has a long history of participating in international military operations, including most recently, Afghanistan, where Swedish troops are under NATO command, and in EU sponsored peacekeeping operations in UN protectorate Kosovo, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Cyprus. Sweden held the chair of the European Union from 1 July to 31 December 2009.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Sweden



View of the Stora Sjöfallet National Park

Situated in Northern Europe, Sweden lies west of the Baltic Sea and Gulf of Bothnia, providing a long coastline, and forms the eastern part of the Scandinavian Peninsula. To the west is the Scandinavian mountain chain (Skanderna), a range that separates Sweden from Norway. Finland is located to its northeast. It has maritime borders with Denmark, Germany, Poland, Russia, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, and it is also linked to Denmark (southwest) by the Öresund Bridge.

Sweden lies between latitudes 55° and 70° N, and mostly between longitudes 11° and 25° E (part of Stora Drammen island is just west of 11°).

At 449,964 km^2 (173,732 sq mi), Sweden is the 55th largest country in the world,[65] the 4th largest country entirely in Europe, and the largest in Northern Europe. The lowest elevation in Sweden is in the bay of Lake Hammarsjön, near Kristianstad at −2.41 m (−7.91 ft) below sea level. The highest point is Kebnekaise at 2,111 m (6,926 ft) above sea level.

Sweden has 25 provinces or *landskap* (landscapes), based on culture, geography and history. While these provinces serve no political or administrative purpose, they play an important role for people's self-identification. The provinces are usually grouped together in three large *lands*, parts, the northern Norrland, the central Svealand and southern Götaland. The sparsely populated Norrland encompasses almost 60% of the country.



Lake landscape at the outskirts of Ramsjö

About 15% of Sweden lies north of the Arctic Circle. Southern Sweden is predominantly agricultural, with increasing forest coverage northward. Around 65% of Sweden's total land area is covered with forests. The highest population density is in the Öresund Region in southern Sweden, along the western coast up to central Bohuslän, and in the valley of lake Mälaren and Stockholm. Gotland and Öland are Sweden's largest islands; Vänern and Vättern are its largest lakes. Vänern is the third largest in Europe, after Lake Ladoga and Lake Onega in Russia.

Climate



The Scandinavian Mountains

Most of Sweden has a temperate climate, despite its northern latitude, with four distinct seasons and mild temperatures throughout the year. The country can be divided into three types of climate; the southernmost part has an oceanic climate, the central part has a humid continental climate and the northernmost part has a subarctic climate. However, Sweden is much warmer and drier than other places at a similar latitude, and even somewhat farther south, mainly because of the Gulf Stream.[66][67] For example, central and southern Sweden has much warmer winters than many parts of Russia, Canada, and the northern United States.[68] Because of its high latitude, the length of daylight varies greatly. North of the Arctic Circle, the sun never sets for part of each summer, and it never rises for part of each winter. In the capital, Stockholm, daylight lasts for more than 18 hours in late June but only around 6 hours in late December. Sweden receives between 1,100 to 1,900 hours of sunshine annually.[69][70]

Temperatures vary greatly from north to south. Southern and central parts of the country have warm summers and cold winters, with average high temperatures of 20 to 25 °C (68 to 77 °F)[71] and lows of 12 to 15 °C (54 to 59 °F)[72] in the summer, and average temperatures of -4 to 2 °C (25 to 36 °F) in the winter,[73] while the northern part of the country has shorter, cooler summers and longer, colder and snowier winters, with temperatures that often drop below freezing from September through May.[74][75] The highest temperature ever recorded in Sweden was 38 °C (100 °F) in Målilla in 1947, while the coldest temperature ever recorded was −52.6 °C (−62.7 °F) in Vuoggatjålme in 1966.[76][77]

On average, most of Sweden receives between 500 and 800 mm (20 and 31 in) of precipitation each year, making it considerably drier than the global average. The southwestern part of the country receives more precipitation, between 1000 and 1200 mm (39 and 47 in), and some mountain areas in the north are estimated to receive up to 2000 mm (79 in). Despite northerly locations, southern and central Sweden may have almost no snow in some winters.[78][79]

Average high and low temperatures in various cities in Sweden (°C)[80]

City	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Kiruna	−10/−16	−8/−15	−4/−13	2/−7	8/0	14/6	17/8	14/6	9/2	1/−4	−5/−10	−8/−15
Östersund	−5/−10	−3/−9	0/−6	5/−2	12/3	16/8	18/10	17/10	12/6	6/2	0/−3	−3/−8
Stockholm	1/−2	1/−3	4/−2	11/3	16/8	20/12	23/15	22/14	17/10	10/6	5/2	1/−1
Gothenburg *(Göteborg)*	2/−1	4/−1	6/0	11/3	16/8	19/12	22/14	22/14	18/10	12/6	7/3	3/−1
Visby	1/−2	1/−3	3/−2	9/1	14/6	18/10	21/13	20/13	16/9	10/6	5/2	2/0
Malmö	3/−1	3/−1	6/0	12/3	17/8	19/11	22/13	22/14	18/10	12/6	8/4	4/1

Politics

Main article: Politics of Sweden

Sweden is a constitutional monarchy, in which King Carl XVI Gustaf is head of state, but royal power has long been limited to official and ceremonial functions.[81] The Economist Intelligence Unit, while acknowledging that democracy is difficult to measure, listed Sweden in fourth place in 2010 in its index of democracy assessing 167 countries.

The nation's legislative body is the riksdag (Swedish Parliament), with 349 members, which chooses the Prime Minister. Parliamentary elections are held every four years, on the third Sunday of September.

Administrative divisions


Sweden municipal borders

Main articles: Counties of Sweden and Municipalities of Sweden

Sweden is a unitary state, currently divided into twenty-one counties (*län*): Stockholm, Uppsala, Södermanland, Östergötland, Jönköping, Kronoberg, Kalmar, Gotland, Blekinge, Skåne, Halland, Västra Götaland, Värmland, Örebro, Västmanland, Dalarna, Gävleborg, Västernorrland, Jämtland, Västerbotten and Norrbotten.

Each county has a County Administrative Board or *länsstyrelse*, which is a Government appointed board. It is led by a Governor or *Landshövding* appointed for a term of six years and the list of succession, in most cases, stretches back to 1634 when the counties were created by the Swedish Lord High Chancellor Axel Oxenstierna. The main responsibility of the County Administrative Board is to coordinate the development of the county in line with goals set in national politics. In each county there is also a County Council or *landsting* which is a policy-making assembly elected by the residents of the county.

Each county further divides into a number of municipalities or *kommuner*, with a total of 290 municipalities in 2004. Municipal government in Sweden is similar to city commission government and cabinet-style council government. A legislative municipal assembly *(kommunfullmäktige)* of between 31 and 101 members (always an uneven number) is elected from party-list proportional representation at municipal elections, held every four years in conjunction with the national parliamentary elections.

The municipalities are divided into a total of 2,512 parishes, or *församlingar*. These have traditionally been a subdivision of the Church of Sweden but still have importance as districts for census and elections. There are older historical divisions, primarily the twenty-five provinces and three lands, which still retain cultural significance.

Further information: Subdivisions of Sweden and National Areas of Sweden

Political history

The actual age of the kingdom of Sweden is unknown.[82] It depends mostly on whether Sweden should be considered a nation when the *Svear* (Sweonas) ruled Svealand or if the emergence of the nation started with the *Svear* and the *Götar* (Geats) of Götaland being united under one ruler. In the first case, Sweden was first mentioned as having one single ruler in the year 98 by Tacitus, but it is almost impossible to know for how long it had been this way. However, historians usually start the line of Swedish monarchs from when Svealand and



Kingdoms of Svear (Sweonas) and Götar (Geats) in the 12th century, with modern borders in grey

Götaland were ruled under the same king, namely Erik the Victorious (Geat) and his son Olof Skötkonung in the 10th century. These events are often described as the consolidation of Sweden, although substantial areas were conquered and incorporated later.

Earlier kings, for which no reliable historical sources exist, can be read about in mythical kings of Sweden and semi-legendary kings of Sweden. Many of these kings are only mentioned in various saga and blend with Norse mythology.

The title *Sveriges och Götes Konung* was last used for Gustaf I of Sweden, after which the title became "King of Sweden, of the Goths and of the Wends" (*Sveriges, Götes och Vendes Konung*) in official documentation. Up until the beginning of the 1920s, all laws in Sweden were introduced with the words, "We, the king of Sweden, of the Goths and Wends". This title was used up until 1973.[83] The present King of Sweden, Carl XVI Gustaf, was the first monarch officially proclaimed "King of Sweden" (*Sveriges Konung*) with no additional peoples mentioned in his title.

The term *riksdag* was used for the first time in the 1540s, although the first meeting where representatives of different social groups were called to discuss and determine affairs affecting the country as a whole took place as early as 1435, in the town of Arboga.[84] During the assemblies of 1527 and 1544, under King Gustav Vasa, representatives of all four estates of the realm (clergy, nobility, townsmen and peasants) were called on to participate for the first time.[84] The monarchy became hereditary in 1544.

Executive power was historically shared between the King and a noble Privy Council until 1680, followed by the King's autocratic rule initiated by the common estates of the Parliament. As a reaction to the failed Great Northern War, a parliamentary system was introduced in 1719, followed by three different flavours of constitutional monarchy in 1772, 1789 and 1809, the latter granting several civil liberties. The monarch remains as the formal, but merely symbolic, head of state with ceremonial duties.

The Riksdag of the Estates consisted of two chambers. In 1866 Sweden became a constitutional monarchy with a bicameral parliament, with the First Chamber indirectly elected by local governments, and the Second Chamber directly elected in national elections every four years. In 1971 the parliament became unicameral. Legislative power was (symbolically) shared between king and parliament until 1975. Swedish taxation is controlled by the Parliament of Sweden (riksdagen).

Sweden has a history of strong political involvement by ordinary people through its "popular movements" (*Folkrörelser*), the most notable being trade unions, the independent Christian movement, the temperance movement, the women's movement and more recently the sports and intellectual property pirate movements.

Sweden is currently leading the EU in statistics measuring equality in the political system and equality in the education system.[85] The *Global Gender Gap Report 2006* ranked Sweden as the number one country in terms of gender equality.[86]

Political system

Constitutionally, the 349-member riksdag (Parliament) holds supreme authority in modern Sweden. The riksdag is responsible for choosing the prime minister, who then appoints the government department heads (cabinet

ministers). Legislative power is only exercised by the riksdag. Executive power is exercised by the prime minister and the cabinet, while the judiciary is independent. Sweden lacks compulsory judicial review, although the non-compulsory review carried out by *lagrådet* (Law Council) is mostly respected in technical matters but less so in controversial political matters. Acts of the parliament and government decrees can be made inapplicable at every level if they are manifestly against constitutional laws. However, because of the restrictions in this form of judicial review and a weak judiciary, this has had little practical consequence.



The Parliament House in Stockholm.

Legislation may be initiated by the cabinet or by members of Parliament. Members are elected on the basis of proportional representation to a four-year term. The Constitution of Sweden can be altered by the riksdag, which requires a simple but absolute majority with two separate votes, separated by general elections in between. Sweden has three other constitutional laws: the Act of Royal Succession, the Freedom of Press Act and the Fundamental Law on Freedom of Expression.



Carl XVI Gustaf, the King of Sweden and ceremonial head of state

The Swedish Social Democratic Party has played a leading political role since 1917, after Reformists had confirmed their strength and the revolutionaries left the party. After 1932, cabinets have been dominated by the Social Democrats. Only five general elections (1976, 1979, 1991, 2006 and 2010) have given the centre-right bloc enough seats in Parliament to form a government. However, due to poor economic performance since the beginning of the 1970s, and especially since the fiscal crisis of the early 1990s, Sweden's political system has become less one-sided, and more like other European countries.

In the 2006 general election the Moderate Party, allied with the Centre Party, Liberal People's Party, and the Christian Democrats formed the centre-right Alliance for Sweden and won a majority of the votes. Together they formed a majority government under the leadership of the Moderate party's leader Fredrik Reinfeldt. In the September 2010 election the Alliance contended against a unified left block consisting of the Social Democrats, the Greens and the Left Party. It also saw the first election of the Sweden Democrats into the riksdag.[87]

Following is the current party lineup in the Swedish parliament, as of October 2011, organized by voting blocks:[88]

English name	Swedish name	Abbr.	Seats
Moderate Party	Moderata samlingspartiet	(M)	107
Liberal People's Party	Folkpartiet liberalerna	(FP)	24
Centre Party	Centerpartiet	(C)	23
Christian Democrats	Kristdemokraterna	(KD)	19
Total centre-right block			**173**
Social Democrats	Socialdemokraterna	(S)	112
The Greens	Miljöpartiet	(MP)	25
Left Party	Vänsterpartiet	(V)	19
Total left-of-centre[89] block			**156**

Sweden Democrats	Sverigedemokraterna	(SD)	19
Independent member	utan partibeteckning		1
Total parliament			**349**

The Alliance won a plurality of 173 seats, but remained two seats short of a 175-seat majority. Nevertheless, neither the Alliance, nor the left block chose to form a coalition with the Sweden Democrats, and the Alliance is currently governing as a minority government.[90]

Election turnout in Sweden has always been high by international comparison, although it has declined in recent decades, and is currently around 80% (80.11 in 2002, and 81.99% in 2006). Swedish politicians enjoyed a high degree of confidence from the citizens in the 1960s, However, that confidence level has since declined steadily, and is now at a markedly lower level than in its Scandinavian neighbours.[91]

Some Swedish political figures have become known worldwide, among these are: Raoul Wallenberg, Folke Bernadotte, former Secretary General of the United Nations Dag Hammarskjöld, former Prime Minister Olof Palme, former Prime Minister and Foreign minister Carl Bildt, former President of the General Assembly of the United Nations Jan Eliasson, and former International Atomic Energy Agency Iraq inspector Hans Blix.

Law, law enforcement, and judicial system

Main article: Judicial system of Sweden

The Supreme Court of Sweden is the third and final instance in all civil and criminal cases in Sweden. Before a case can be decided by the Supreme Court, leave to appeal must be obtained, and with few exceptions, leave to appeal can be granted only when the case is of interest as a precedent. The Supreme Court consists of 16 Councillors of Justice or *justitieråd* which are appointed by the government, but the court as an institution is independent of the Parliament of Sweden, and the government is not able to interfere with the decisions of the court.

Law enforcement in Sweden is carried out by several government entities. The Swedish Police Service is a Government agency concerned with police matters. The National Task Force is a national SWAT unit within the National Criminal Investigation Department. Swedish Security Service's responsibilities are counter-espionage, anti-terrorist activities, protection of the constitution and protection of sensitive objects and people.

According to a victimization survey of 1,201 residents in 2005, Sweden has above average crime rates compared to other EU countries. Sweden has high or above average levels of assaults, sexual assaults, hate crimes, and consumer fraud. Sweden has low levels of burglary, car theft and drug problems. Bribe seeking is rare.[92]

Foreign relations

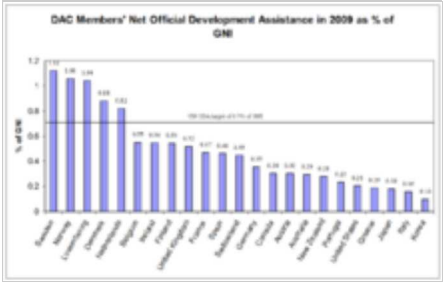
Main article: Foreign relations of Sweden

Throughout the 20th century, Swedish foreign policy was based on the principle of non-alignment in peacetime and neutrality in wartime. Sweden's government pursued an independent course of nonalignment in times of peace so that neutrality would be possible in the event of war.[57]

Sweden's doctrine of neutrality is often traced back to the 19th century as the country has not been in a state of war since the end of the Swedish campaign against Norway in 1814. During World War II Sweden joined neither the allied nor axis powers. This has sometimes been disputed since in effect Sweden allowed in select cases the

Nazi regime to use its railroad system to transport troops and goods,[52][54] especially iron ore from mines in northern Sweden, which was vital to the German war machine.[54][93] However, Sweden also indirectly contributed to the defence of Finland in the Winter War, and permitted the training of Norwegian and Danish troops in Sweden after 1943.

During the early Cold War era, Sweden combined its policy of non-alignment and a low profile in international affairs with a security policy based on strong national defence.[94] The function of the Swedish military was to deter attack.[95] At the same time, the country maintained relatively close informal connections with the Western bloc, especially in the realm of intelligence exchange. In 1952, a Swedish DC-3 was shot down over the Baltic Sea by a Soviet MiG-15 jet fighter. Later investigations revealed that the plane was actually gathering information for NATO.[96] Another plane, a Catalina search and rescue plane, was sent out a few days later and shot down by the Soviets as well. Olof Palme, the former prime minister of Sweden, visited Cuba during the 1970s and showed his support for Cuba in his speech.



Development aid measured in GNI in 2009. Source: OECD. As a percentage Sweden is the largest donor.

Beginning in the late 1960s, Sweden for a period attempted to play a more significant and independent role in international relations. This involved significant activity in international peace efforts, especially through the United Nations, and in support to the Third World. Since the assassination of Olof Palme in 1986 and the end of the Cold War, this has been significantly toned down, although Sweden remains comparatively active in peace keeping missions and maintains a generous foreign aid budget.

In 1981 a Soviet Whiskey class submarine ran aground close to the Swedish naval base at Karlskrona in the southern part of the country. It has never been clearly established whether the submarine ended up on the shoals through a navigational mistake or if it was a matter of espionage against Swedish military potential. The incident triggered a diplomatic crisis between Sweden and the Soviet Union.

Since 1995 Sweden has been a member of the European Union, and as a consequence of a new world security situation the country's foreign policy doctrine has been partly modified, with Sweden playing a more active role in European security co-operation.

Military

Main article: Swedish Armed Forces

Försvarsmakten (Swedish Armed Forces) is a government agency reporting to the Swedish Ministry of Defence and responsible for the peacetime operation of the armed forces of Sweden. The primary task of the agency is to train and deploy peace support forces abroad, while maintaining the long-term ability to refocus on the defence of Sweden in the event of war. The armed forces are divided into Army, Air Force and Navy. The head of the armed forces is the Supreme Commander (*Överbefälhavaren*, ÖB), the most senior officer in the country. Up to 1974 the head of state (=the King) was *pro forma* Commander-in-Chief, but in reality it was clearly understood all through the 20th century that the Monarch would have no *active* role as a military leader.


The JAS 39 Gripen is an advanced Swedish multi-role fighter aircraft of the Swedish Air Force.

When King Gustav V asserted his right to decide and bypass the

government in military matters just before the First World War (*"borggårdskrisen"*, the Castle Court Crisis) it was seen as a deliberate provocation against established terms of how the country would be ruled. The office of an appointed Supreme Commander was set up in 1939; before that date, from the late 19th century onwards, the leading men of the army and navy would report directly to the cabinet (and the king), and no fully unified command existed in the professional military sphere itself.



The Infantry fighting vehicle Strf 90 produced and used by Sweden.

Until the end of the Cold War, nearly all males reaching the age of military service were conscripted. In recent years, the number of conscripted males has shrunk dramatically, while the number of female volunteers has increased slightly. Recruitment has generally shifted towards finding the most motivated recruits, rather than solely those otherwise most fit for service. All soldiers serving abroad must by law be volunteers. In 1975 the total number of conscripts was 45,000. By 2003 it was down to 15,000.

On 1 July 2010 Sweden stopped routine conscription, switching to an all volunteer force unless otherwise required for defence readiness.[97][98][99] The need to recruit only the soldiers later prepared to volunteer for international service will be emphasized. The total forces gathered would consist of about 60,000 men. This could be compared with the 80s before the fall of the Soviet Union, when Sweden could gather up to 1,000,000 men.

Swedish units have taken part in peacekeeping operations in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Cyprus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Liberia, Lebanon, Afghanistan and Chad.

Currently, one of the most important tasks for the Swedish Armed Forces has been to form a Swedish-led EU Battle Group to which Norway, Finland, Ireland and Estonia will also contribute.[100] The Nordic Battle Group (NBG) had a 10-day deployment readiness during the first half of 2008 and, although Swedish-led, had its Operational Headquarters (OHQ) in Northwood, outside London.

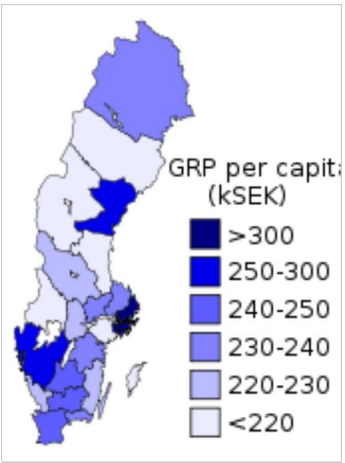
Economy

Main article: Economy of Sweden



Nordstan is one of the largest shopping malls in northern Europe

Sweden is an export-oriented mixed economy featuring a modern distribution system, excellent internal and external communications, and a skilled labour force. Timber, hydropower and iron ore constitute the resource base of an economy heavily oriented toward foreign trade. Sweden's engineering sector accounts for 50% of output and exports. Telecommunications, the automotive industry and the pharmaceutical industries are also of great importance. Agriculture accounts for 2% of GDP and employment. Income is relatively flatly distributed, Sweden has the lowest Gini coefficient (0.23) of any country.

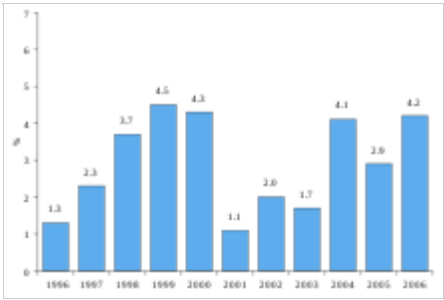


Gross Regional Product (GRP) per capita in thousands of kronor (2004).

In terms of structure, the Swedish economy is characterised by a large,

knowledge-intensive and export-oriented manufacturing sector, an increasing, but comparatively small, business service sector, and by international standards, a large public service sector. Large organisations both in manufacturing and services dominate the Swedish economy.[101]

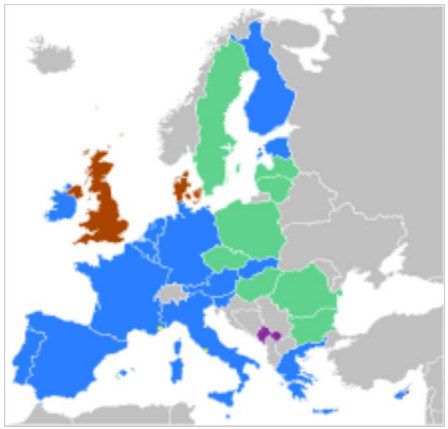
The 20 largest (by turnover in 2007) companies registered in Sweden are Volvo, Ericsson, Vattenfall, Skanska, Sony Ericsson Mobile Communications AB, Svenska Cellulosa Aktiebolaget, Electrolux, Volvo Personvagnar, TeliaSonera, Sandvik, Scania, ICA, Hennes & Mauritz, IKEA, Nordea, Preem, Atlas Copco, Securitas, Nordstjernan and SKF.[102] Sweden's industry is overwhelmingly in private control; unlike some other industrialised Western countries, such as Austria and Italy, publicly owned enterprises have always been of minor importance.



Real GDP growth in Sweden, 1996–2006.

Some 4.5 million residents are working, out of which around a third has tertiary education. GDP per hour worked is the world's 9th highest at 31 USD in 2006, compared to 22 USD in Spain and 35 USD in United States.[103] GDP per hour worked is growing 2½ per cent per year for the economy as a whole and the trade-terms-balanced productivity growth is 2%.[103] According to OECD, deregulation, globalisation, and technology sector growth have been key productivity drivers.[103] Sweden is a world leader in privatised pensions and pension funding problems are relatively small compared to many other Western European countries.[104]

The typical worker receives 40% of his or her income after the tax wedge. The slowly declining overall taxation, 51.1% of GDP in 2007, is still nearly double of that in the United States or Ireland. The share of employment financed via tax income amounts to a third of Swedish workforce, a substantially higher proportion than in most other countries. Overall, GDP growth has been fast since reforms in the early 1990s, especially in manufacturing.[105]


Sweden is part of the Schengen Area and the EU single market.

The World Economic Forum 2009–2010 competitiveness index ranks Sweden the 4th most competitive economy in the world.[106] In the World Economic Forum 2010–2011 Global Competitiveness Report, Sweden climbed two positions, and is now ranked 2nd in the world.[107] Sweden is ranked 6th in the IMD Competitiveness Yearbook 2009, scoring high in private sector efficiency.[108] According to the book, *The Flight of the Creative Class*, by the U.S. economist, Professor Richard Florida of the University of Toronto, Sweden is ranked as having the best creativity in Europe for business and is predicted to become a talent magnet for the world's most purposeful workers. The book compiled an index to measure the kind of creativity it claims is most useful to business—talent, technology and tolerance.[109]

Sweden maintains its own currency, the Swedish krona (SEK), a result of the Swedes having rejected the euro in a referendum. The Swedish Riksbank—founded in 1668 and thus making it the oldest central bank in the world—is currently focusing on price stability with an inflation target of 2%. According to the *Economic Survey of Sweden 2007* by the OECD, the average inflation in Sweden has been one of the lowest among European countries since the mid-1990s, largely because of deregulation and quick utilisation of globalisation.[103]

The largest trade flows are with Germany, the United States, Norway, the United Kingdom, Denmark and Finland.

Energy

See also: Nordic energy market, Nuclear power phase-out in Sweden, and Oil phase-out in Sweden

Sweden's energy market is largely privatized. The Nordic energy market is one of the first liberalized energy markets in Europe and it is traded in NASDAQ OMX Commodities Europe and Nord Pool Spot. In 2006, out of a total electricity production of 139 TWh, electricity from hydropower accounted for 61 TWh (44%), and nuclear power delivered 65 TWh (47%). At the same time, the use of biofuels, peat etc. produced 13 TWh (9%) of electricity, while wind power produced 1 TWh (1%). Sweden was a net importer of electricity by a margin of 6 TWh.[110] Biomass is mainly used to produce heat for district heating and central heating and industry processes.

The 1973 oil crisis strengthened Sweden's commitment to decrease dependence on imported fossil fuels. Since then, electricity has been generated mostly from hydropower and nuclear power. The use of nuclear power has been limited, however. Among other things, the accident of Three Mile Island Nuclear Generating Station (United States) prompted the Swedish parliament to ban new nuclear plants. In March 2005, an opinion poll showed that 83% supported maintaining or increasing nuclear power.[111] Politicians have made announcements about oil phase-out in Sweden, decrease of nuclear power, and multi-billion dollar investments in renewable energy and energy efficiency.[112][113] The country has for many years pursued a strategy of indirect taxation as an instrument of environmental policy, including energy taxes in general and carbon dioxide taxes in particular.[112]

Transport

Main article: Transport in Sweden



Stockholm metro.



The Stockholm Central Station



The Öresund Bridge between Malmö and Copenhagen in Denmark.

Sweden has 162,707 km (101,101 mi) of paved road and 1,428 km (887 mi) of expressways. Motorways run through Sweden, Denmark and over the Öresund Bridge to Stockholm, Gothenburg, Uppsala and Uddevalla. The system of motorways is still under construction and a new motorway from Uppsala to Gävle was finished on 17 October 2007. Sweden had left-hand traffic (Vänstertrafik in Swedish) from approximately 1736 and continued to do so well into the 20th century. Voters rejected right-hand traffic in 1955, but after the riksdag passed legislation in 1963 changeover took place in 1967, known in Swedish as Dagen H.

The Stockholm metro is the only subway system in Sweden and serves the city of Stockholm, 100 metro stations are in use.

The rail transport market is privatized, but while there are many privately owned enterprises, many operators are still owned by state. The counties have financing, ticket and marketing responsibility for local trains. For other trains the operators handle tickets and marketing themselves. Operators include SJ, Veolia Transport, DSB, Green Cargo, Tågkompaniet and Inlandsbanan. Most of the railways are owned and operated by Trafikverket.

The largest airports include Stockholm-Arlanda Airport (16.1 million passengers in 2009) 40 km (25 mi) north of Stockholm, Gothenburg-Landvetter Airport (4.3 million passengers in 2008), and Stockholm-Skavsta Airport (2.0 million passengers). Sweden hosts the two largest port companies in Scandinavia, Port of Göteborg AB (Gothenburg) and the transnational company Copenhagen Malmö Port AB.

Public policy

See also: Nordic model and Swedish welfare

Sweden has one of the most highly developed welfare states in the world. The country has a higher level of social spending to GDP than any other nation. Additionally it provides equal as well as comprehensive access to education and health care.

Historically, Sweden provided solid support for free trade (except agriculture) and mostly relatively strong and stable property rights (both private and public), though some economists have pointed out that Sweden promoted industries with tariffs and used publicly subsidised R&D during the country's early critical years of industrialisation.[114] After World War II a succession of governments expanded the welfare state by raising the tax level. During this period Sweden's economic growth was also one of the highest in the industrial world. A series of successive social reforms transformed the country into one of the most equal and developed on earth. The consistent growth of the welfare state led to Swedes achieving unprecedented levels of social mobility and quality of life—to this day Sweden consistently ranks at the top of league tables for health, literacy and Human Development—far ahead of some wealthier countries (for example the United States).[115]

However, from the 1970s and onwards Sweden's GDP growth fell behind other industrialised countries and the country's per capita ranking fell from the 4th to 14th place in a few decades.[116] From the mid 90s until today Sweden's economic growth has once again accelerated and has been higher than in most other industrialised countries (including the US) during the last 15 years.[117]

Sweden began slowing the expansion of the welfare state in the 1980s, or even trimming it back, and according to the OECD and McKinsey, Sweden has recently been relatively quick to adopt neo-liberal policies, such as deregulation, compared to countries such as France.[103][118] The current Swedish government is continuing the trend of moderate rollbacks of previous social reforms.[103][119] Growth has been higher than in many other EU-15 countries.

Sweden adopted neo-liberal agricultural policies in 1990. Since the 1930s, the agricultural sector had been subject to price controls. In June 1990, the Parliament voted for a new agricultural policy marking a significant shift away from price controls. As a result, food prices fell somewhat. However, the liberalizations soon became moot because EU agricultural controls supervened.[120]

Since the late 1960s, Sweden has had the highest tax quota (as percentage of GDP) in the industrialised world, although today the gap has narrowed and Denmark has surpassed Sweden as the most heavily taxed country among developed countries. Sweden has a two step progressive tax scale with a municipal income tax of about 30% and an additional high-income state tax of 20–25% when a salary exceeds roughly 320,000 SEK per year. Payroll taxes amount to 32%. In addition, a national VAT of 25% is added to many things bought by private citizens, with the exception of food (12% VAT), transportation, and books (6% VAT). Certain items are subject to additional taxes, e.g. electricity, petrol/diesel and alcoholic beverages.

As of 2007, total tax revenue was 47.8% of GDP, the second highest tax burden among developed countries, down from 49.1% 2006.[121] Sweden's inverted tax wedge – the amount going to the service worker's wallet – is

approximately 15% compared to 10% in Belgium, 30% in Ireland, and 50% in United States.[116] Public sector spending amounts to 53% of the GDP. State and municipal employees total around a third of the workforce, much more than in most Western countries. Only Denmark has a larger public sector (38% of Danish workforce). Spending on transfers is also high.

Eighty percent of the workforce is organised in trade-unions which also have the right to elect two representatives to the board in all Swedish companies with more than 25 employees. Sweden has a relatively high amount of sick leave per worker in OECD: the average worker loses 24 days due to sickness.[105] In December 2008, the number employed in age group 16–64 was 75.0%. The employment tendency was very strong in 2007. The positive trend continued during the first half of 2008, but the rate of increase slackened. According to Statistics Sweden, the unemployment rate in December 2008 was at 6.4%.[122]

Science

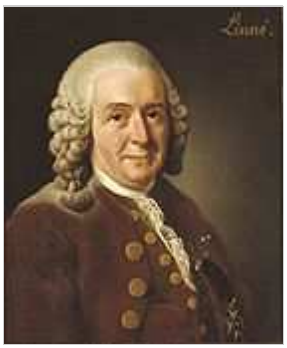
Altogether, the public and the private sector in Sweden allocate nearly four per cent of GDP to research & development (R&D) per year, which makes Sweden one of the countries that invest most in R&D in terms of percentage of GDP. The standard of Swedish research is high and Sweden is a world leader in a number of fields. [*citation needed*] Sweden tops Europe in comparative statistics both in terms of research investments as a percentage of GDP as well as in the number of published scientific works per capita.[123]

Though a relatively small country, Sweden has long been at the forefront of research and development. [*citation needed*] For several decades the Swedish government has prioritized scientific and R&D activities. This strong engagement has helped make Sweden a leading country in terms of innovation. In international comparison, high-technology manufacturing is relatively large in all high-technology segments, and particularly in telecommunications and pharmaceuticals.[*citation needed*]

Sweden ranked either as the first or second country publishing the highest number of scientific publications in the fields of medical science, natural science and engineering in 2001.[*citation needed*] Sweden was world-leading in medical science and second only to Switzerland in natural science and engineering in terms of the number of publications per capita.

Technology

Main article: Swedish inventions



Carl Linnaeus laid the foundations for the modern scheme of binomial nomenclature.

In the 18th century Sweden's scientific revolution took off. Previously, technical progress had mainly come from mainland Europe. In 1739, the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences was founded, with people such as Carolus Linnaeus and Anders Celsius as early members. Many of the companies founded by early pioneers are still remain major international brands. Gustaf Dalén founded AGA, and received the Nobel Prize for his sun valve. Alfred Nobel invented dynamite and instituted the Nobel Prizes. Lars Magnus Ericsson started the company bearing his name, Ericsson, still one of the largest telecom companies in the world. Jonas Wenström was an early pioneer in alternating current and is along with Serbian inventor Nikola Tesla credited



Alfred Nobel, inventor of dynamite and institutor of

He is known as the father of modern taxonomy, and is also considered one of the fathers of modern ecology.

as one of the inventors of the three-phase electrical system.[124]

the Nobel Prize.

The traditional engineering industry is still a major source of Swedish inventions, but pharmaceuticals, electronics and other high-tech industries are gaining ground. Tetra Pak was an invention for storing liquid foods, invented by Erik Wallenberg. Losec, an ulcer medicine, was the world's best-selling drug in the 1990s and was developed by AstraZeneca. More recently Håkan Lans invented the Automatic Identification System, a worldwide standard for shipping and civil aviation navigation. A large portion of the Swedish economy is to this day based on the export of technical inventions, and many large multinational corporations from Sweden have their origins in the ingenuity of Swedish inventors.[124]

Swedish inventors hold a total of 33,523 patents in the United States as of 2007, according to the United States Patent and Trademark Office. As a nation, only ten other countries hold more patents than Sweden.[125]

Demographics

Main articles: Demographics of Sweden and Swedish people

As of 2009, the total population of Sweden was estimated to be 9,325,429.[126] The population exceeded 9 million for the first time on approximately 12 August 2004 according to Statistics Sweden. The population density is 20.6 people per km² (53.3 per square mile) and it is substantially higher in the south than in the north. About 85% of the population live in urban areas.[12] The capital city Stockholm has a population of about 800,000 (with 1.3 million in the urban area and 2 million in the metropolitan area). The second and third largest cities are Gothenburg and Malmö.

Between 1820 and 1930, approximately 1.3 million Swedes, a third of the country's population, emigrated to North America, and most of them to the United States. There are more than 4.4 million Swedish Americans according to a 2006 U.S. Census Bureau estimate.[127] In Canada, the community of Swedish ancestry is 330,000 strong.[128]

Largest cities[129]



Stockholm



Gothenburg

#	City	Urban area population	Metro population
1	**Stockholm**	1,372,565	2,019,182
2	**Gothenburg**	549,839	926,654
3	**Malmö**	280,415	635,224
4	**Uppsala**	140,454	
5	**Västerås**	110,877	
6	**Örebro**	107,038	
7	**Linköping**	104,232	
8	**Helsingborg**	97,122	
9	**Jönköping**	89,396	
10	**Norrköping**	87,247	



Malmö



Uppsala

Language

Main articles: Swedish language and Languages of Sweden

See also: Swedish dialects



Distribution of speakers of the Swedish language

The official language of Sweden is Swedish,[8][9] a North Germanic language, related and very similar to Danish and Norwegian, but differing in pronunciation and orthography. Norwegians have little difficulty understanding Swedish, and Danes can also understand it, with slightly more difficulty than the Norwegians. The dialects spoken in Scania, the southernmost part of the country, are influenced by Danish because the region traditionally was a part of Denmark and is nowadays situated closely to it. Sweden Finns are Sweden's largest linguistic minority, comprising about 5% of Sweden's population,[2] and Finnish is recognized as a minority language.[9]

Along with Finnish, four other minority languages are also recognized: Meänkieli, Sami, Romani and Yiddish. Swedish became Sweden's official language on 1 July 2009, when a new language law was implemented.[9] The issue of whether Swedish should be declared the official language has been raised in the past, and the parliament voted on the matter in 2005, but the proposal narrowly failed.[130]

In varying degrees, depending largely on frequency of interaction with English, a majority of Swedes, especially those born after World War II, understand and speak English due to trade links, the popularity of overseas travel, a strong Anglo-American influence and the tradition of subtitling rather than dubbing foreign television shows and films, and the relative similarity of the two languages which makes learning English easier. In a 2005 survey by Eurobarometer, 89% of Swedes reported the ability to speak English.[131]

English became a compulsory subject for secondary school students studying natural sciences as early as 1849, and has been a compulsory subject for all Swedish students since the late 1940s.[132] Depending on the local school authorities, English is currently a compulsory subject between first grade and ninth grade, with all students continuing in secondary school studying English for at least another year. Most students also study one and sometimes two additional languages. These include (but are not limited to) German, French and Spanish. Some Danish and Norwegian is at times also taught as part of Swedish courses for native speakers.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Sweden

Before the 11th century, Swedes adhered to Norse paganism, worshiping Æsir gods, with its centre at the Temple in Uppsala. With Christianization in the 11th century, the laws of the country were changed, forbidding worship of other deities into the late 19th century.

After the Protestant Reformation in the 1530s, a change led by Martin Luther's Swedish associate Olaus Petri, the authority of the Roman Catholic Church was abolished. The church and state were separated, allowing Lutheranism to prevail. This process was completed by the Uppsala Synod of 1593. Lutheranism became Sweden's official religion. During the era following the Reformation, usually known as the period of Lutheran Orthodoxy, small groups of non-Lutherans, especially Calvinist Dutchmen, the Moravian Church and Walloons

or French Huguenots from Belgium, played a significant role in trade and industry, and were quietly tolerated as long as they kept a low religious profile. The Sami originally had their own shamanistic religion, but they converted to Lutheranism by the work of Swedish missionaries in the 17th and 18th centuries.

With religious liberalizations in the late 18th century believers of other faiths, including Judaism and Roman Catholicism, were allowed to openly live and work in the country. However, until 1860 it remained illegal for Lutheran Swedes to convert to another religion. The 19th century saw the arrival of various evangelical free churches, and, towards the end of the century, secularism, leading many to distance themselves from Church rituals. Leaving the Church of Sweden became legal with the so-called dissenter law of 1860, but only under the provision of entering another Christian denomination. The right to stand outside any religious denomination was formally established in the Law on Freedom of Religion in 1951. In 2000 the Church of Sweden was separated from the state and Sweden ceased to have any official church.



Uppsala Cathedral

Church of Sweden[133][134]

Year	Population	Church members	Percentage
1972	8,146,000	7,754,784	95.2%
1980	8,278,000	7,690,636	92.9%
1990	8,573,000	7,630,350	89.0%
2000	8,880,000	7,360,825	82.9%
2005	9,048,000	6,967,498	77.0%
2006	9,119,000	6,893,901	75.6%
2007	9,179,000	6,820,161	74.3%
2008	9,262,000	6,751,952	72.9%
2009	–	6,664,064	71.3% [135]

At the end of 2009, 71.3% of Swedes belonged to the Church of Sweden (Lutheran); this number has been decreasing by about one percentage point a year for the last two decades.[135][136] However, only approximately 2% of the church's members regularly attend Sunday services.[137] The reason for the large number of inactive members is partly that until 1996, children automatically became members at birth if at least one of the parents was a member. Since 1996, only children that are christened become members. Some 275,000 Swedes are today members of various free churches (where congregation attendance is much higher), and, in addition, immigration has meant that there are now some 92,000 Roman Catholics and 100,000 Eastern Orthodox Christians living in Sweden.[138]

Because of immigration, Sweden also has a significant Muslim population. They number about 500,000, but only approximately 5% (25,000) of these actively practice Islam (in the sense of attending Friday prayer and praying five times a day).[139]

Despite a high formal membership rate in the Church of Sweden, some studies have found Sweden to be one of the least religious countries in the world, with one of the highest levels of atheism. According to different studies, between 46% and 85% of Swedes do not believe in God.[140] In the Eurostat survey, 23% of Swedish citizens responded that "they believe there is a God", whereas 53% answered that "they believe there is some sort of spirit or life force" and 23% that "they do not believe there is any sort of spirit, God, or life force". Nevertheless, despite a lack of belief in God, these individuals resented the term atheist, and still called themselves Christians, being content with remaining in the Church of Sweden.[141] Other research has shown that religion in Sweden continues to play a role in cultural identity.[142] This is evidenced by the fact that around 80 percent of adults continue to remain members of the Lutheran Church despite having to pay a church tax; moreover, rates of baptism remain high and church weddings are increasing in Sweden.[142]

Health

See also: Healthcare in Sweden and Swedish National Board of Health and Welfare

Healthcare in Sweden is similar in quality to other developed nations. Sweden ranks in the top five countries with respect to low infant mortality. It also ranks high in life expectancy and in safe drinking water. A person seeking care first contacts a clinic for a doctor's appointment, and may then be referred to a specialist by the clinic physician, who may in turn recommend either in-patient or out-patient treatment, or an elective care option. The health care is governed by the 21 landsting of Sweden and is mainly funded by taxes, with nominal fees for patients.

Education

Main article: Education in Sweden


Uppsala University (established 1477)

Children aged 1–5 years old are guaranteed a place in a public kindergarten (Swedish: *förskola* or, colloquially, *dagis*). Between the ages of 6 and 16, children attend compulsory comprehensive school. In the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), Swedish 15-year-old pupils score close to the OECD average.[143] After completing the 9th grade, about 90% of the students continue with a three-year upper secondary school (*gymnasium*), which can lead to both a job qualification or entrance eligibility to university. The school system is largely financed by taxes.

The Swedish government treats public and independent schools equally[144] by introducing education vouchers in 1992 as one of the first countries in the world after The Netherlands. Anyone can establish a for-profit school and the municipality must pay new schools the same amount as municipal schools get. School lunch is free for all students in Sweden, and usually includes one or two different kinds of hot meals, a vegetarian meal, salad bar, fruit, bread, milk and water. Some schools, especially kindergartens and middle schools, even serve breakfast for free[*citation needed*] to those who want to eat before school starts.

There are a number of different universities and colleges in Sweden, the oldest and largest of which are situated in Uppsala, Lund, Gothenburg and Stockholm. Only a few countries such as Canada, the United States, Japan and South Korea have higher levels of tertiary education degree holders.[*citation needed*] Along with several other European countries, the government also subsidises tuition of international students pursuing a degree at Swedish institutions, although a recent bill passed in the Swedish parliament will limit this subsidy to students from EEA countries and Switzerland.[145]

Immigration

Main article: Immigration to Sweden

Immigration has been a major source of population growth and cultural change throughout much of the history of Sweden. Sweden has been transformed from a nation of emigration ending after World War I to a nation of immigration from World War II onwards. The economic, social, and political aspects of immigration have caused controversy regarding ethnicity, economic benefits, jobs for non-immigrants, settlement patterns, impact on upward social mobility, crime, and voting behaviour.

According to Eurostat, in 2010, there were 1.33 million foreign-born residents in Sweden, corresponding to 14.3% of the total population. Of these, 859 000 (9.2%) were born outside the EU and 477 000 (5.1%) were

born in another EU Member State.[146][147][148]

In 2009, immigration reached its highest level since records began with 102,280 people emigrating to Sweden.[149] Immigrants in Sweden are mostly concentrated in the urban areas of Svealand and Götaland.[148] Since the early 1970s, immigration to Sweden has been mostly due to refugee migration and family reunification from countries in the Middle East, Africa and Latin America.[150]



Immigrants and emigrants, Sweden 1850–2007

The largest groups in 2010 were:[148]

1. Finland (172,218)
2. Former Yugoslavia (152,268)
3. Iraq (117,919)
4. Poland (67,518)
5. Iran (59,922)
6. Germany (47,803)
7. Denmark (46,002)
8. Norway (43,819)
9. Turkey (40,766)
10. Somalia (31,734)

Culture

Main article: Culture of Sweden


Nationalmuseum in Stockholm.

Sweden has many authors of worldwide recognition including August Strindberg, Astrid Lindgren, and Nobel Prize winners Selma Lagerlöf and Harry Martinson. In total seven Nobel Prizes in Literature have been awarded to Swedes. The nation's most well-known artists are painters such as Carl Larsson and Anders Zorn, and the sculptors Tobias Sergel and Carl Milles.

Swedish 20th-century culture is noted by pioneering works in the early days of cinema, with Mauritz Stiller and Victor Sjöström. In the 1920s–1980s, the filmmaker Ingmar Bergman and actors Greta Garbo and Ingrid Bergman became internationally noted people within cinema. More recently, the films of Lukas Moodysson and Lasse Hallström have received international recognition.

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s Sweden was seen as an international leader in what is now referred to as the "sexual revolution", with gender equality having particularly been promoted.[151] At the present time, the number of single people is one of the highest in the world. The early Swedish film *I Am Curious (Yellow)* (1967) reflected a liberal view of sexuality, including scenes of love making that caught international attention, and introduced the concept of the "Swedish sin".

Sweden has also become very liberal towards homosexuality, as is reflected in the popular acceptance of films

such as *Show Me Love*, which is about two young lesbians in the small Swedish town of Åmål. Since 1 May 2009, Sweden repealed its "registered partnership" laws and fully replaced them with gender-neutral marriage,[152] Sweden also offers domestic partnerships for both same-sex and opposite-sex couples. Cohabitation (*sammanboende*) by couples of all ages, including teenagers as well as elderly couples, is widespread. Recently, Sweden is experiencing a baby boom.[153]

Music

Main article: Music of Sweden



Agnetha Fältskog of Swedish band ABBA performing in 1977.

Sweden has a rich musical tradition, ranging from mediaeval folk ballads to hip hop music. The music of the pre-Christian Norse has been lost to history, although historical re-creations have been attempted based on instruments found in Viking sites. The instruments used were the *lur* (a sort of trumpet), simple string instruments, wooden flutes and drums. It is possible that the Viking musical legacy lives on in some of the old Swedish folk music. Sweden has a significant folk-music scene, both in the traditional style as well as more modern interpretations which often mix in elements of rock and jazz. Väsen is more of a traditionalist group, using a unique, traditional Swedish instrument called the *nyckelharpa* while Garmarna, Nordman and Hedningarna have more modern elements. There is also Sami music, called the *joik*, which is actually a type of chant which is part of the traditional Saami animistic spirituality but has gained recognition in the international world of folk music. Sweden's most classic and notable composers includes Carl Michael Bellman and Franz Berwald.

Sweden also has a prominent choral music tradition, deriving in part from the cultural importance of Swedish folk songs. In fact, out of a population of 9.2 million, it is estimated that five to six hundred thousand people sing in choirs.[154]

In 2007, with over 800 million dollars in revenue, Sweden was the third largest music exporter in the world and surpassed only by the US and the UK.[155][156][*citation needed*] ABBA was one of the first internationally well-known popular music bands from Sweden, and still ranks among the most prominent bands in the world, with about 370 million records sold. With ABBA, Sweden entered into a new era, in which Swedish pop music gained international prominence.



The Gothenburg Opera.

There have been many other internationally successful bands since, such as Roxette, Ace of Base, Europe, A-teens, The Cardigans and The Hives, to name some of the biggest, and recently there has been a surge of Swedish Indie pop bands such as Loney, Dear, Shout Out Louds, The Radio Dept. and Dungen, a group which incorporates many elements of Swedish traditional folk music in their sound. One of the biggest bands in Sweden is the rock band Kent.

Sweden has also become known for a large number of heavy metal (mostly death metal and melodic death metal) as well as progressive- and power metal bands. Some of the most popular being In Flames, Amon Amarth, HammerFall, Pain of Salvation, Dark Tranquillity, Opeth, Arch Enemy and Meshuggah. The renowned neoclassical power metal guitarist Yngwie Malmsteen is also from Sweden.

Sweden has a rather lively jazz scene. During the last sixty years or so it has attained a remarkably high artistic

standard, stimulated by domestic as well as external influences and experiences. The Centre for Swedish Folk Music and Jazz Research has published an overview of jazz in Sweden by Lars Westin.[157]

Architecture

Main article: Architecture of Sweden


Djurgårdsbron.

Before the 13th century most buildings were made of brick, but a shift began towards stone. Early Swedish stone buildings are the Romanesque churches on the country side. As so happens, many of them were built in Scania and are in effect Danish churches. This would include the magnificent Lund Cathedral from the 11th century and the somewhat younger church in Dalby, but also many early Gothic churches built through influences of the Hanseatic League, such as in Ystad, Malmö and Helsingborg.

Cathedrals in other parts of Sweden were also built as seats of Sweden's bishops. The Skara Cathedral is of bricks from the 14th century, and the Uppsala Cathedral in the 15th. In 1230 the foundations of the Linköping Cathedral were made, the material was there limestone, but the building took some 250 years to finish.

Among older structures are also some significant fortresses and other historical buildings such as at Borgholm Castle, Halltorps Manor and Eketorp fortress on the island Öland, the Nyköping fortress and the Visby ring wall.

Around 1520 Sweden was out of the Middle Ages and united under King Gustav Vasa, who immediately initiated grand mansions, castles and fortresses to be built. Some of the more magnificent include the Kalmar fortress, the Gripsholm Castle and the one at Vadstena.


The Kalmar Cathedral.

In the next two centuries, Sweden was designated by Baroque architecture and later the rococo. Notable projects from that time include the city Karlskrona, which has now also been declared a World Heritage Site and the Drottningholm Palace.

1930 was the year of the great Stockholm exhibition, which marked the breakthrough of Functionalism, or "funkis" as it became known. The style came to dominate in the following decades. Some notable projects of this kind were the Million Programme, offering affordable but anti-human living in large apartment complexes.

Media

Main article: Media in Sweden

Swedes are among the greatest consumers of newspapers in the world, and nearly every town is served by a local paper. The country's main quality morning papers are Dagens Nyheter (liberal), Göteborgs-Posten (liberal), Svenska Dagbladet (liberal conservative) and Sydsvenska Dagbladet (liberal). The two largest evening tabloids are Aftonbladet (social democratic) and Expressen (liberal). The ad-financed, free international morning paper, Metro International, was originally founded in Stockholm, Sweden. The country's news is reported in English by, among others, The Local (liberal).

The public broadcasting companies held a monopoly on radio and television for a long time in Sweden. Licence funded radio broadcasts started in 1925. A second radio network was started in 1954 and a third opened 1962 in

response to pirate radio stations. Non-profit community radio was allowed in 1979 and in 1993 commercial local radio started.

The licence funded television service was officially launched in 1956. A second channel, TV2, was launched in 1969. These two channels (operated by Sveriges Television since the late '70s) held a monopoly until the 1980s when cable and satellite television became available. The first Swedish language satellite service was TV3 which started broadcasting from London in 1987. It was followed by Kanal 5 in 1989 (then known as Nordic Channel) and TV4 in 1990.

In 1991 the government announced it would begin taking applications from private television companies wishing to broadcast on the terrestrial network. TV4, which had previously been broadcasting via satellite, was granted a permit and began its terrestrial broadcasts in 1992, becoming the first private channel to broadcast television content from within the country.

Around half the population are connected to cable television. Digital terrestrial television in Sweden started in 1999 and the last analogue terrestrial broadcasts were terminated in 2007.

Literature

Main article: Swedish literature


Writer and playwright August Strindberg.

The first literary text from Sweden is the Rök Runestone, carved during the Viking Age c. 800 AD. With the conversion of the land to Christianity around 1100 AD, Sweden entered the Middle Ages, during which monastic writers preferred to use Latin. Therefore there are only a few texts in the Old Swedish from that period. Swedish literature only flourished when the Swedish language was standardized in the 16th century, a standardization largely due to the full translation of the Bible into Swedish in 1541. This translation is the so-called Gustav Vasa Bible.

With improved education and the freedom brought by secularization, the 17th century saw several notable authors develop the Swedish language further. Some key figures include Georg Stiernhielm (17th century), who was the first to write classical poetry in Swedish; Johan Henric Kellgren (18th century), the first to write fluent Swedish prose; Carl Michael Bellman (late 18th century), the first writer of burlesque ballads; and August Strindberg (late 19th century), a socio-realistic writer and playwright who won worldwide fame. The early 20th century continued to produce notable authors, such as Selma Lagerlöf, (Nobel laureate 1909), Verner von Heidenstam (Nobel laureate 1916) and Pär Lagerkvist (Nobel laureate 1951).

In recent decades, a handful of Swedish writers have established themselves internationally, including the detective novelist Henning Mankell and the writer of spy fiction Jan Guillou. The Swedish writer to have made the most lasting impression on world literature is the children's book writer Astrid Lindgren, and her books about Pippi Longstocking, Emil, and others. In 2008, the second best-selling fiction author in the world was Stieg Larsson, whose *Millennium* series of crime novels is being published posthumously to critical acclaim.[158] Larsson drew heavily on the work of Lindgren by basing his central character, Lisbeth Salander, on Longstocking.[159]

Holidays

Main article: Public holidays in Sweden


Walpurgis Night bonfire in Sweden.

Apart from traditional Protestant Christian holidays, Sweden also celebrates some unique holidays, some of a pre-Christian tradition. They include Midsummer celebrating the summer solstice; Walpurgis Night (*Valborgsmässoafton*) on 30 April lighting bonfires; and Labour Day or Mayday on 1 May is dedicated to socialist demonstrations. The day of giver-of-light Saint Lucia, 13 December, is widely acknowledged in elaborate celebrations which betoken its Italian origin and commence the month-long Christmas season.

6 June is the National Day of Sweden and, as of 2005, a public holiday. Furthermore, there are official flag day observances and a Namesdays in Sweden calendar. In August many Swedes have *kräftskivor* (crayfish dinner parties). Martin of Tours Eve is celebrated in Scania in November with *Mårten Gås* parties, where roast goose and *svartsoppa* ('black soup', made of goose stock, fruit, spices, spirits and goose blood) are served. The Sami, one of Sweden's indigenous minorities, have their holiday on 6 February and Scania celebrate their Scanian Flag day on the third Sunday in July.

Cuisine

Main article: Swedish cuisine

Swedish cuisine, like that of the other Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Norway and Finland), was traditionally simple. Fish (particularly herring), meat, potatoes and dairy products played prominent roles.


Swedish knäckebröd (crisp bread).


Swedish saffron buns

Spices were sparse. Famous dishes include Swedish meatballs, traditionally served with gravy, boiled potatoes and lingonberry jam; pancakes, *lutfisk*, and Smörgåsbord, or lavish buffet. *Akvavit* is a popular alcoholic distilled beverage, and the drinking of *snaps* is of cultural importance. The traditional flat and dry crisp bread has developed into several contemporary variants. Regionally important foods are the *surströmming* (a fermented fish) in Northern Sweden and eel in Scania in Southern Sweden.

Swedish traditional dishes, some of which are many hundreds of years old, others perhaps a century or less, are still a very important part of Swedish everyday meals, in spite of the fact that modern day Swedish cuisine adopts many international dishes.

In August, at the traditional feast known as crayfish party, *kräftskiva*, Swedes eat large amounts of boiled crayfish with boiled potato and dill.

Cinema

Main article: Cinema of Sweden

Swedes have been fairly prominent in the film area through the years, several successful Swedish Hollywood actors can be mentioned: Ingrid Bergman, Greta Garbo, Max von Sydow, Dolph Lundgren, Lena Olin, Britt Ekland, Maud Adams, Stellan Skarsgård, Peter Stormare, Izabella Scorupco, Pernilla August, Ann-Margret, Anita Ekberg, Alexander Skarsgård, Harriet Andersson, Bibi Andersson, Ingrid Thulin, Malin Åkerman and Gunnar Björnstrand. Amongst several directors who have made internationally successful films can be

mentioned: Ingmar Bergman, Lukas Moodysson and Lasse Hallström.

Fashion

Interest in fashion is big in Sweden and the country is headquartering famous brands like Hennes & Mauritz (operating as H&M), J. Lindeberg (operating as JL), Acne, Gina Tricot, Lindex, Tiger of Sweden, Odd Molly, Cheap Monday, Dr. Denim, Gant, Resteröds, Nudie Jeans, WESC, WAX, Uniforms for the Dedicated, Filippa K, Nakkna and Fifth Avenue Shoe Repair within its borders. These companies, however, are composed largely of buyers who import fashionable goods from throughout Europe and America, continuing the trend of Swedish business toward multinational economic dependency like many of its neighbours.

Sports

Main article: Sport in Sweden

Sport activities are a national movement with half of the population actively participating in organized sporting activities. The two main spectator sports are football and ice hockey. Second to football, horse sports have the highest number of practitioners, mostly women. Thereafter follow golf, athletics, and the team sports of handball, floorball, basketball and bandy.



Robin Söderling

The Swedish ice hockey team Tre Kronor is regarded as one of the best in the world. The team has won the World Championships eight times, placing them third in the all-time medal count. Tre Kronor also won Olympic gold medals in 1994 and 2006. In 2006, Tre Kronor became the first national hockey team to win both the Olympic and world championships in the same year. The Swedish national football team has seen some success at the World Cup in the past, finishing second when they hosted the tournament in 1958, and third twice, in 1950 and 1994. Athletics has enjoyed a surge in popularity due to several successful athletes in recent years, such as Carolina Klüft and Stefan Holm.

Sweden hosted the 1912 Summer Olympics and the FIFA World Cup in 1958. Other big sports events held here include 1992 UEFA European Football Championship, FIFA Women's World Cup 1995, and several championships of ice hockey, curling, athletics, skiing, bandy, figure skating and swimming.

Successful tennis players include former world No. 1's Björn Borg, Mats Wilander and Stefan Edberg.

Other famous Swedish athletes include the heavyweight boxing champion and International Boxing Hall of Famer – Ingemar Johansson; World Golf Hall of Famer – Annika Sörenstam and multiple World Championships and Olympics medalist in table tennis – Jan-Ove Waldner.

See also

- Outline of Sweden

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History of Sweden

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Modern Sweden started out of the Kalmar Union formed in 1397 and by the unification of the country by King Gustav Vasa in the 16th century. In the 17th century Sweden expanded its territories to form the Swedish empire. Most of these conquered territories had to be given up during the 18th century. In the early 19th century Finland and the remaining territories outside the Scandinavian Peninsula were lost. After its last war in 1814, Sweden entered into a personal union with Norway which lasted until 1905. Since 1814, Sweden has been at peace, adopting a non-aligned foreign policy in peacetime and neutrality in wartime.[1]

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History of Sweden

Coat of Arms of Sweden.svg

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Pre-historic age: 9,000 BC–AD 800

Main article: Prehistoric Sweden

Sweden, as well as the adjacent country Norway, has a high concentration of petroglyphs (*hällristningar*[2] in Swedish) throughout the country, with the highest concentration in the province of Bohuslän. The earliest images can, however, be found in the province of Jämtland, dating from 5000 BC.[3] They depict wild animals such as elk, reindeer, bears and seals.[*citation needed*] The period 2300–500 BC was the most intensive carving period[*citation needed*], with carvings of agriculture, warfare, ships, domesticated animals, etc.[*citation needed*] Also, petroglyphs with themes of sexual nature have been found in Bohuslän; these are dated from 800–500 BC.[*citation needed*]

Early Swedish history: 800–1500

Main article: Early Swedish history

For centuries, the Swedes were merchant seamen well known for their far-reaching trade. In the 9th century, Nordic Vikings raided and ravaged the European continent as far as the Black and Caspian Seas. During the 11th and 12th centuries, Sweden gradually became a unified Christian kingdom that later included Finland. Until 1060 the kings of Uppsala ruled most of modern Sweden except the southern and western coastal regions, which remained under Danish rule until the 17th century. After a century of civil wars a new royal family emerged, which strengthened the power of the crown at the expense of the nobility, while giving the nobles privileges such as exemption from taxation in exchange for military service. Finland was taken over. Sweden never had a fully developed feudal system, and its peasants were never reduced to serfdom.



Viking expeditions (blue): depicting the immense breadth of their voyages throughout most of Europe, North Atlantic and Mediterranean

The Vikings from Sweden mainly traveled east into Russia. The large Russian mainland and its many navigable rivers offered good prospects for merchandise and, at times, plundering. During the 9th century, extensive Scandinavian settlements began on the east side of the Baltic Sea.

About 1000, the first king known to rule over both Svealand and Götaland was Olof Skötkonung, but the further history is obscure with kings whose periods of regency and actual power is unclear. In the 12th century, Sweden was still consolidating with the dynastic struggles between the Erik and Sverker clans, which finally ended when a third clan married into the Erik clan and founded the Folkunga dynasty on the throne. This dynasty gradually consolidated a pre-Kalmar-Union Sweden to an actual nation, which essentially fell apart after the Black Death.

The conversion from Norse paganism to Christianity was a complex, gradual, and at times possibly violent (see Temple at Uppsala) process. The main early source of religious influence was England due to interactions between Scandinavians and Saxons in the Danelaw, and Irish missionary monks. German influence was less obvious in the beginning, despite an early missionary attempt by Ansgar, but gradually emerged as the dominant religious force in the area, especially after the Norman conquest of England. Despite the close relations between Swedish and Russian aristocracy (see also Rus'), there is no direct evidence of Orthodox influence, possibly because of the language barrier.

This consolidated state of Sweden already included Finland presumably from an early crusade into the area of

Tavastland in central current day Finland.

After the Black Death and internal power struggles in Sweden, Queen Margaret I of Denmark united the Nordic countries in the Union of Kalmar in 1397, with the approval of the Swedish nobility. Continual tension within the countries and within the union gradually led to open conflict between the Swedes and the Danes in the 15th century, however. The union's final disintegration in the early 16th century brought on a long-lived rivalry between Denmark on one side and Sweden on the other.

Modern Sweden: 1523

Main article: Early Vasa era



Gustav Vasa (Gustav I) in 1542

In the 16th century, Gustav Vasa fought for an independent Sweden, crushing an attempt to restore the Union of Kalmar and laying the foundation for modern Sweden. At the same time, he broke with the papacy and established a reformed church.

The Union of Kalmar's final disintegration in the early 16th century brought on a long-lived rivalry between Norway and Denmark on one side and Sweden (including Finland) on the other. The Catholic bishops had supported the Danish King Christian II, but he was overthrown by Gustavus Vasa (1490–1560), and Sweden (with Finland) was now independent again. Gustavus used the Protestant Reformation to curb the power of the church and became King Gustavus I in 1523. In 1527 he persuaded the Riksdag of Västerås (comprising the nobles, clergy, burghers, and freehold peasants) to confiscate church lands, which comprised 21% of the farmland. Gustavus took the Lutheran reformers under his protection and appointed his men as bishops. Gustavus suppressed aristocratic opposition to his ecclesiastical policies and efforts at centralisation.



An image made by Gustavus Vasa during his reign showing him (in dark brown clothing and cap) capturing and subduing Catholicism (the lady in orange).

Tax reforms took place in 1538 and 1558, whereby multiple complex taxes on independent farmers were simplified and standardised throughout the district; tax assessments per farm were adjusted to reflect ability to pay. Crown tax revenues increased, but more importantly the new system was perceived as fairer and more acceptable. A war with Luebeck in 1535 resulted in the expulsion of the Hanseatic traders, who previously had had a monopoly of foreign trade. With its own businessmen in charge Sweden's economic strength grew rapidly, and by 1544 Gustavus controlled 60% of the farmlands in all of Sweden. Sweden now built the first modern army in Europe, supported by a sophisticated tax system and government bureaucracy. Gustavus proclaimed the Swedish crown hereditary in his family, the house of Vasa. It ruled Sweden (1523–1654) and Poland (1587–1668).[4]

Early Modern

Main article: Rise of Sweden as a Great Power

During the 17th century, after winning wars against Denmark, Russia, and Poland, Sweden–Finland (with scarcely more than 1 million inhabitants) emerged as a great power by taking direct control of the Baltic region, which was Europe's main source of grain, iron, copper, timber, tar, hemp, and furs.

Sweden had first gained a foothold on a territory outside her traditional provinces in 1561, when Estonia opted for vassalage to Sweden during the Livonian War. While in 1590 Sweden had to cede Ingria and Kexholm to Russia, and Sigismund tried to incorporate Swedish Estonia into the Duchy of Livonia, Sweden gradually expanded at the eastern Baltic during the following years. In a series of Polish–Swedish War (1600–1629) and the Russo-Swedish Ingrian War, Gustavus Adolphus retook Ingria and Kexholm (formally ceded in the Treaty of Stolbovo, 1617) as well as the bulk of Livonia (formally ceded in the Treaty of Altmark, 1629).



Gustavus Adolphus, victor at the Battle of Breitenfeld, 1631

Sweden's role in the Thirty Years' War determined the political as well as the religious balance of power in Europe. From bridgeheads in Stralsund (1628) and Pomerania (1630), the Swedish army advanced to the south of the Holy Roman Empire, and in a side theater of the war deprived Denmark–Norway of Danish Estonia, Jämtland, Gotland, Halland, Härjedalen, Idre and Särna, became exempted from the Sound Dues, and established claims to Bremen-Verden, all of which was formalized in the Treaty of Brömsebro (1645). In 1648, Sweden became a guarantee power for the Peace of Westphalia, which ended the Thirty Years' War and left her with the additional dominions of Bremen-Verden, Wismar and Swedish Pomerania. Since 1638, Sweden also maintained the colony of New Sweden along the Delaware River in North America.



Formation of the Swedish Empire, 1560-1660

The Swedish Empire: 1648

Main article: Swedish Empire

Sweden's status as an empire did not remain unchallenged. In the Second Northern War, she was able to establish control of the eastern bank of the Sound, formalized in the Treaty of Roskilde (1658), and gain recognition of her southeastern dominions by the European great powers in the Treaty of Oliva (1660); yet, Sweden was barred from further expansion at the southern coast of the Baltic. That Sweden came out of the Scanian War with only minor losses was largely due to France forcing Sweden's adversaries into the treaties of Fontainebleau (1679) (confirmed at Lund) and Saint-Germain (1679).

The following period of peace allowed Charles XI of Sweden to reform and stabilize the empire. He consolidated the state finances by the great reduction of 1680; further changes were made in finance, commerce, national maritime and land armaments, judicial procedure, church government and education.

The Great Northern War: 1700

Main article: Sweden after the Great Northern War

Russia, Saxony–Poland, and Denmark–Norway pooled their power in 1700 and attacked the Swedish empire. Although the young Swedish King Charles XII (1682–1718; reigned 1697–1718) won spectacular victories in the early years of the Great Northern War, most notably in the stunning success against the Russians at the Battle of Narva (1700), his plan to attack Moscow and force Russia into peace proved too ambitious.

The Russians won decisively at the Battle of Poltava in June 1709, capturing much of the exhausted Swedish army. Charles XII and the remnants of his army were cut off from Sweden and fled south into Ottoman territory, where he remained three years. He outstayed his welcome, refusing to leave until the Ottoman Empire joined him in a new war against Tsar Peter I of Russia. In order to force the recalcitrant Ottoman government to follow his policies, he established, from his camp, a powerful political network in Constantinople, which was joined even by the mother of the sultan. Charles's persistence worked, as Peter's army was checked by Ottoman troops. However, Turkish failure to pursue the victory enraged Charles and from that moment his relations with the Ottoman administration soured. During the same period the behavior of his troops worsened and turned disastrous. Lack of discipline and contempt for the locals soon created an unbearable situation in Moldavia. The Swedish soldiers behaved badly, destroying, stealing, raping, and killing. Meanwhile back in the north Sweden was invaded by its enemies; Charles returned home in 1714, too late to restore his lost empire and impoverished homeland; he died in 1718.[5] In the subsequent peace treaties, the allied powers, joined by Prussia and England-Hanover, ended Sweden's reign as a great power. Russia now dominated the north. The war-weary Riksdag asserted new powers and reduced the crown to a constitutional monarch, with power held by a civilian government controlled by the Riksdag. A new "Age of Freedom" opened, and the economy was rebuilt, supported by large exports of iron and lumber to Britain.[6]

The reign of Charles XII (1697–1718) has stirred great controversy; historians have been puzzled ever since why this military genius overreached and greatly weakened Sweden. Although most early-19th-century historians tended to follow Voltaire's lead in bestowing extravagant praise on the warrior-king, others have criticized him as a fanatic, a bully, and a bloodthirsty warmonger. A more balanced view suggests a highly capable military ruler whose oft-reviled peculiarities seemed to have served him well, but who neglected his base in Sweden in pursuit of foreign adventure.[7] Slow to learn the limits of Sweden's diminished strength, a party of nobles, who called themselves the "Hats", dreamed of revenge on Russia and ruled the country from 1739 to 1765; they engaged in wars in 1741, 1757, 1788, and 1809, with more or less disastrous results as Russian influence grew after every Swedish defeat.

Enlightenment

Main article: Enlightened Absolute Monarchy in Sweden

Sweden joined in the Enlightenment culture of the day in the arts, architecture, science and learning. A new law in 1766 established for the first time the principle of freedom of the press—a notable step towards liberty of political opinion. The Academy of Science was founded in 1739 and the Academy of Letters, History, and Antiquities in 1753. The outstanding cultural leader was Carl Linnaeus (1707–78), whose work in biology and ethnography had a major impact on European science.

Following half a century of parliamentary domination came the reaction. King Gustav III (1746–1792) came to the throne in 1771, and in 1772 led a coup d'état, with French support, that established him as an "enlightened despot," who ruled at will. The Age of Freedom and bitter party politics was over. Precocious and well educated, he became a patron of the arts and music. His edicts reformed the bureaucracy, repaired the currency, expanded trade, and improved defense. The population had reached 2.0 million and the country was prosperous, although rampant alcoholism was a growing social problem. But when Gustav made war on Russia and did poorly he was assassinated by a conspiracy of nobles angry that he tried to restrict their privileges for the benefit of the peasant farmers.

Absolute monarchy lasted until defeats in the Napoleonic wars forced Sweden to cede Finland to Russia in 1809.

Colonies and slavery

Sweden experimented briefly with overseas colonies, including "New Sweden" in Colonial America in the 1640s. Sweden purchased the small Caribbean island of Saint Barthélemy from France in 1784, then sold it back in 1878; the population had included slaves until they were freed by the Swedish government in 1847.[8]

Early urbanization

Between 1570 and 1800 Sweden experienced two periods of urban expansion, c. 1580-1690 and in the mid-18th century, separated by relative stagnation from the 1690s to about 1720. The initial phase was the more active, including an increase in the percentage of urban dwellers in Stockholm – a pattern comparable to increasing urban populations in other European capital and port cities – as well as the foundation of a number of small new towns. Increasing populations in the small towns of the north and west characterized the second period of urban growth, which began around 1750 in response to shifts in Swedish trade patterns from the Baltic to the North Atlantic.[9]

Nineteenth century

Union with Norway: 1814

Main article: Union between Sweden and Norway

In 1810 French Marshal Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's top generals, was elected Crown Prince Charles by the Riksdag. In 1813, his forces joined the allies against Napoleon and defeated the Danes at Bornhöved. In the Treaty of Kiel, Denmark ceded mainland Norway to the Swedish king. Norway, however, declared its independence, adopted a constitution and chose a new king. Sweden invaded Norway to enforce the terms of the Kiel treaty—it was the last war Sweden ever fought.

After brief fighting, the peace established a personal union between the two states. Even though they shared the same king, Norway was largely independent of Sweden, except Sweden controlled foreign affairs. The king's rule was not well received and when Sweden refused to allow Norway to have its own diplomats, Norway rejected the King of Sweden in 1905 and selected its own king.



The Swedish Crown Prince Charles John (Bernadotte), who staunchly opposed Norwegian independence, only to offer generous terms of union

During Charles XIV reign (1818–1844), the first stage of the Industrial Revolution reached Sweden. This first take-off was founded on rural forges, textile proto-industries and sawmills.

The 19th century was marked by the emergence of a liberal opposition press, the abolition of guild monopolies in trade and manufacturing in favor of free enterprise, the introduction of taxation and voting reforms, the installation of a national military service, and the rise in the electorate of three major party groups—Social Democratic Party, Liberal Party, and Conservative Party.

Modernization of Sweden: 1860-1910

Main article: Modernization of Sweden

Sweden—much like Japan at the same time—transformed from a stagnant rural society to a vibrant industrial society between the 1860s and 1910. The agricultural economy shifted gradually from communal village to a more efficient private farm-based agriculture. There was less need for manual labor on the farm so many went to the cities; and about 1 million Swedes emigrated to the United States between 1850 and 1890. Many returned and brought word of the higher productivity of American industry, thus stimulating faster modernization.

The late 19th century saw the emergence of an opposition press, the abolition of guild monopolies on craftsmen, and the reform of taxation. Two years of military service was made compulsory for young men, though there was no warfare.

Health

The steady decline of death rates in Sweden began about 1810. For men and women of working age the death rate trend diverged, however, leading to increased excess male mortality during the first half of the century. There were very high rates of infant and child mortality before 1800. Among infants and children between the ages of one and four smallpox peaked as a cause of death in the 1770s-1780s and declined afterward. Mortality also peaked during this period due to other air-, food-, and waterborne diseases, but these declined as well during the early 19th century. The decline of several diseases during this time created a more favorable environment that increased children's resistance to disease and dramatically lowered child mortality.[10]

The introduction of compulsory gymnastics in Swedish schools in 1880 rested partly on a long tradition, from Renaissance humanism to the Enlightenment, of the importance of physical as well as intellectual training. More immediately, the promotion of gymnastics as a scientifically sound form of physical discipline coincided with the introduction of conscription, which gave the state a strong interest in educating children physically as well as mentally for the role of citizen soldiers.[11] Skiing is a major recreation in Sweden and its ideological, functional, ecological, and social impact has been great on Swedish nationalism and consciousness. Swedes perceived skiing as virtuous, masculine, heroic, in harmony with nature, and part of the country's culture. A growing awareness of strong national sentiments and an appreciation of natural resources led to the creation of the Swedish Ski Association in 1892 in order to combine nature, leisure, and nationalism. The organization focused its efforts on patriotic, militaristic, heroic, and environmental Swedish traditions as they relate to ski sports and outdoor life.[12]

20th century

With a broader voting franchise, the nation saw the emergence of three major party groups – Social Democrat, Liberal, and Conservative. The parties debated further expansion of the voting franchise. The Liberal Party, based on the middle class, in 1907 put forth a program for local voting rights later accepted in the Riksdag; the majority of Liberals wanted to require some property ownership before a man could vote. The Social Democrats called for total male suffrage without property limitations. The strong farmer representation in the Second Chamber of the Riksdag maintained a conservative view, but their decline after 1900 gradually ended opposition to full suffrage.

Religion maintained a major role but public school religious education changed from drill in the Lutheran catechism to biblical-ethical studies.

Industrialization: 1910-1939

Main article: Industrialization of Sweden

Sweden was neutral in World War I. During the war and the 1920s its industries expanded to meet the European demand for Swedish steel, ball bearings, wood pulp, and matches. Post-war prosperity provided the foundations for the social welfare policies characteristic of modern Sweden.

Foreign policy concerns in the 1930s centered on Soviet and German expansionism, which stimulated abortive efforts at Nordic defence co-operation. Sweden followed a policy of armed neutrality during World War II and currently remains non-aligned.

Welfare state

Sweden successfully integrated socialism and democracy because of the unique way in which Sweden's labor leaders, politicians, and classes cooperated during the early development period of Swedish social democracy. Because Sweden's socialist leaders chose a moderate, reformist political course with broad-based public support in the early stages of Swedish industrialization and prior to the full-blown development of Swedish interclass politics, Sweden escaped the severe extremist challenges and political and class divisions that plagued many European countries that attempted to develop social democratic systems after 1911. By dealing early, cooperatively, and effectively with the challenges of industrialization and its impact on Swedish social, political, and economic structures, Swedish social democrats were able to create one of the most successful social democratic systems in the world, with no signs of repression or totalitarianism.[13]



Main Line railways built 1860-1930.

When the Social Democratic Party came into power in 1932, its leaders introduced a new political decision-making process, which later became known as "the Swedish model." The party took a central role, but tried as far as possible to base its policy on mutual understanding and compromise. Different interest groups were always involved in official committees that preceded government decisions.

Foreign policy 1920-1939

Foreign policy concerns in the 1930s centered on Soviet and German expansionism, which stimulated failed efforts at Nordic defense cooperation. Sweden followed a policy of armed neutrality during World War II (although thousands of Swedish volunteers fought in the Winter War against the Soviets); however, it did permit German troops to pass through its territory to and from occupation duties in its neighbour, Norway, and it supplied the Nazi regime with steel and much needed ball-bearings.

Sweden during World War II

Main article: Sweden during World War II

Sweden remained neutral during World War II, despite the involvement of all its neighbors. Sweden provided assistance to both warring parties.

Post-war Sweden: 1945

Main articles: Post-war Sweden, Sweden after the Cold War, History of Sweden (1945–1989), and History of Sweden (since 1989)

Sweden was one of the first non-participants of World War II to join the United Nations (in 1946). Apart from this, the country tried to stay out of alliances and remain officially neutral during the entire Cold War; it never joined NATO.

The social democratic party held government for 44 years (1932–1976), they spent much of the 1950s and 1960s building *Folkhemmet* (*The People's Home*), the Swedish welfare state. Sweden's industry had not been damaged by the war and it was in a position to help re-build Northern Europe in the decades following 1945. This led to an economic upswing in the post-war era that made the welfare system feasible.[14]

By the 1970s the economies of the rest of Western Europe, particularly that of West Germany were prosperous and growing rapidly, while the Swedish economy stagnated. Many economists blamed its large tax funded public sector.[15]

In 1976, the social democrats lost their majority. The 1976 parliamentary elections brought a liberal/right-wing coalition to power. Over the next six years, four governments ruled and fell, composed by all or some of the parties that had won in 1976. The fourth liberal government in these years came under fire by Social Democrats and trade unions and the Moderate Party, culminating in the Social Democrats regaining power in 1982.

During the Cold War Sweden maintained a dual approach, publicly the strict neutrality policy was forcefully maintained, but unofficially strong ties were kept with the U.S., Norway, Denmark, West Germany and other NATO countries. Swedes hoped that the U.S. would use conventional and nuclear weapons in case of a Soviet attack on Sweden. A strong ability to defend against an amphibious invasion was maintained, complete with Swedish-built warplanes, but there was no long-range bombing capability.[16]

In the early 1960s U.S. nuclear submarines armed with mid-range nuclear missiles of type Polaris A-1 were deployed not far from the Swedish west coast. Range and safety considerations made this a good area from which to launch a retaliatory nuclear strike on Moscow. The U.S. secretly provided Sweden with a military security guarantee, promising to provide military force in aid of Sweden in case of Soviet aggression. As part of the military cooperation the U.S. provided much help in the development of the Saab 37 Viggen, as a strong Swedish air force was seen as necessary to keep Soviet anti-submarine aircraft from operating in the missile launch area. In return Swedish scientists at the Royal Institute of Technology made considerable contributions to enhancing the targeting performance of the Polaris missiles.[17]

On February 28, 1986, the Social Democratic leader and Swedish Prime Minister Olof Palme was murdered; shocked Swedes worried whether the nation had "lost its innocence".

In the early 1990s there occurred once again an economic crisis with high unemployment and many banks and companies going bankrupt. A few years after the end of the Cold War Sweden became a member of the European Union in 1995, and the old term "policy of neutrality" fell out of use.[18][19]

In a referendum held in 2003, voters decided not to adopt the Euro as the country's official currency.

Historiography

According to Lönnroth (1998)[20] in the 19th century and early 20th century, Swedish historians saw their writing in terms of literature and story telling, rather than analysis and interpretation. Harald Hjärne (1848–1922) pioneered modern historical scholarship. In 1876 he attacked the traditional myths of the social and legal

conditions of ancient Greece and Rome inherited from the classical authors. He was inspired by German scholar Barthold Georg Niebuhr (1776–1831), a founder of modern German historiography. As professor of history at Uppsala University, Hjärne became a spokesman for the Conservative Party and the Swedish monarchy by 1900. Hjärne had enormous influence on his students and, indeed, on an entire generation of historians, who mostly became political conservatives and nationalists. Another movement emerged at Lund University around 1910, where critical scholars began using the source critics' methods to the early history of Scandinavia. The brothers Lauritz Weibull and Curt Weibull were the leaders, and they had followers at Lund and Göteborg universities. The result was a half-century of often embittered controversy between traditionalists and revisionists that lasted until 1960. There was a blurring of the ideological fronts resulting from experiences during and after World War II. In the meantime, in the general expansion of university education in the postwar period, history was generally neglected. Only through the activities of the National Research Council of the Humanities and the dedicated efforts of certain ambitious university professors created some expansion of historical scholarship. After 1990 there were signs of revival in historiography, with a strong new emphasis on 20th-century topics, as well as the application of social history and computerized statistical techniques to the demographic history of ordinary villagers before 1900.[21]

See also

- Flag of Sweden
- History of Denmark
- History of Europe
- History of the European Union
- History of Finland
- History of Germany
- History of Iceland
- History of Norway
- History of Russia
- History of Scandinavia
- History of Sweden (1772–1809)
- List of Prime Ministers of Sweden
- List of Swedes
- List of Swedish Monarchs
- Military history of Sweden
- Politics of Sweden
- Privy Council of Sweden
- Riksdag of the Estates
- Sami history
- Unions of Sweden
  - Kalmar Union
  - Union between Sweden and Norway

External links

- Historical Monetary Statistics of Sweden 1668-2008 (http://www.riksbank.com/templates/Page.aspx?id=27394)
- History of Sweden: Primary Documents (http://eudocs.lib.byu.edu/index.php/History_of_Sweden:_Primary_Documents)
- Historical Atlas of Sweden (http://www.tacitus.nu/historical-atlas/scandinavia/sweden.htm)
- History of Sweden (http://www.historyofnations.net/europe/sweden.html)
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Monarchy of Sweden

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **monarchy of Sweden** is the constitutional monarchy of the Kingdom of Sweden. The present monarch, Carl XVI Gustaf, has reigned since 15 September 1973. He and his immediate family undertake various official, ceremonial and representational duties. As Sweden is a representative democracy based on a parliamentary system, the monarch has a largely ceremonial role, though officially he or she is head of state and holds the highest public office in Sweden and the highest military and social rank. The Act of Succession of 1810 designates the House of Bernadotte as the Swedish royal house; it also states that the king (and thus implicitly any queen regnant) must be a Protestant Christian.

King of Sweden

MONARCHY

Coat of Arms of Sweden.svg

Coat of arms of Sweden



Incumbent:
Carl XVI Gustaf

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Victoria, Crown Princess of Sweden
First monarch:	Eric the Victorious (first monarch of undisputed historicity)
Formation:	Unknown

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- 2 Head of state
- 3 Full title
- 4 The line of succession
- 5 See also
- 6 References
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History

Sweden has been a kingdom since prehistoric times. As early as the 1st century, Tacitus wrote that the Suiones had a king, but the order of succession to the later historic kings of Sweden is not known, except for what is accounted for in the historically controversial Norse sagas (see Mythical kings of Sweden and Semi-legendary kings of Sweden).

Originally, the Swedish king had little power, and that was restricted to the functions of a warchief, judge and priest at the Temple at Uppsala (see Germanic king). It is a testimony to this lack of influence that there are thousands of runestones commemorating commoners, but no chronicle about the Swedish kings, prior to the 14th century (though a list of kings was added in the Westrogothic law), and only a few runestones that may mention kings: Gs 11 (Emund the Old), U 11 (Haakon the Red) and U 861 (Blot-Sweyn).



The Personal Command Sign of H.M. the King of Sweden



The Royal Standard



kunuki, i.e. *konungi*, the dative case for Old Norse *konungr*, "king". The runic inscription from the 11th century (U11) refers to king Håkan the Red



The Silver Throne, seat of the Swedish monarch since 1650

The power of the king was, however, greatly strengthened by the introduction of Christianity during the 11th century, and the following centuries saw a process of consolidation of power in the hands of the king.

The king was traditionally elected at the Stones of Mora, and the people had the right to both elect the king and to depose him. The stones were, however, destroyed ca 1515.

The office has been hereditary since 1544. The present Bernadotte dynasty was established during the Napoleonic Wars through the Constitution of 1809 and the Act of Succession of 1810, in a bloodless Revolution after present-day Finland, then the eastern half of the Realm, was lost to Russia.

The 19th century Constitution divided the powers of government between the Riksdag and the monarch. Following the breakthrough of Parliamentarism in 1917 the king's powers were considerably reduced, and he became a constitutional monarch with only limited political authority.

Head of state

In 1974 a new Instrument of Government became part of the Constitution which abolished the Privy Council as the government institution and stripped the Monarch of virtually all formal powers, while still retaining him as Head of State. Many of the king's previous political functions were transferred to the Speaker of the Riksdag. The monarch leads the Privy Council in a session that establishes the new government following a general election or cabinet reshuffle. The king also chairs the *Committee for Foreign Affairs* (Utrikesnämnden), a body which serves to officially inform the head of state and the leaders of the opposition of government affairs. Bills passed in the Swedish parliament become law without having to acquire royal assent. Thus, in Sweden, unlike most constitutional monarchies, the Monarch is no longer even the *nominal* chief executive.

Another constitutional reform in 1980 changed the rules for succession to equal primogeniture. This allowed for the crown to pass to the eldest child regardless of gender and thus installed Princess Victoria as heir apparent over her younger brother Prince Carl Philip.

Full title

A simplified title that was sometimes used in less formal circumstances was *Rex Sveciae* or Sveriges Konung, the king of Sweden. The traditional *full* title of the Swedish sovereign was:

> Swedish: *Med Guds Nåde Sveriges, Götes och Vendes Konung* (*"By the Grace of God, King of Sweden, the Goths/Geats and the Wends"*)
> Latin: *Dei Gratia Suecorum, Gothorum et Vandalorum Rex* - sometimes the first part of the Latin title was *Svionum* or

Sveonum, all three words meaning *of the Swedes*, not Sweden.

Before 1818, the King of Sweden had many more titles since the times of Sweden as a great power. As the first king Charles XIV John of the House of Bernadotte acceded the throne in 1818, these extra titles (except the title above) were dropped. This was in coherence with Sweden as a smaller power and with the new more realistic Instrument of Government of 1809, which explicitly in § 46 (http://sv.wikisource.org/wiki/Regeringsform_1809#.C2.A746.) prohibited that any governor general should be appointed in the realm. The Instrument of Government of 1809 was also written in a more analytic and contemporary Swedish language, better defined by the Swedish Academy established 21 years earlier. The abolished titles in 1818 were:

Grand Prince of Finland, Duke of Scania, Estonia, Livonia, Karelia, Bremen, Verden, Stettin, Pomerania, Kashubia and Wendia, Prince of Rügen, Lord of Ingria and Wismar, Count Palatine of the Rhine, Duke of Bavaria, Jülich, Cleves and Berg.

During the reign of the Holstein-Gottorp dynasty (1751-1818) the title *heir of Norway* (Swedish: *Arvinge till Norge*) was added, as also other titles that were connected to the dukes of Holstein-Gottorp. When Norway after the Napoleonic wars was included in a personal union with Sweden, the title *King of Norway* also was included in the title. In older spelling in Swedish the title was *Sweriges, Norriges, Göthes och Wendes Konung*.

The traditional full title first mentioned here had been in use since the establishment of the hereditary monarchy in 1544. For example the title *Vendes Konung* "King of the Wends" started to be used then. However the title *Götes Konung* "King of the Goths", dates back to at least the kings Magnus Ladulås, Erik the Saint and Charles Sverkersson (maybe also Inge the Elder in a letter from the Pope). The title King of the Swedes *Svea Konung*, dates back to those times as well and even further back. This latter title was however already in the 16th century changed to the title *Sveriges Konung*, King of Sweden, and this short form of the title was also used frequently. Carl XVI Gustaf instead chose the plain and simple title *King of Sweden* (Swedish: *Sveriges Konung*), thereby ending an age-old tradition.[1]

Such innovations are reflected in his personal motto *För Sverige, i tiden*, "For Sweden, with the times" and also contemporarily in the neighbouring countries: Queen Margrethe II did the same in Denmark in 1972 and in Norway the monarch has no extra titles except "King of Norway".

The line of succession

Main article: Line of succession to the Swedish throne

Present monarch: His Majesty King Carl XVI Gustaf (since September 15, 1973), born 1946

1. HRH Crown Princess Victoria, Duchess of Västergötland, daughter of the King, born 1977
2. HRH Princess Estelle, Duchess of Östergötland, daughter of the Crown Princess, born 2012
3. HRH Prince Carl Philip, Duke of Värmland, son of the King, born 1979
4. HRH Princess Madeleine, Duchess of Hälsingland and Gästrikland, daughter of the King, born 1982

See also

- List of Swedish governments
- List of Swedish monarchs
- Royal mottos of Swedish monarchs
- Swedish monarchs family tree
- Swedish Royal Family

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1. ^ **(Swedish)** SFS (1973:702) (http://62.95.69.15/cgi-bin /thw?${HTML}=sfst_lst&${OOHTML}=sfst_dok&${SNHTML}=sfst_err&${BASE}=SFST&${TRIPSHOW}=format=THW&BET=1973:702$)

Carl XVI Gustaf of Sweden

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Carl XVI Gustaf (full name: *Carl Gustaf Folke Hubertus*, born 30 April 1946) is the reigning King of Sweden since 15 September 1973, succeeding his grandfather King Gustaf VI Adolf. He is the only son of the late Prince Gustaf Adolf, Duke of Västerbotten, who died in 1947, and Princess Sibylla of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

Unlike many other European monarchs who have extensive styles, King Carl Gustaf's formal and complete style is simply *His Majesty Carl XVI Gustaf, King of Sweden*. The King's heir apparent, upon passage on 1 January 1980 of a new law establishing absolute primogeniture (the first such law passed in European history), is Crown Princess Victoria, the eldest child of the King and his wife, Queen Silvia. He is also 203rd in the line of succession to the British and other Commonwealth thrones.

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Carl XVI Gustaf



King Carl XVI Gustaf at the National Day Celebration, Stockholm, Sweden 6 June 2009

	King of Sweden
Reign	15 September 1973 – present
Enthronement	19 September 1973
Predecessor	Gustaf VI Adolf
Heir apparent	Crown Princess Victoria
Consort	Queen Silvia, née Sommerlath
Issue	
Victoria, Crown Princess of Sweden Prince Carl Philip, Duke of Värmland Princess Madeleine, Duchess of Hälsingland and Gästrikland	
Full name	
Carl Gustaf Folke Hubertus	
House	House of Bernadotte
Father	Prince Gustav Adolf, Duke of Västerbotten
Mother	Princess Sibylla of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Born	30 April 1946 Haga Palace, Sweden
Signature	
Religion	Lutheran (Church of Sweden)

Birth and early life

Carl Gustaf was born at then Haga Palace, Solna, in Stockholm County. He was christened at the Royal Chapel on June 7, 1946 by the Archbishop of Uppsala, Erling Eidem. His godparents were Crown Prince Frederick of Denmark, Crown Princess Ingrid of Denmark,

Crown Prince Olav of Norway, Crown Princess Juliana of the Netherlands, King Gustaf V of Sweden, Prince Friedrich Josias of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, Crown Prince Gustaf Adolf of Sweden, Crown Princess Louise of Sweden, Count Folke Bernadotte af Wisborg, and the Countess Maria Bernadotte af Wisborg.

Prince Carl Gustaf was also given the title of the Duke of Jämtland.

His father, Prince Gustaf Adolf, was killed in an airplane crash on January 26, 1947, at the Copenhagen Airport.

Youth and education

Prince Carl Gustaf was the youngest of five children and the only son of Sweden's Prince Gustaf Adolf and Princess Sibylla. His father's death had left the nine-month-old Prince second in line for the throne, behind his grandfather, then Crown Prince Gustaf Adolf. When his great-grandfather King Gustaf V died in 1950, the four-year-old Prince became the heir apparent of Sweden.

In a speech[1] in 2005, the King expressed some of his feelings about growing up without having known his father. His sister, Princess Birgitta, elaborated on these feelings in an interview around the same time, commenting that their mother and the strict Swedish royal court of the time did not consider the emotional needs of Prince Gustaf Adolf's children. In that era, she said, tragedy was seldom discussed with children. "Children's questions were met with silence, children's anxiety and fear with the same silence."

As a result, Crown Prince Carl Gustaf was seven years old before he had been told about his father's death. "It was Mother's way of handling the situation, to handle living her life. Of course it was not good for us children. It would have been much better to be able to speak about Father's death", continued Princess Birgitta. She said it had been difficult for the future King to come to grips with not having a father and of not having the same memories of him as his older sisters.



The 15 year old Crown Prince of Sweden looks at the recently recovered 17th century Vasa warship in 1961.

After graduating from high school, the Crown Prince completed two and a half years of education in the Royal Swedish Army, the Royal Swedish Navy, and the Royal Swedish Air Force. He received his commission as an officer in all three services in 1968, and he eventually rose to the rank of captain (in the army and air force) and lieutenant (in the navy), before he ascended to the throne. He has also completed his academic studies in history, sociology, political science, tax law, and economics at Uppsala University and Stockholm University.

To prepare for his role as the Head of State, Crown Prince Carl Gustaf followed a broad program of studies on the court system, social organizations and institutions, trade unions, and employers' associations. In addition, he closely studied the affairs of the Parliament of Sweden, Government, and Ministry for Foreign Affairs. The Crown Prince also spent time at the Swedish Mission to the United Nations and the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA), worked at a bank in London, at the Swedish Embassy in London, at the Swedish Chamber of Commerce in France, and at the Alfa Laval Company factory in France.

Swedish Royal Family



HM The King
HM The Queen

- HRH The Crown Princess
  HRH The Duke of Västergötland
  - HRH The Duchess of Östergötland
- HRH The Duke of Värmland
- HRH The Duchess of Hälsingland and Gästrikland

HRH Princess Birgitta

HRH The Duchess of Halland

Monarchical styles of
King Carl XVI Gustaf of Sweden



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	Sire

King

On September 15, 1973, Carl Gustaf became King of Sweden upon the death of his grandfather, King Gustaf VI Adolf. He was invested as King, at the Hall of State of the Royal Palace of Stockholm on 19 September 1973. King Gustaf VI Adolf was the last who used the style *By the Grace of God King of the Swedes, the Goths/Geats and the Wends* (Swedish: *med Guds Nåde Sveriges, Götes och Wendes Konung*; Latin: *Dei Gratia Suecorum, Gothorum et Vandalorum Rex*). This traditional title had been in use since the establishment of the hereditary monarchy in 1544. Carl XVI Gustaf instead chose the plain and simple title *King of Sweden* (Swedish: *Sveriges Konung*), thereby ending a tradition centuries old.[2]

Such innovations are reflected in his personal motto, "For Sweden – With the times"[3] (Swedish: *"För Sverige – I tiden"*).[4]

In 2005, King Carl Gustav made a personal and passionate speech about the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, a disaster which caused the death of over 500 Swedes in that area, in addition to tens of thousands of more people.

Regnal name

In the 16th century, Johannes Magnus construed a mythical line of Swedish kings, beginning with Magog, the son of Japheth, in an attempt to substantiate the antiquity of the Swedish throne. Based on that list, King Charles IX (reigned 1604 to 1611) adopted an exaggerated ordinal much higher than that warranted by any reliable historical accounting. Consequently, previous monarchs named Charles (Karl) have traditionally been numbered by counting backwards from Charles IX, though there only were two before him. Thus the current King of Sweden was proclaimed as Carl XVI Gustaf (sometimes counted in English also as "Charles XVI", though he is never called that) even though he is only the tenth historical Swedish king named Carl (Karl, or Charles).[5]



Royal Monogram

Official duties

The King's duties are, according to the 1974 Instrument of Government, only of a representative and ceremonial nature. The 1974 document stripped the King of most of his formal political powers while retaining him as head of state, thus codifying actual practices dating from the definitive establishment of parliamentary government in 1917.

He pays State Visits abroad and receives those to Sweden, opens the Annual Session of the Parliament, chairs the Special Council held during a change of Government, holds regular Information Councils with the Prime Minister & the Cabinet, chairs the meetings of the Foreign Affairs Council, and receives and signs Letters of Credence of foreign ambassadors to Sweden and signs those of Sweden to foreign nations. As this type of figurehead, he also voluntarily abstains from voting in Swedish elections.[6]


The King and Queen of Sweden welcomed at the Kremlin by President Vladimir Putin of the Russian Federation and Mrs. Putin at the start of the King's State Visit to Russia, October 8, 2001.

King Carl Gustav (ceremonially) holds the highest ranks in the three branches of the Swedish Armed Forces; this is due to the fact that he was, as stipulated by the 1809 Instrument of Government in effect at the time of his accession to the throne in 1973, the Commander in Chief of the armed forces of Sweden (§ 14) and therefore he was promoted *ex officio* from his earlier ranks of captain and lieutenant, to general and admiral. Under the provisions of the Instrument of Government of 1974, which became effective on January 1, 1975, King Carl Gustav no longer holds this constitutionally-mandated position of commander-in-chief, but he kept his ranks *à la suite* since he no longer has any military command authority, except over his military staff at his court.

Worldwide, Carl XVI Gustaf is probably best known as the presenter of the Nobel Prizes each year. He also hands over the Polar Music Prize. The King holds honorary doctoral degrees from the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, the Royal Institute of Technology, the Stockholm School of Economics and from the Åbo Akademi University in Finland.

Personal interests

The King is passionate about the environment, technology, agriculture, trade, and industry.

Like many members of the Royal Family, the King has a keen interest in automobiles. He owns several Porsche 911s — a car model which is said to be a particular favourite of the King — as well as a vintage Volvo PV444, a Ferrari 456M GT, an authentic AC Cobra and other cars.[7] The first pictures taken of him and his future wife were of them sitting in his Porsche 911. In the summer of 2005 he was involved in a traffic accident in Norrköping. The accident was described as a "fender bender", with no serious personal injuries claimed. Nevertheless, the incident caused national headlines.[8]

Scouting

The King is the Honorary Chairman of the World Scout Foundation, and often participates in Scout activities both in Sweden and abroad. He regularly visits World Scout Jamborees, for instance the 1979 Dalajamb World Jamboree International Encampment hosted by Sweden, the 2002 World Jamboree held in Sattahip, Thailand, and the 100th Anniversary of World Scouting 2007 World Jamboree held in Hylands Park, England.[9] He also attended the 1981 National Scout Jamboree in Virginia, United States, and was awarded the Bronze Wolf, the only distinction of the World Organization of the Scout Movement, awarded by the World Scout Committee for exceptional services to world Scouting, in 1982. He also attended the 22nd World Scout Jamboree. He gave a speech on the 6th of August at the closing ceremony with more than 40,000 people watching. The band Europe also performed for him singing "The Final Countdown".

Biofuels research

The King attended the Sweden-Michigan Clean Energy Summit at the Ritz-Carlton Hotel in Dearborn, Michigan, on 26 September 2008, at the start of a two-day visit to Michigan. He also traveled to Kettering University in Flint, Michigan, for the ceremonial groundbreaking for a biogas plant that will be, when completed, similar to a biogas plant in Linköping, Sweden. On the second day of his visit he toured the test tracks of the Ford Motor Company and General Motors Corporation, then owners of Volvo and Saab respectively.[10]

Marriage and family


Carl XVI Gustaf with Queen Silvia

The King married Silvia Sommerlath, whose father was German and whose mother was Brazilian, and who had grown up in both countries. They met at the 1972 Summer Olympics in Munich, where she was an interpreter and hostess. The wedding was held on June 19, 1976, at the Stockholm Cathedral, and the ceremony was performed by the Archbishop of Uppsala, Olof Sundby. The wedding was preceded, the evening before, by a Royal Variety Performance, where the Swedish musical group ABBA performed *Dancing Queen* for the very first time, as a tribute to Sweden's Queen to be.[11][12] The King and his family moved to Drottningholm Palace west of Stockholm in 1980. He and the Queen have maintained their business offices at the Royal Palace of Stockholm.

King Carl Gustav and Queen Silvia have three children:

- *Her Royal Highness* Crown Princess **Victoria** Ingrid Alice Désirée, Duchess of Västergötland, born on July 14, 1977. She was married on June 19, 2010, to Daniel Westling, who was born on September 15, 1973, (on the same day that Carl Gustav received the Swedish crown).
- *His Royal Highness* Prince **Carl Philip** Edmund Bertil, Duke of Värmland, born on May 13, 1979.
- *Her Royal Highness* Princess **Madeleine** Thérèse Amelie Josephine, Duchess of Hälsingland and Gästrikland, born on June 10, 1982.

Prince Carl Philip was born the heir apparent. However, a Constitutional reform, which was already under way at the time of his birth, made his older sister, Victoria, the heiress-apparent and Crown Princess of Sweden on January 1, 1980, according

to the principles of absolute primogeniture, which Sweden was the first recognized monarchy to adopt.[13] King Carl Gustaf objected, not to the restored female succession but to the fact that his son lost the position and title of Crown Prince of Sweden which he had had since birth.[14]

Dyslexia

For many years, it was widely reported that King Carl Gustav had dyslexia. Journalists noted that he misspelled his name when signing his accession document, and in 1973, while visiting a copper mine in Falun, he misspelled his name as "Cal Gustf" when signing it on a rock wall. In an interview on Swedish television in 1997, this condition was admitted publicly when his wife addressed the issue. "When he was little, people did not pay attention to the problem," she said. "He didn't get the help he needed." She also noted that the couple's children have "a bit of" dyslexia themselves.

Titles, styles,honours and arms

Title and styles

- **30 April 1946 - 7 June 1946:** *His Royal Highness* Carl Gustaf, Hereditary Prince (*sv. Arvprins*) of Sweden
- **7 June 1946 - 29 October 1950:** *His Royal Highness* Carl Gustaf, Hereditary Prince of Sweden, Duke of Jämtland
- **29 October 1950 - 15 September 1973:** *His Royal Highness* Carl Gustaf, Crown Prince of Sweden, Duke of Jämtland
- **15 September 1973 – present:** *His Majesty* Carl XVI Gustaf, King of Sweden

Carl XVI Gustaf's current title is *King of Sweden* with the style *His Majesty*. He is usually in contemporary Swedish language use and society referred to as simply "the King" (Swedish: *Kungen*). In formal events and matters of protocol, he is however referred to as "Your Majesty" (Swedish: *Ers Majestät*) or "His Majesty the King" (Swedish: *Hans Majestät Konungen*).

The Regal Assurance taken by His Majesty King Carl XVI Gustaf on September 19, 1973

Administered by Mr. Lennart Geijer, Councillor of State and Head of the Ministry for Justice

Unofficial English language translation

"We, Carl Gustaf, King of Sweden make known: that as our Supreme God has pleased to call away the formerly mighty, high-born Prince and Lord, Gustaf VI Adolf, King of the Swedes, the Goths and the Wends, and We, according to, and by authority of, the Act of Succession, as established and enacted by the Estates of the Realm on September 26, 1810, following the illustrious Lord, have ascended to the Royal Swedish Throne.

Therefore We assure most solemnly and loudly, that We intend to and shall Govern the Realm in accordance with the on June 6, 1809 by the King and the Estates of the Realm, jointly enacted and for observance issued Instrument of Government, literal direction abide, and to the other Fundamental Laws of the Realm, public laws and legal ordinances.

We shall also, conform to the before mentioned Instrument of Government and laws, as a resolute King and a caring father for the Swedish people, throughout a legal, just and lenient Reign, seek to by Our utmost ability to advocate the veritable interests and welfare of the Realm and that of each of its inhabitants, all of which We by free will and following mature consideration have decided to do, We thus confirm this by the written signature of Our name, and by a lively oath, that this We shall adhere to and carry out, so truly help me God to life and mind."

Arms

On his creation as Duke of Jämtland, Carl XVI Gustaf was granted an achievement of arms which featured the arms of Jämtland in base (these arms can be seen on his stallplate as knight of the Danish Order of the Elephant at Frederiksborg Palace). Since his accession to the throne, he has used the greater coat of arms of Sweden.



Arms of Carl XVI Gustaf from 1946 to his accession to the throne, as Duke of Jämtland.

	Arms used since his accession to the throne.

Swedish appointments and honours

- Lord and Master (and Knight) of the Order of the Seraphim
- Lord and Master (and Commander Grand Cross) of the Order of the Polar Star
- Lord and Master (and Commander Grand Cross) of the Order of the Sword
- Lord and Master (and Commander Grand Cross) of the Order of Vasa
- Lord and Master (and Knight) of the Order of Charles XIII

Foreign honours

- Austria: Grand Star of the Decoration of Honour for Services to the Republic of Austria
- Belgium: Grand Cordon of the Order of Leopold
- Brazil: Grand Collar of the Order of the Southern Cross
- Commonwealth realms: Recipient of the Royal Victorian Chain
- Denmark: Knight with Collar of the Order of the Elephant
- Denmark: Grand Commander of the Order of the Dannebrog
- England: Stranger Knight of the Order of the Garter (967th member)
- Estonia: Collar of the Order of the Cross of Terra Mariana
- Finland: Grand Cross of the Order of the White Rose
- France: Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour
- Germany: Grand Cross of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany
- Greece: Grand Cross of the Order of the Redeemer
- Iceland: Grand cross with Collar of the Order of the Falcon
- Japan: Collar of the Order of the Chrysanthemum
- Latvia: Commander Grand Cross with Chain of the Order of Three Stars (1995)
- Lithuania: Grand Cross of the Order of Vytautas the Great
- Luxembourg: Grand Cross of the Order of the Gold Lion of the House of Nassau
- Malaysia: Knight of the Order of the Crown of the Realm [15][16]
- Mexico: Collar of the Order of the Aztec Eagle
- Netherlands: Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion
- Netherlands: Grand Cross of the Order of the House of Orange
- Norway: Grand Cross with collar of the Royal Norwegian Order of St. Olav
- Poland: Grand Cross of the Order of the White Eagle
- Portugal: Grand Collar of the Order of Prince Henry (1987)
- Portugal: Grand Collar of the Order of Saint James of the Sword (2008) [17]
- Romania: Sash Rank of the Star of Romania
- Spain: Knight of the Order of the Golden Fleece (1,183rd member)
- Spain: Grand Cross Collar of the Order of Charles III
- Thailand: Knight of the Order of the Rajamitrabhorn
- Thailand: Member of the Order of Ramkeerati
- Ukraine: Member of the Order of Liberty
- Ukraine: The First Class of the Order of Prince Yaroslav the Wise

Honorary military positions

- Honorary Admiral, British Royal Navy (Seniority: June 25, 1975)[18]

Patronages

- African Medical and Research Foundation Sweden (AMREF)
- Allmänna Idrottsklubben (AIK)
- Barnens Dags Riksförbund
- Centralföreningen för Idrottens Främjande i Sverige
- Djurgårdens Hembygdsförening
- Friends of the Nationalmuseum
- Friends of the Swedish Museum of Natural History
- Friluftsfrämjandet
- Föreningen Svenska Atheninstitutets Vänner
- Föreningen Konstnärernas Vänner
- Föreningen för Svenskar i Världen
- Gastronomiska Akademien
- Gripsholmsföreningen
- Idrottsföreningen Kamraterna (IFK)
- Kulturen i Lund
- Kungl. Automobil Klubben
- Kungl. Motorbåt Klubben
- Kungl. Svenska Aeroklubben
- Kungl. Svenska Segel Sällskapet
- Riksföreningen mot Cancer
- Royal Physiographic Society in Lund
- Royal Society of Sciences and Letters in Gothenburg
- Royal Society of Sciences in Uppsala
- Royal Swedish Academy
- Royal Swedish Academy of Agriculture and Forestry
- Royal Swedish Academy of Arts
- Royal Swedish Academy of Engineering Sciences
- Royal Swedish Academy of Letters, History and Antiquities
- Royal Swedish Academy of Music
- Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences
- Royal Swedish Society of Naval Sciences
- Royal Swedish Academy of War Sciences
- Save the Visby Ringwall Campaign
- Stiftelsen Det Naturliga Steget
- Stiftelsen Drottningholmsteaterns Vänner
- Stiftelsen Håll Sverige Rent
- Stiftelsen Stockholm Water Foundation
- Stiftelsen Svenska Flaggan
- Stiftelsen Svensk Våtmarksfond
- Stockholms Konserthusstiftelse
- Stockholms Studentsångarförbund
- Svea Orden
- Svenska Arkeologiska Samfundet
- Svenska Blå Stjärnan
- Svenska Djurskyddsföreningen
- Svenska Jägareförbundet
- Svenska Kennelklubben
- Svenska Livräddningssällskapet - Simfrämjandet
- Svenska Motionsdagen (Korpen Svenska Motionsidrottsförbundet)
- Svenska Rominstitutets Vänner
- Svenska Turistföreningen
- Svenska Scoutförbundet och Svenska Scoutrådet
- Svenska Sällskapet för Antropologi och Geografi
- Sverige-Amerika Stiftelsen
- Sveriges Allmänna Konstförening
- Sveriges Hembygdsförbund
- Sveriges Skogsvårdsförbund
- Swedish Bible Society
- Swedish Lions
- Swedish Red Cross
- Swedish Rotary
- Swedish Sports Confederation
- Sångsällskapet Orphei Drängar
- The American-Scandinavian Foundation
- Wilhelm Peterson-Berger Society
- World Scout Foundation
- World Wide Fund for Nature Sweden (WWF)
- Östasiatiska Museets Vänner

Kinship with European counterparts

The King is related to all current European reigning monarchs (at least through John William Friso, Prince of Orange, the most recent common ancestor of today's reigning European royal houses):

Monarch	closest degree of kinship	closest common ancestors
Queen Margrethe II of Denmark	first cousin	King Gustaf VI Adolf of Sweden and Princess Margaret of Connaught
King Albert II of Belgium	second cousin once removed	King Oscar II of Sweden and Norway and Princess Sophia of Nassau
King Harald V of Norway	second cousin once removed	King Oscar II of Sweden and Norway and Princess Sophia of Nassau
Queen Elizabeth II of the United	third cousin (twice)	Queen Victoria of the United Kingdom and Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha

Kingdom		
King Juan Carlos I of Spain	third cousin (twice)	Queen Victoria of the United Kingdom and Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha
Queen Beatrix of the Netherlands	third cousin	George Victor, Prince of Waldeck and Pyrmont and Princess Helena of Nassau
Grand Duke Henri of Luxembourg	third cousin	King Oscar II of Sweden and Norway and Princess Sophia of Nassau
Prince Hans-Adam II of Liechtenstein	sixth cousin	Prince Karl Ludwig of Hohenlohe-Langenburg and Countess Amalie of Solms-Baruth
Prince Albert II of Monaco	seventh cousin	Charles Louis, Hereditary Prince of Baden and Landgravine Amalie of Hesse-Darmstadt

Ancestors

Patrilineal descent

Matrilineal descent

See also

- Swedish Royal Family
- Carl XVI Gustaf's ancestors
- List of state visits made by King Carl XVI Gustaf of Sweden
- List of national leaders

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14. ^ Aftonbladet 2003-11-24 (http://www.aftonbladet.se/nyheter/article10414639.ab)
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17. ^ Portuguese Presidency (http://www.ordens.presidencia.pt/?idc=147&idi=169) , King Carl XVI receives the Grand Collar of the Order of Saint James of the Sword and Queen Silvia receives the Grand Cross of the Order of Prince Henry.
18. ^ Second Supplement to (http://www.london-gazette.co.uk/issues/46627/supplements/8697) The London Gazette, No. 46627 Monday, 7 July 1975, Retrieved January 18, 2010.

External links

- Ancestry of Queen Silvia of Sweden (http://www.wargs.com/royal/silvia.html)
- Royal Court of Sweden (http://www.royalcourt.se/royalcourt.4.367010ad11497db6cba800054503.html) - Official site
- UNSG Ban Ki-Moon Lays Wreath Honouring (http://www.unmultimedia.org/photo/detail/416/0416742.html) Dag Hammarskjöld of 1 October 2009 and UN Secretary-General with King Carl XVI Gustaf of Sweden (http://www.unmultimedia.org/photo/detail/416/0416741.html)

Carl XVI Gustaf **House of Bernadotte** **Born:** 30 April 1946		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Gustaf VI Adolf**	**King of Sweden** 1973 – present	**Incumbent** *Heir:* *Victoria*
Swedish royalty		
Preceded by **Gustaf Adolf, Duke of Skåne**	**Heir to the Swedish throne** 1950–1973	Succeeded by **Bertil, Duke of Halland** **as heir presumptive**
Preceded by **Gustaf Adolf, Duke of Skåne**	**Crown Prince of Sweden** 1950–1973	**Vacant** Title next held by **Carl Philip,** **Duke of Värmland**
British royalty		
Preceded by **Alexis Broschek**	**Line of succession to the British throne**	Succeeded by **Carl Philip**

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Recipients of the Order of Vytautas the Great | Grand Crosses of the Order of the Gold Lion of the House of Nassau | Recipients of the Order of the Crown of the Realm | Collars of the Order of the Aztec Eagle | Recipients of the Collar of the Order of the White Star | Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion | Grand Collars of the Order of Prince Henry | Grand Collars of the Order of Saint James of the Sword | Grand Crosses with Collar of the Order of Charles III | Members of the Order of Symbolic Propitiousness Ramkeerati | Recipients of the Order of Liberty (Ukraine) | Recipients of the Order of Prince Yaroslav the Wise | Recipients of the Bronze Wolf Award | Uppsala University alumni | Current national leaders | Scouting and Guiding in Sweden | Swedish monarchs of German descent | 1946 births | Living people | Grand Crosses of the Order of the Tower and Sword

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House of Bernadotte

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Bernadotte**, the current royal house of Sweden, has reigned since 1818. Between 1818 and 1905, it was also the royal house of Norway. Its founder, Charles XIV John of Sweden, was adopted by Charles XIII of Sweden, who belonged to the House of Holstein-Gottorp which was becoming extinct.

Contents

- 1 History
- 2 Kings of Sweden
- 3 Kings of Norway
- 4 See also
- 5 Sources
- 6 External links

History

Following the Finnish War in 1809, Sweden lost possession of Finland, which had constituted the eastern half of the Swedish realm for centuries. Resentment towards King Gustav IV Adolf precipitated a *coup d'état*. Gustav Adolf was deposed and his uncle Charles XIII was elected King in his place. Because Charles XIII was childless, in 1810 the Riksdag of the Estates, the Swedish parliament, elected Prince Christian August of Augustenborg, from Denmark, as heir to the throne. He died later that same year.

At this time, Emperor Napoleon

Swedish Royalty
House of Bernadotte



Charles XIV John

Children

Oscar I

Oscar I

Children

Charles XV

Gustaf, Duke of Upland

Oscar II

Princess Eugenie

August, Duke of Dalarna

Charles XV

Children

Lovisa, Queen of Denmark

Carl Oscar, Duke of Södermanland

Oscar II

Children

Gustaf V

Oscar, Duke of Gotland

Eugén, Duke of Närke

Carl, Duke of Västergötland

Grandchildren

Princess Margaretha

Märtha, Crown Princess of Norway

House of Bernadotte



Country	Sweden, Norway
Titles	▪ King of Sweden ▪ King of Norway
Founder	Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte
Final sovereign	Norway: Oscar II
Current head	Carl XVI Gustaf of Sweden
Founding	1810
Deposition	Norway: 1905: Dissolution of the union between Sweden and Norway

I of France controlled much of continental Europe, and some of his client kingdoms were headed by his brothers. The Riksdag decided to choose a king whom Napoleon would approve. On 21 August 1810, the Riksdag elected Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte, a Marshal of France, as heir presumptive to the Swedish throne.

Bernadotte, born in the town of Pau, in the province of Béarn, France, had risen to the rank of general during the French Revolution. In 1798 he married Désirée Clary, whose sister was married to Joseph, Napoleon's elder brother. In 1804 Napoleon promoted Bernadotte to a Marshal of France. Napoleon also granted him the title 'Prince of Pontecorvo', a town in central Italy.

As the Crown Prince of Sweden he assumed the name Karl Johan (*Charles John*) and acted as regent for the remainder of Charles XIII's reign. In 1813, he broke with Napoleon and Sweden joined the anti-Napoleon alliance. He secured a forced personal union between Sweden and Norway in the 1814 campaign against Norway. Bernadotte reigned as King Charles XIV of Sweden and Carl III Johan of Norway from 5 February 1818 until his death on 8 March 1844.

The House of Bernadotte reigned in both countries until the Dissolution of the union between Norway and Sweden in 1905. Prince Carl of Denmark was then elected as King Haakon VII of Norway. Carl was a grandson of King Charles XV of Sweden, and a great-great-grandson of Charles XIV.

The coat of arms of the House of Bernadotte combines the coat of arms of the House of Vasa (*heraldic left*) and

Astrid, Queen of Belgium
Carl, Duke of Östergötland
Gustaf V
Children
Gustaf VI Adolf
Vilhelm, Duke of Södermanland
Erik, Duke of Västmanland
Gustaf VI Adolf
Children
Gustaf Adolf, Duke of Västerbotten
Sigvard, Duke of Uppland
Ingrid, Queen of Denmark
Bertil, Duke of Halland
Carl Johan, Duke of Dalarna
Grandchildren
Princess Margaretha
Princess Birgitta
Princess Désirée
Princess Christina
Carl XVI Gustaf
Carl XVI Gustaf
Children
Crown Princess Victoria
Carl Philip, Duke of Värmland
Madeleine, Duchess of Hälsingland and Gästrikland
Grandchildren
Estelle, Duchess of Östergötland

the coat of arms of Bernadotte as the Prince of Pontecorvo (*heraldic right*). It is visible as an inescutcheon in the Greater Coat of Arms of the Realm.

Kings of Sweden

- 1818–1844 : Charles XIV John (Karl XIV Johan)
- 1844–1859 : Oscar I
- 1859–1872 : Charles XV (Karl XV)
- 1872–1907 : Oscar II
- 1907–1950 : Gustaf V
- 1950–1973 : Gustaf VI Adolf
- 1973–present : Carl XVI Gustaf

Kings of Norway

- 1818–1844 : Charles III John
- 1844–1859 : Oscar I
- 1859–1872 : Charles IV
- 1872–1905 : Oscar II

See also

- Guadeloupe Fund
- Bernadotte af Wisborg
- Swedish Act of Succession
- Line of succession to the Swedish throne

Sources

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External links

- The Bernadotte Dynasty family tree on Kindo (http://kindo.com/en/famous-people/swedish-royal-family-family-tree/swedish-royal-family.html)

<table>
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House of Bernadotte</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Preceded by
House of Holstein-Gottorp</td><td>Ruling House of the Kingdom of Sweden
1818—present</td><td>Succeeded by
Incumbent</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ruling House of the Kingdom of Norway
1818—1905</td><td>Succeeded by
House of Oldenburg (Glücksburg branch)</td></tr>
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Liechtenstein

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Liechtenstein, officially the **Principality of Liechtenstein** (/ˈlɪktənstaɪn/ *lik-tən-styn*; German: *Fürstentum Liechtenstein*, German pronunciation: [ˈfʏʁstn̩tuːm ˈlɪçtn̩ʃtaɪn][8]) is a doubly landlocked alpine country in Central Europe,[9] bordered by Switzerland to the west and south and by Austria to the east. Its area is just over 160 square kilometres (62 sq mi), and it has an estimated population of 35,000. Its capital is Vaduz. The biggest town is Schaan. Liechtenstein has the second highest gross domestic product per person in the world when adjusted by purchasing power parity,[10] and has the world's lowest external debt. Liechtenstein also has the second lowest unemployment rate in the world at 1.5% (Monaco is first).

Liechtenstein is the smallest yet the richest (by measure of GDP per capita) German-speaking country in the world and the only country to lie entirely within the Alps. It is known as a *principality* as it is a constitutional monarchy headed by a prince. Liechtenstein is divided into 11 municipalities. Much of its terrain is mountainous, making it a winter sports destination. Many cultivated fields and small farms characterize its landscape both in the south (Oberland, *upper land*) and in the north (Unterland, *lower land*). The country has a strong financial sector located in the capital, Vaduz, and has been identified as a tax haven. It is a member of the European Free Trade Association and part of the European Economic Area, the Schengen Area but not of the European Union.

The tune of the Liechtenstein national anthem is the same as the one of the United Kingdom although the lyrics are different.

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Principality of Liechtenstein
Fürstentum Liechtenstein



Flag

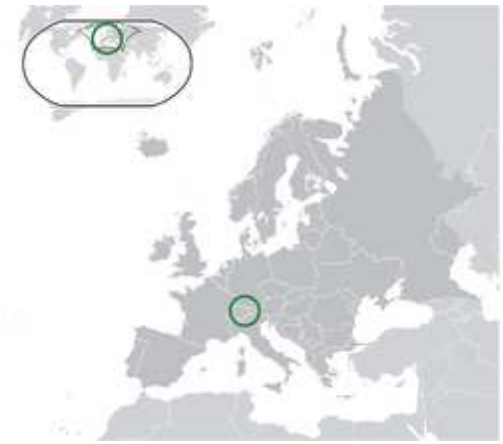


Coat of arms

Motto: Für Gott, Fürst und Vaterland
For God, Prince and Fatherland

Anthem:

Oben am jungen Rhein
"Up on the Young Rhine"



Location of **Liechtenstein** (green)
in Europe (dark grey) — [Legend]



Location of **Liechtenstein** (green)

Capital	Vaduz 47°08.5′N 9°31.4′E
Largest city	Schaan

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Official language(s)	German
Demonym	Liechtensteiner (male), Liechtensteinerin (female)
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy
- Prince	Hans-Adam II
- Regent	Alois
- Prime Minister	Klaus Tschütscher
- Landtag Speaker	Arthur Brunhart
Independence as principality	
- Treaty of Pressburg	1806
- Independence from the German Confederation	1866
Area	
- Total	160 km^2 (215th) 61 sq mi
- Water (%)	negligible[1]
Population	
- 2010 estimate	36,010[2] (209th)
- 2000 census	33,307[3]
- Density	224/km^2 (57th) 581/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2009 estimate
- Total	$3.409 billion[4][5] (163rd)
- Per capita	$95,249[4][5][6] (2nd)
GDP (nominal)	2009 estimate
- Total	$4.797 billion[4][5] (147th)
- Per capita	$134,045[4][5][6] (2nd)
HDI (2010)	▲ 0.905[7] (very high) (8th)
Currency	Swiss franc (CHF)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	LI
Internet TLD	.li
Calling code	+423

History

Main article: History of Liechtenstein



The castle of Gutenberg in Balzers



Vaduz Castle, overlooking the capital, is still home to the Prince of Liechtenstein

At one time, the territory was part of the ancient Roman province of Raetia. For centuries this territory, geographically removed from European strategic interests, had little impact on European history. Prior to the reign of its current dynasty, the region was enfeoffed to a line of the counts of Hohenems.

The Liechtenstein dynasty, from which the principality takes its name, comes from Castle Liechtenstein in Lower Austria, which the family possessed from at least 1140 until the 13th century, and from 1807 onward. Through the centuries, the dynasty acquired vast tracts of land, predominantly in Moravia, Lower Austria, Silesia, and Styria, though these territories were all held in fief under other more senior feudal lords, particularly under various lines of the Habsburg family, whom several Liechtenstein princes served as close advisers. Thus, without any territory held directly under the Imperial throne, the Liechtenstein dynasty was


Johann I Josef, Prince of Liechtenstein

unable to meet a primary requirement to qualify for a seat in the Imperial diet (parliament), the *Reichstag*.

The family yearned for the added power a seat in the Imperial government would bring and therefore sought to acquire lands that would be *unmittelbar*, or held without any feudal personage other than the Holy Roman Emperor having rights on the land. After some time, the family was able to arrange the purchase of the minuscule *Herrschaft* ("Lordship") of Schellenberg and county of Vaduz (in 1699 and 1712 respectively) from the Hohenems. Tiny Schellenberg and Vaduz had exactly the political status required: no feudal lord other than their comital sovereign and the suzerain Emperor.

On 23 January 1719, after the lands had been purchased, Charles VI, Holy Roman Emperor, decreed that Vaduz and Schellenberg were united and elevated the newly formed territory to the dignity of *Fürstentum* (*principality*) with the name "Liechtenstein" in honour of "[his] true servant, Anton Florian of Liechtenstein". It was on this date that Liechtenstein became a sovereign member state of the Holy Roman Empire. It is a testament to the pure political expediency of the purchases that the Princes of Liechtenstein did not set foot in their new principality for over 120 years.

As a result of the Napoleonic Wars, by 1806 much of the Holy Roman Empire was under the effective control of French emperor Napoleon I. When the empire was dissolved, this had broad consequences for Liechtenstein: imperial, legal and political mechanisms broke down. The state ceased to owe obligations to any feudal lord beyond its borders.

Modern publications generally attribute Liechtenstein's *sovereignty* to these events. Its prince ceased to owe obligations to any suzerain. From 25 July 1806 when the Confederation of the Rhine was founded, the Prince of Liechtenstein was a member, in fact a vassal of its hegemon, styled *protector*, the French Emperor Napoleon I, until the dissolution of the confederation on 19 October 1813.

Soon afterward, Liechtenstein joined the German Confederation (20 June 1815 – 24 August 1866) which was presided over by the Emperor of Austria.

Then, in 1818, Johann I granted the territory a limited constitution. 1818 also saw the first visit of a member of the house of Liechtenstein, Prince Alois; however, the first visit by a sovereign prince would not occur until 1842.

Developments during the 19th century included:

- In 1836, the first factory was opened, making ceramics.
- In 1861, the Savings and Loans Bank was founded, as was the first cotton-weaving mill.
- Two bridges over the Rhine were built in 1868, and in 1872 a railway line across Liechtenstein was constructed.

20th century

Until the end of World War I, Liechtenstein was closely tied first to the Austrian Empire and later to Austria-Hungary; the ruling princes continued to derive much of their wealth from estates in the Habsburg territories, and they spent much of their time at their two palaces in Vienna. The economic devastation caused by this war

forced the country to conclude a customs and monetary union with its other neighbour, Switzerland. Liechtenstein's army was disbanded in 1868 for financial reasons.

At the time of the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, it was argued that Liechtenstein, as a fief of the Holy Roman Empire, was no longer bound to the emerging independent state of Austria, since the latter did not consider itself as the legal successor to the empire. This is partly contradicted by the coeval Liechtenstein perception that the dethroned Austro-Hungarian Emperor still maintained an abstract heritage of the Holy Roman Empire.

In early 1938, just after the annexation of Austria into Greater Nazi Germany, 84 year old Prince Franz I abdicated, naming his 31-year-old third cousin, Prince Franz Joseph, as his successor. His wife Elisabeth von Gutmann, whom he had married in 1929, was a wealthy Jewish woman from Vienna, and local Liechtenstein Nazis had already identified her as their Jewish "problem". Although Liechtenstein had no official Nazi party, a Nazi sympathy movement had been simmering for years within its National Union party.[11]



Franz I, Prince of Liechtenstein.

During World War II, Liechtenstein remained officially neutral, looking to neighboring Switzerland for assistance and guidance, while family treasures within the war zone were taken to Liechtenstein for safekeeping. At the close of the conflict, Czechoslovakia and Poland, acting to seize what they considered to be German possessions, expropriated the entirety of the Liechtenstein dynasty's hereditary lands and possessions in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia – the princes of Liechtenstein lived in Vienna until the Anschluss of 1938. The expropriations (subject to modern legal dispute at the International Court of Justice) included over 1,600 km^2 (618 sq mi) of agricultural and forest land, and several family castles and palaces.

Citizens of Liechtenstein were forbidden to enter Czechoslovakia during the Cold War. More recently the diplomatic conflict revolving around the controversial post-war Beneš decrees resulted in Liechtenstein not sharing international relations with the Czech Republic or Slovakia. Diplomatic relations were established between Liechtenstein and the Czech Republic on 13 July 2009,[12][13][14] and with Slovakia on 9 December 2009.[15]

Liechtenstein gave asylum to about 500 soldiers of the First Russian National Army (a collaborationist Russian force within the German Wehrmacht) at the close of World War II. About 200 of the group somewhat voluntarily agreed to return to the USSR. They departed in a train to Vienna and nothing was ever heard of them again. The remainder stayed in Liechtenstein for another year, resisting with support of Liechtenstein further pressure by the Soviet government to participate in the repatriation program. Eventually the government of Argentina offered asylum, and about a hundred people left. This is commemorated by a monument at the border town of Hinterschellenberg. In contrast, the British and Americans repatriated the Russians who had fought for Germany to the USSR, and many of them perished in the Gulag.

In dire financial straits following the war, the Liechtenstein dynasty often resorted to selling family artistic treasures, including the priceless portrait "Ginevra de' Benci" by Leonardo da Vinci, which was purchased by the National Gallery of Art of the United States in 1967. Liechtenstein prospered, however, during the decades following, as it used its low corporate tax rates to draw many companies to the country.

The Prince of Liechtenstein is the world's sixth wealthiest leader with an estimated wealth of USD $5 billion.[16] The country's population enjoys one of the world's highest standards of living.

Government

Main article: Politics of Liechtenstein


The centre of government in Vaduz.

Liechtenstein is governed under a Constitutional monarchy. It has a form of mixed constitution, in which power is shared by the monarch and an elected parliament. The Constitution of Liechtenstein was adopted in March 2003, replacing the previous 1921 constitution which had established Liechtenstein as a constitutional monarchy headed by the reigning prince of the Princely House of Liechtenstein. A parliamentary system had been established, although the reigning Prince retained substantial political authority.

The reigning Prince is the head of state and represents Liechtenstein in its international relations (although Switzerland has taken responsibility for much of Liechtenstein's diplomatic relations). The Prince may veto laws adopted by parliament. The Prince can call referendums, propose new legislation, and dissolve parliament, although dissolution of parliament may be subject to a referendum.[17]

Executive authority is vested in a collegiate government comprising the head of government (prime minister) and four government councilors (ministers). The head of government and the other ministers are appointed by the Prince upon the proposal and concurrence of parliament, thus reflecting the partisan balance of parliament. The constitution stipulates that at least two members of the government be chosen from each of the two regions.[18] The members of the government are collectively and individually responsible to parliament; parliament may ask the Prince to remove an individual minister or the entire government.

Legislative authority is vested in the unicameral Landtag made up of 25 members elected for maximum four-year terms according to a proportional representation formula. Fifteen members are elected from the "Oberland" (Upper Country or region) and ten members are elected from the "Unterland" (Lower Country or region).[19] Parties must receive at least 8% of the national vote to win seats in parliament. Parliament proposes and approves a government, which is formally appointed by the Prince. Parliament may also pass votes of no confidence in the entire government or individual members.

Parliament elects from among its members a "Landesausschuss" (National Committee) made up of the president of the parliament and four additional members. The National Committee is charged with performing parliamentary oversight functions. Parliament can call for referendums on proposed legislation. Parliament shares the authority to propose new legislation with the Prince and with the number of citizens required for an initiative referendum.[20]

Judicial authority is vested in the Regional Court at Vaduz, the Princely High Court of Appeal at Vaduz, the Princely Supreme Court, the Administrative Court, and the State Court. The State Court rules on the conformity of laws with the constitution and has five members elected by parliament.

On 1 July 1984, Liechtenstein became the last country in Europe to grant women the right to vote. The referendum on women's suffrage, in which only men were allowed to participate, passed with 51.3% in favor.[21]

New constitution

In a national referendum in March 2003, nearly two-thirds of the electorate voted in support of Hans-Adam II's proposed new constitution to replace the 1921 one. The proposed constitution was criticised by many, including the Council of Europe, as expanding the powers of the monarchy (continuing the power to veto any law, and

allowing the Prince to dismiss the government or any minister). The Prince threatened that if the constitution failed, he would, among other things, convert some of the royal property for commercial use and move to Austria.[22] The royal family and the Prince enjoy tremendous public support inside the nation, and the resolution passed with about 64% in favour.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Liechtenstein

Liechtenstein is situated in the Upper Rhine valley of the European Alps and is bordered to the east by Austria and to the south and west by Switzerland. The entire western border of Liechtenstein is formed by the Rhine. Measured south to north the country is about 24 km (15 mi) long. Its highest point, the Grauspitz, is 2,599 m (8,527 ft). Despite its Alpine location, prevailing southerly winds make the climate of Liechtenstein comparatively mild. In winter, the mountain slopes are well suited to winter sports.



The Rhine: Border between Liechtenstein and Switzerland (view to the Swiss Alps)

New surveys using more accurate measurements of the country's borders in 2006 have set its area at 160 km^2 (61.776 sq mi), with borders of 77.9 km (48.4 mi).[23] Thus, Liechtenstein discovered in 2006 that its borders are 1.9 km (1.2 mi) longer than previously thought.[24]

Liechtenstein is one of only two doubly landlocked countries in the world[25]—being a landlocked country wholly surrounded by other landlocked countries (the other is Uzbekistan). Liechtenstein is the sixth-smallest independent nation in the world by land area.

The principality of Liechtenstein is divided into 11 communes called *Gemeinden* (singular *Gemeinde*). The Gemeinden mostly consist only of a single town or village. Five of them (Eschen, Gamprin, Mauren, Ruggell, and Schellenberg) fall within the electoral district *Unterland* (the lower county), and the remainder (Balzers, Planken, Schaan, Triesen, Triesenberg, and Vaduz) within *Oberland* (the upper county).

Economy

Main article: Economy of Liechtenstein

Despite (or perhaps because of) its limited natural resources, Liechtenstein is one of the few countries in the world with more registered companies than citizens; it has developed a prosperous, highly industrialized free-enterprise economy and boasts a financial service sector as well as a living standard which compares favourably with those of the urban areas of Liechtenstein's large European neighbours.



Looking southward at Vaduz city-centre.

Very low business taxes (lowest in Europe)—the maximum tax rate is 20%[26]—as well as easy Rules of Incorporation have induced about 73,700 holding (or so-called 'letter box') companies to establish registered offices in Liechtenstein. This provides about 30% of Liechtenstein's state revenue. Liechtenstein also generates revenue from *Stiftungen* ("foundations"), which are financial entities created to increase the privacy of nonresident foreigners' financial holdings. The foundation is registered in the

name of a Liechtensteiner, often a lawyer.

Recently, Liechtenstein has shown strong determination to prosecute international money-launderers and has worked to promote the country's image as a legitimate finance center. In February 2008, the country's LGT Bank was implicated in a tax-fraud scandal in Germany, which strained the ruling family's relationship with the German government. Crown Prince Alois has accused the German government of trafficking in stolen goods. This refers to its $7.3 million purchase of private banking information illegally offered by a former employee of LGT Group.[27][28] However, the United States Senate's subcommittee on tax haven banks said that the LGT bank, which is owned by the royal family, and on whose board they serve, "is a willing partner, and an aider and abettor to clients trying to evade taxes, dodge creditors or defy court orders."[29]

Liechtenstein participates in a customs union with Switzerland and employs the Swiss franc as national currency. The country imports about 85% of its energy. Liechtenstein has been a member of the European Economic Area (an organization serving as a bridge between the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and the European Union) since May 1995. The government is working to harmonize its economic policies with those of an integrated Europe. Since 2002, Liechtenstein's rate of unemployment has doubled. In 2008, it stood at 1.5%. Currently, there is only one hospital in Liechtenstein, the Liechtensteinisches Landesspital in Vaduz. The gross domestic product (GDP) on a purchasing power parity basis is $5.028 billion,[25] or $141,100 per person which is the second highest in the world.

Liechtenstein is a large producer of ceramics and is the world's largest producer of sausage casings, potassium storage units and false teeth. Other industries include electronics, textiles, precision instruments, metal manufacturing, power tools, anchor bolts, calculators, pharmaceuticals, and food products. Its most recognizable international company and largest employer is Hilti, a manufacturer of direct fastening systems and other high-end power tools. Liechtenstein produces wheat, barley, corn, potatoes, dairy products, livestock, and wine. Tourism accounts for a large portion of the country's economy.

Taxation

The government of Liechtenstein taxes both personal and business income and principal (wealth). The basic rate of personal income tax is 1.2%. When combined with the additional income tax imposed by the communes, the combined income tax rate is 17.82%.[30] An additional income tax of 4.3% is levied on all employees under the country's social security programme. This rate is higher for the self-employed, up to a maximum of 11%, making the maximum income tax rate about 29% in total. The basic tax rate on wealth is 0.06% per annum, and the combined total rate is 0.89%. The maximum business income tax rate is 18–20%.[25]



Since 1923 there has been no border control between Liechtenstein and Switzerland

Liechtenstein's gift and estate taxes vary depending on the relationship the recipient has to the giver and the amount of the inheritance. The tax ranges between 0.5% and 0.75% for spouses and children and 18% to 27% for non-related recipients. The estate tax is progressive.

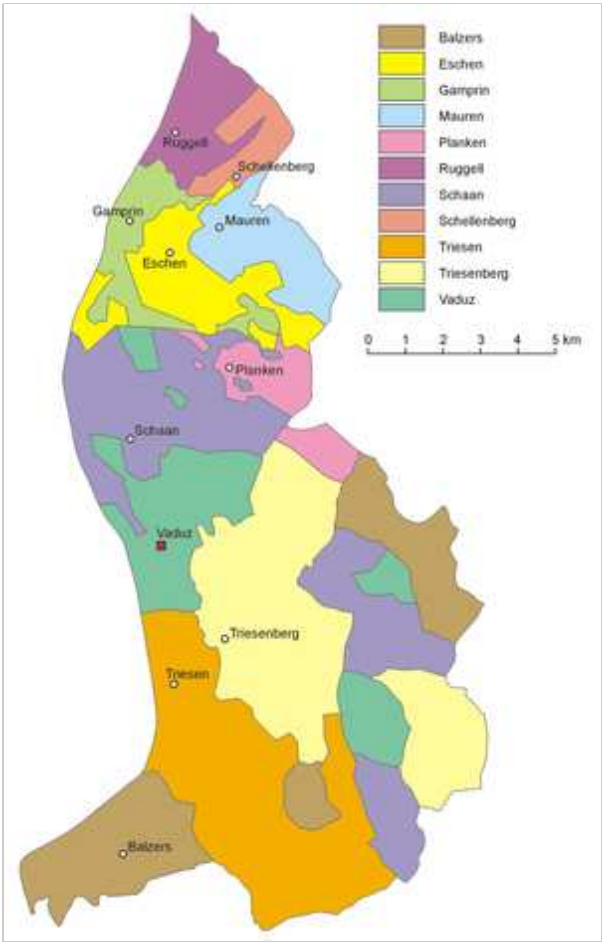
The 2008 Liechtenstein tax affair is a series of tax investigations in numerous countries whose governments suspect that some of their citizens may have evaded tax obligations by using banks and trusts in Liechtenstein; the affair broke open with the biggest complex of investigations ever initiated for tax evasion in the Federal Republic of Germany.[31] It was also seen as an attempt to put pressure on Liechtenstein, then one of the remaining uncooperative tax havens — along with Andorra and Monaco — as identified by the Paris-based

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development in 2007.[32] On 27 May 2009 the OECD removed Liechtenstein from the blacklist of uncooperative countries.[33]

In August 2009, the British Government Department, HM Revenue & Customs, agreed with the Alpine tax haven to start exchanging information. It is believed that up to 5,000 British investors have roughly £3 billion stashed in accounts and trusts in the country.[34]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Liechtenstein



Administrative divisions of Liechtenstein

Liechtenstein is the fourth smallest country of Europe, after Vatican City, Monaco, and San Marino. Its population is primarily Alemannic-speaking, although its resident population is approximately one third foreign-born, primarily German speakers from Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, other Swiss, Italians, and Turks. Foreign-born people make up two-thirds of the country's workforce.[*citation needed*]

The official language is German; most speak Alemannic, a dialect of German that is highly divergent from Standard German but closely related to those dialects spoken in neighbouring regions such as Vorarlberg, Austria. In Triesenberg, a dialect promoted by the municipality is spoken. According to the 2000 census, 87.9% of the population is Christian, of whom 78.4% adhere to the Roman Catholic faith, while about 8% are Protestant. Compared to the 1990 census, the percentage of Christians fell, whereas Muslims and the undeclared more than doubled in size.[35] According to a 2009 Pew Research Center report, Muslims constitute approximately 4.8% of the population.[36]

Religion [35]	2000	1990
Catholics	78.4 %	84.9 %
Reformed Church	7.9%	9.4 %
Christian-Orthodox Churches	1.1%	0.7 %
Undeclared / no religion	7.0 %	2.4 %
Other Christian Churches	0.4%	0.1 %
Muslims	4.8%	2.4 %
Jewish	0.1%	0.0 %
Other religions	0.3%	0.1 %
Total:	**100%**	**100%**

Liechtensteiners have an average life expectancy at birth of 80.31 years, male: 76.86 years, female: 83.77 years (2011 est.). The infant mortality rate is 4.64 deaths per 1,000 live births, according to recent estimates. The

literacy rate of Liechtenstein is 100%.[25] The Programme for International Student Assessment, coordinated by the OECD, currently ranks Liechtenstein's education as the 10th best in the world.[37]

Transport

There are about 250 km (155 mi) of paved roadway within Liechtenstein, with 90 km (56 mi) of marked bicycle paths.

9.5 km (5.9 mi) of railway connects Austria and Switzerland through Liechtenstein. The country's railways are administered by the Austrian Federal Railways as part of the route between Feldkirch, Austria, and Buchs, Switzerland. Liechtenstein is nominally within the Austrian Verkehrsverbund Vorarlberg[38] tariff region. There are four stations in Liechtenstein, namely Schaan-Vaduz, Forst Hilti, Nendeln, and Schaanwald, served by an irregularly stopping train service that runs between Feldkirch and Buchs provided by the Austrian Federal Rail Service. While EuroCity and other long distance international trains also travel along the route, they do not normally stop at the stations within the borders of Liechtenstein.



Heliport in Balzers

Liechtenstein Bus is a subsidiary of the Swiss Postbus system, but separately run, and connects to the Swiss bus network at Buchs and at Sargans. Buses also run to the Austrian town of Feldkirch.

Liechtenstein has no airport. The nearest large airport is Zürich Airport near Zürich, Switzerland (130 km/80 mi by road). The nearest small airport is St. Gallen Airport (50 km/30 mi). There is a small heliport at Balzers in Liechtenstein[39][40] available for chartered helicopter flights.

Culture

See also: Music of Liechtenstein

As a result of its small size, Liechtenstein has been strongly affected by external cultural influences, most notably those originating in the southern German-speaking areas of Europe, including Austria, Baden-Wurttemberg, Bavaria, Switzerland, and specifically Tirol and Vorarlberg. The "Historical Society of the Principality of Liechtenstein" plays a role in preserving the culture and history of the country.



City-centre with Kunstmuseum (Liechtenstein Art Museum)

The largest museum is the Kunstmuseum Liechtenstein, an international museum of modern and contemporary art with an important international art collection. The building by the Swiss architects Morger, Degelo and Kerez is a landmark in Vaduz. It was completed in November 2000 and forms a "black box" of tinted concrete and black basalt stone. The museum collection is also the national art collection of Liechtenstein.

The other important museum is the Liechtenstein National Museum (*Liechtensteinisches Landesmuseum*) showing permanent exhibition on the cultural and natural history of Liechtenstein as well as special exhibitions. There is also a stamp museum and a ski museum.

The most famous historical sites are Vaduz Castle, Gutenberg Castle, the Red House and the ruins of Schellenberg.


Liechtenstein National Museum

Music and theatre are an important part of the culture. There are numerous music organizations such as the Liechtenstein Musical Company, the annual Guitar Days and the International Josef Gabriel Rheinberger Society, which play in two main theatres.

The Private Art Collection of the Prince of Liechtenstein, one of the world's leading private art collections, is shown at the Liechtenstein Museum in Vienna.

Amateur radio is a hobby of some nationals and visitors. However, unlike virtually every other sovereign nation, Liechtenstein does not have its own ITU Prefix. It uses Switzerland's callsign prefixes (typically "HB") followed by a zero.

Sports

See also: Rugby union in Liechtenstein


Marco Büchel, the first Alpine skier to compete at six Winter Olympics.

Liechtenstein football teams play in the Swiss football leagues. The Liechtenstein Football Cup allows access for one Liechtenstein team each year to the UEFA Europa League; FC Vaduz, a team playing in the Swiss Challenge League, the second division in Swiss football, is the most successful team in the Cup, and scored their greatest success in the European Cup Winners' Cup in 1996 when they drew with and defeated the Latvian team FC Universitate Riga by 1–1 and 4–2, to go on to a lucrative fixture against Paris St Germain, which they lost 0–4 and 0–3.

The Liechtenstein national football team is regarded as an easy target for any team drawn against them; this was the basis for a book about Liechtenstein's unsuccessful qualifying campaign for the 2002 World Cup by British author, Charlie Connelly. In one surprising week during autumn 2004, however, the team managed a 2–2 draw with Portugal, who only a few months earlier had been the losing finalists in the European Championships. Four days later, the Liechtenstein team traveled to Luxembourg, where they defeated the home team 4-0 in a 2006 World Cup qualifying match. In the qualification stage of the European Championship 2008, Liechtenstein beat Latvia 1-0, a result which prompted the resignation of the Latvian coach. They went on to beat Iceland 3-0 on 17 October 2007, which is considered one of the most dramatic losses of the Icelandic national football team. On 7 September 2010, they came within seconds of a 1–1 draw against Scotland in Glasgow, having led 1–0 earlier in the second half, but Liechtenstein lost 2–1 thanks to a goal by Stephen McManus in the 97th minute. On 3 June 2011, Liechtenstein defeated Lithuania 2-0.

As an alpine country, the main sporting opportunity for Liechtensteiners to excel is in winter sports such as downhill skiing: the country's single ski area is Malbun. Hanni Wenzel won two gold medals and one silver medal in the 1980 Winter Olympics (she won bronze in 1976), and her brother Andreas won one silver medal in 1980 and one bronze medal in 1984 in the giant slalom event. With nine medals overall (all in alpine skiing), Liechtenstein has won more Olympic medals per capita than any other nation.[41] It is the smallest nation to win a medal in any Olympics, Winter or Summer, and the only nation to win a medal in the Winter Games but not in the Summer Games. Other notable skiers from Liechtenstein are Marco Büchel, Tina Weirather, Willi Frommelt,

Paul Frommelt and Ursula Konzett.

Security and defence

The Liechtenstein National Police is responsible for keeping order within the country. It consists of 87 field officers and 38 civilian staff totaling 125 employes. All officers are equipped with small arms. The country has one of the world's lowest crime rates. Liechtenstein's prison holds few, if any, inmates, and those with sentences over two years are transferred to Austrian jurisdiction. The Liechtenstein National Police maintains a trilateral treaty with Austria and Switzerland that enables close cross-border cooperation among the police forces of the three countries.[42]

Liechtenstein follows a policy of neutrality and is one of the few countries in the world that maintains no military. The army was abolished soon after the Austro-Prussian War in which Liechtenstein fielded an army of 80 men, although they were not involved in any fighting. The demise of the German Confederation in that war freed Liechtenstein from its international obligation to maintain an army, and parliament seized this opportunity and refused to provide funding for one. The Prince objected, as such a move would leave the country defenceless, but relented on 12 February 1868 and disbanded the force. The last soldier to serve under the colours of Liechtenstein died in 1939 at age 95.[43]

In March 2007, a 170-person Swiss infantry unit became lost during a training exercise and inadvertently crossed 1.5 km into Liechtenstein. The accidental invasion ended when the unit realized their mistake, and turned back.[44] The Swiss army later informed Liechtenstein of the incursion and offered official apologies.[45]

See also

- Liechtenstein wine

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History of Liechtenstein

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Political identity came to the territory now occupied by the **Principality of Liechtenstein** in 814, with the formation of the subcountry of Lower Rhaetia.[1] Liechtenstein's borders have remained unchanged since 1434, when the Rhine established the border between the Holy Roman Empire and the Swiss cantons.

Contents

- 1 Antiquity
- 2 Middle Ages
- 3 Early modern era
- 4 Nineteenth century
- 5 Liechtenstein during the World Wars
- 6 The Post-War era
- 7 Liechtenstein during the 21st century
- 8 See also
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- 10 References

Antiquity

Main article: Switzerland in the Roman era

A Roman road crossed the region from south to north, traversing the Alps by the Splügen Pass and following the right bank of the Rhine at the edge of the floodplain, for long uninhabited because of periodic flooding. Roman villas have been excavated in Schaanwald and Nendeln. The late Roman influx of the Alemanni from the north is memorialized by the remains of a Roman fort at Schaan.

Middle Ages

The area, part of Rhaetia, was incorporated into the Carolingian empire, and divided into countships, which became subdivided over the generations. Because the duchy of Swabia lost its duke in 1268 and was never restored, all vassals of the duchy became immediate vassals of the Imperial Throne (as has happened in much of Westphalia when the duchy of Saxons was divided and partially dissolved in aftermath of the defeat of Henry the Lion).



Vaduz Castle, built during the Middle Ages

The medieval county of Vaduz was formed in 1342 as a small subdivision of the Werdenberg county of the dynasty of Montfort of Vorarlberg. The 15th century brought three wars and some devastation.

The Principality takes its name from the Liechtenstein family, rather than vice-versa, and the family in turn takes its name from Castle Liechtenstein in Lower Austria, which it owned from at least 1140 until the 13th century and from 1807 onwards. Over the centuries, the family acquired huge landed estates, mostly in Moravia, Lower Austria and Styria, but all of these rich territories were held in fief under other more senior feudal lords, particularly under various lines of the Habsburg family, to which many Liechtensteins were close advisors. Thus, without holding any land directly under the Holy Roman Emperors, the Liechtenstein dynasty was unable to meet the primary requirement to qualify for a seat in the Imperial diet, the Reichstag, although its head was elevated to princely rank in the late 17th century.

Early modern era

Liechtenstein was invaded by both Austrian and Swedish troops during the Thirty Years' War of 1618–1648.[1] During the 17th century the country was afflicted by a plague and also by a witch hunt, in which more than 100 persons were persecuted and executed.

Prince Johann Adam Andreas of Liechtenstein bought the domain of Schellenberg in 1699 and the county of Vaduz in 1712. This Prince of Liechtenstein had wide landholdings in Austria, Bohemia and Moravia, but none of his lands were held directly from the Emperor. Thus, the prince was barred from entry to the Council of Princes and the prestige and influence that would entail.

By acquiring the Lordships of Schellenberg and Vaduz, modest areas of mountain villages each of which was directly subordinate to the Emperor because there was no duke of Swabia any longer, the Prince of Liechtenstein achieved his goal. The territory took the name of the family which now ruled it. On January 23, 1719, Charles VI, Holy Roman Emperor, decreed that the counties of Vaduz and Schellenberg be promoted to a principality with the name Liechtenstein for his servant Anton Florian of Liechtenstein whereby they became *Heiliger Römischer Reichsfürst*.

Nineteenth century

Liechtenstein became a sovereign state in 1806 when it joined Napoleon's Confederation of the Rhine upon the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire.

The French under Napoleon occupied the country for a few years, but Liechtenstein retained its independence in 1815. Soon afterward, Liechtenstein joined the German Confederation (20 June 1815 – 24 August 1866, which was presided over by the Emperor of Austria).

Then, in 1818, Johann I granted a constitution, although it was limited in its nature.[2] 1818 also saw the first visit of a member of the house of Liechtenstein, Prince Alois. However, the first visit by a sovereign prince would not occur until 1842.[3]

In 1862, a new Constitution was promulgated,[4] which provided for a Diet representative of the people. In 1868, after the German Confederation dissolved, Liechtenstein disbanded its army of 80 men and declared its permanent neutrality, which was respected during both World Wars.



A map of the Confederation of the Rhine.

Liechtenstein during the World Wars

Liechtenstein did not participate in World War I, claiming neutrality. However, until the end of the war, Liechtenstein was closely tied to Austria. In response, Allies imposed an economic embargo on the principality. The economic devastation forced the country to conclude a customs and monetary union with Switzerland. In 1919 Liechtenstein and Switzerland signed a treaty under which Switzerland assumes the representation of Liechtenstein interests at the diplomatic and consular level in countries where it maintains a representation and Liechtenstein does not.

In the spring of 1938, just after the annexation of Austria into Greater Germany, eighty-four year-old Prince Franz I abdicated, naming his thirty-one year-old third cousin, Prince Franz Joseph II, as his successor. While Prince Franz I claimed that old age was his reason for abdicating, it is believed that he had no desire to be on the throne if Germany gobbled up its new neighbor, Liechtenstein. His wife, whom he married in 1929, was a wealthy Jewish woman from Vienna, and local Liechtenstein Nazis had already singled her out as their anti-Semitic "problem". Although Liechtenstein had no official Nazi party, a Nazi sympathy movement had been simmering for years within its National Union party.[5]

Prince Franz Josef II became the first Prince of Liechtenstein to take up permanent residence in Liechtenstein.

During World War II, Liechtenstein remained neutral, while family treasures within the war zone were brought to Liechtenstein (and London) for safekeeping. At the close of the conflict, Czechoslovakia and Poland, acting to seize what they considered to be German possessions, expropriated the entirety of the Liechtenstein dynasty's hereditary lands and possessions in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia — the princes of Liechtenstein lived in Vienna until the Anschluss of 1938. The expropriations (subject to modern legal dispute at the World Court) included over 1,600 square kilometres (600 mi.²) of agricultural and forest land, also including several family castles and palaces. Citizens of Liechtenstein were also forbidden from entering Czechoslovakia during the Cold War. Liechtenstein gave asylum to approximately five hundred soldiers of the First Russian National Army (a collaborationist Russian force within the German Wehrmacht) at the close of World War II; this is commemorated by a monument at the border town of Hinterschellenberg which is marked on the country's tourist map. The act of granting asylum was no small matter as the country was poor and had difficulty feeding and caring for such a large group of refugees. Eventually, Argentina agreed to permanently resettle the asylum seekers. In contrast, the British repatriated the Russians who fought on the side of Germany to the USSR, where they were summarily treated as traitors and most of them executed, including their families.

The Post-War era

In dire financial straits following the war, the Liechtenstein dynasty often resorted to selling family artistic treasures, including for instance the portrait "Ginevra de' Benci" by Leonardo da Vinci, which was purchased by the National Gallery of Art of the United States in 1967. Liechtenstein prospered, however, during the decades following, as its economy modernized with the advantage of low corporate tax rates which drew many companies to the country. Liechtenstein became increasingly important as a financial center. In 1989, Prince Hans-Adam II succeeded his father to the throne, and in 1996, Russia returned the Liechtenstein family's archives, ending a long-running dispute between the two countries. In 1978, Liechtenstein became member of the Council of Europe, and then joined the United Nations in 1990, the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) in 1991, and both the European Economic Area (EEA) and World Trade Organization in 1995.

Liechtenstein during the 21st century

In a referendum on March 16, 2003, Prince Hans-Adam, who had threatened to leave the country if he lost, won a large majority (64.3%) in favour of overhauling the constitution to effectively give him more powers than any other European monarch. The new constitution gave the prince the right to dismiss governments and approve judicial nominees and allowed him to veto laws simply by refusing to sign them within a six-month period.

On August 15, 2003, Hans-Adam announced he would step down in one year and hand over the reins to his son Alois.

On July 1, 2007, the Liechtenstein Ruling Prince, Hans-Adam II, and Liechtenstein Prime Minister, Otmar Hasler, appointed Dr. Bruce S. Allen and Mr. Leodis C. Matthews, both in the United States of America, as the first two Honorary Consuls in history for the Principality of Liechtenstein.[6]



Prince Alois of Liechtenstein

See also

- History of Austria
- History of Europe
- History of Switzerland
- List of Princes of Liechtenstein
- Politics of Liechtenstein

External links

- Fullest history of Liechtenstein on the Web (http://www.liechtenstein.li/en/pdf-fl-lik-geschichte-03_geschichte.pdf)
- History of Liechtenstein: Primary Documents (http://eudocs.lib.byu.edu/index.php/History_of_Liechtenstein:_Primary_Documents)
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Categories: History of Liechtenstein

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Prince of Liechtenstein

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Royal Standard



Former Royal Standard

The **Sovereign Prince of Liechtenstein** is the sovereign monarch and head of state of Liechtenstein. The Princely Family of Liechtenstein, after which the sovereign principality was named in 1719, hails from Castle Liechtenstein in Lower Austria, which the family possessed from at least 1140 to the thirteenth century, and from 1807 onward.

Sovereign Prince of Liechtenstein

MONARCHY



Arms of His Serene Highness the Sovereign Prince of Liechtenstein



Incumbent:
Hans-Adam II

Style:	His Serene Highness
Heir apparent:	Alois, Hereditary Prince of Liechtenstein
First monarch:	Karl I, Prince of Liechtenstein
Formation:	1608

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- 4 List of Princes of Liechtenstein
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- 7 References

History

Through the centuries, the dynasty acquired vast swathes of land, predominantly in Moravia, Lower Austria, Silesia, and Styria, though in all cases, these territories were held in fief under other more senior feudal lords, particularly under various lines of the Habsburg family, to whom several Liechtenstein princes served as close advisors. Thus, and without any territory held directly under the Imperial throne, the Liechtenstein dynasty was unable to meet a primary requirement to qualify for a seat in the Imperial diet, the *Reichstag*.

The family yearned greatly for the added power which a seat in the Imperial government would garner, and therefore, searched for lands to acquire which would be *unmittelbar* (non-intermediate), held without any feudal

personage other than the Holy Roman Emperor himself having rights on the land. After some time, the family was able to arrange the purchase of the minuscule *Herrschaft* ("Lordship") of Schellenberg and countship of Vaduz (in 1699 and 1712 respectively) from the Hohenems. Tiny Schellenberg and Vaduz possessed exactly the political status required, no feudal lord other than their comital sovereign and the suzerain Emperor.

Thereby, on January 23, 1719, after purchase had been duly made, Charles VI, Holy Roman Emperor, decreed Vaduz and Schellenberg were united, and raised to the dignity of *Fürstentum* (*principality*) with the name "Liechtenstein" in honour of "[his] true servant, Anton Florian of Liechtenstein". It is on this date that Liechtenstein became a sovereign member state of the Holy Roman Empire. Ironically, but as testament to the pure political expediency of the purchases, the Princes of Liechtenstein did not permanently live in their new principality for over 200 years, moving only in 1938 into the Alpine territory.

Powers

The Prince of Liechtenstein has sweepingly broad powers; a referendum to adopt Hans-Adam's revision of the constitution to expand his powers passed in 2003.[1] The changes also included a republican option, whereby the Prince was henceforth formally barred from vetoing any bill to establish a republic, but the Prince can veto any other law. In addition, the right to secede of the parishes that make up the Principality was recognized. Prince Hans-Adam had threatened that he and his family would move to Austria if the referendum had failed. Despite opposition from Mario Frick, a former Prime Minister, the Prince's referendum motion was carried by the electorate. Opponents accused Hans-Adam of engaging in emotional blackmail to achieve his goal and constitutional experts from the Council of Europe branded the event as a retrograde move.[2]

On 15 August 2004 Prince Hans-Adam II formally turned the power of making day-to-day governmental decisions over to his son Prince Alois, as a way of transitioning to a new generation. Formally, Hans-Adam remains Head of State.[3]

The U.S. Senate's subcommittee on tax haven banks has charged that the documents and information provided by Heinrich Kieber show that the LGT bank which is owned by the princely family, on whose board it serves and "is a willing partner, and an aider and abettor to clients trying to evade taxes, dodge creditors or defy court orders."[4] For the same reasons, a 1999 German secret service report more bluntly described Liechtenstein as "a criminal state in the heart of Europe".[5]

Titles

According to their House Laws,[6] the Reigning Prince shall bear the titles:

> *Reigning Prince of Liechtenstein, Duke of Troppau and Jägerndorf, Count of Rietberg, Sovereign of the House of Liechtenstein*

List of Princes of Liechtenstein

#	Picture	Name	Prince From	Prince Until

1		Karl I	1608	12 February 1627
2		Karl Eusebius	12 February 1627	5 April 1684 (57 years, 53 days)
3		Hans-Adam I	1699	6 June 1712
4		Joseph Wenzel I	16 June 1712	1718
5		Anton Florian	1718	11 October 1721
6		Joseph Johann Adam	11 October 1721	16 December 1732 (11 years, 66 days)
4		*Joseph Wenzel I*	*1732*	*1745*
7		Johann Nepomuk Karl	16 December 1732	22 December 1748 (16 years, 6 days)

4		Joseph Wenzel I	22 December 1748	10 February 1772 (23 years, 50 days)
8		Franz Joseph I	10 February 1772	18 August 1781 (9 years, 189 days)
9		Aloys I	18 August 1781	24 March 1805 (23 years, 218 days)
10		Johann I Joseph	24 March 1805	20 April 1836 (31 years, 27 days)
11		Aloys II	20 April 1836	12 November 1858 (22 years, 206 days)
12		Johann II	12 November 1858	11 February 1929 (70 years, 91 days)
13		Franz I	11 February 1929	25 July 1938 (9 years, 164 days)
14		Franz Joseph II	25 July 1938	13 November 1989 (51 years, 111 days)

15		Hans-Adam II	13 November 1989 (22 years, 129 days)	Present

See also

- List of princesses of Liechtenstein
- Line of succession to the Liechtensteiner throne
- Princely Family of Liechtenstein
- Ducal hat of Liechtenstein
- 2008 Liechtenstein tax affair

External links

- The Princely House of Liechtenstein (http://www.fuerstenhaus.li) (official site)

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Hans-Adam II, Prince of Liechtenstein

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Hans-Adam II (Johannes (Hans) Adam Ferdinand Alois Josef Maria Marko d'Aviano Pius von und zu Liechtenstein; born 14 February 1945), is the reigning Prince of Liechtenstein. He is the son of Franz Joseph II, Prince of Liechtenstein (1906–1989) and his wife Countess Georgina von Wilczek (1921–1989). He also bears the titles ***Duke of Troppau and Jägerndorf, Count of Rietberg***. He descends in the direct male line from merely three of the previous fourteen Princes of Liechtenstein, and of another (again from two of the above mentioned three) in the female line.

Hans-Adam II



Prince of Liechtenstein

Reign	13 November 1989 – present
Predecessor	Francis Joseph II
Heir apparent	Alois
Regent	Alois (15 August 2004 – present)
Prime Ministers	*See list*
Spouse	Countess Marie Kinsky von Wchinitz und Tettau
Issue	***Detail***
Prince Alois	
Prince Maximilian	
Prince Constantin	
Princess Tatjana	
House	House of Liechtenstein
Father	Francis Joseph II
Mother	Countess Georgina von Wilczek
Born	14 February 1945 Zurich, Switzerland
Religion	Roman Catholicism

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Powers

The Prince of Liechtenstein has broad powers; a referendum to adopt Hans-Adam's revision of the constitution to expand his powers passed in 2003.[1] The changes also included a republican option, whereby the Prince was henceforth formally barred from vetoing any bill to establish a republic. In addition, the right of each of the parishes which make up the Principality to secede was recognised. Prince Hans-Adam had announced his intention for he and his family to move to Austria if the referendum failed. Despite opposition from Mario Frick, a former prime minister, the Prince's referendum motion was carried by the electorate.

On 15 August 2004 Prince Hans-Adam II formally turned the power of making day-to-day governmental decisions over to his eldest son, the Hereditary Prince Alois, as a way of beginning a dynastic transition to a new generation. Legally, Hans-Adam remains Head of State.[2]

Personal wealth

Prince Hans-Adam owns LGT banking group and has a family fortune of $7.6 billion and a personal fortune of about $4.0 billion,[3] making him one of the world's richest heads of state, and Europe's wealthiest monarch.[4] He owns an extensive art collection, which is displayed for the public at the Liechtenstein Museum in Vienna.

Personal life

Hans-Adam's native language is German, but he is also fluent in English and French.

On 30 July 1967, at Vaduz, Liechtenstein, he married his second cousin once-removed, Countess Marie Aglaë Kinsky von Wchinitz und Tettau (born 1940) who, upon her husband's accession to the throne, became *Her Serene Highness The Princess of Liechtenstein*. Their official residence is at Vaduz Castle, which overlooks the capital.

Their children are:

- Hereditary Prince Alois (b. Zürich, 11 June 1968) He married Duchess Sophie in Bavaria on 3 July 1993, 4 children:
  - Prince **Joseph Wenzel** Maximilian Maria of Liechtenstein, Count of Rietberg (born 24 May 1995 in London)
  - Princess **Marie-Caroline** Elisabeth Immaculata of Liechtenstein, Countess of Rietberg (born 17 October 1996 in Grabs, Switzerland)
  - Prince **Georg Antonius** Constantin Maria of Liechtenstein, Count of Rietberg (born 20 April 1999 in Grabs)
  - Prince **Nikolaus Sebastian** Alexander Maria of Liechtenstein, Count of Rietberg (born 6 December 2000, in Grabs)
- Prince Maximilian of Liechtenstein (b. St Gallen, 16 May 1969) He married Angela Gisela Brown civilly in Vaduz on 21 January 2000 and religiously in New York City, New York, in the Church of St. Vincent Ferrer (New York), on 29 January 2000, 1 child:
  - Prince **Alfons** Constantin Maria (b. London, 18 May 2001)
- Prince Constantin Ferdinand Maria (b. St Gallen, 15 March 1972), married civilly in Vaduz on 14 May 1999 and religiously in Číčov, Slovakia, on 18 July 1999 Countess Marie Gabriele Franziska Kálnoky de Kőröspatak (b. Graz, 16 July 1975),[5] 3 children:
  - Prince **Moritz** Emanuel Maria (b. New York City, 27 May 2003)
  - Princess **Georgina** Maximiliana Tatiana Maria (b. Vienna, 23 July 2005)
  - Prince **Benedikt** Ferdinand Hubertus Maria (b. Vienna, 18 May 2008)
- Princess Tatjana Nora Maria (b. St Gallen, 10 April 1973), married in Vaduz on 5 June 1999 Baron Matthias Claus-Just Carl *Philipp* von Lattorff (b. Graz, 25 March 1968), 7 children:
  - **Lukas** Marie von Lattorff (b. Wiesbaden, 13 May 2000)
  - **Elisabeth** Maria Angela Tatjana von Lattorff (b. Grabs, 25 January 2002)
  - **Marie** Teresa von Lattorff (b. Grabs, 18 January 2004)

Liechtensteiner Princely Family



HSH The Prince
HSH The Princess

- HSH The Hereditary Prince
  HRH The Hereditary Princess
  - HSH Prince Joseph Wenzel
  - HSH Princess Marie-Caroline
  - HSH Prince Georg Antonius
  - HSH Prince Nikolaus Sebastian
- HSH Prince Maximilian
  HSH Princess Angela
  - HSH Prince Alfons
- HSH Prince Constantin
  HSH Princess Marie
  - HSH Prince Moritz
  - HSH Princess Georgina
  - HSH Prince Benedikt
- HSH Princess Tatjana

Extended princely family

- HSH Prince Philipp Erasmus
  HSH Princess Isabelle
  - HSH Prince Alexander
    HSH Princess Astrid
    - HSH Princess Theodora
  - HSH Prince Wenzeslaus
  - HSH Prince Rudolf
- HSH Prince Nikolaus
  HRH Princess Margaretha
  - HSH Princess Maria-Annunciata
  - HSH Princess Marie-Astrid
  - HSH Prince Josef-Emanuel
- HSH The Dowager Marchioness of Mariño

- **Camilla** Maria Katharina von Lattorf (b. Monza, 4 November 2005)
- **Anna** Pia Theresia Maria von Lattorf (b. Goldgeben, 3 August 2007)
- **Sophie** Katharina Maria von Lattorf (b. Goldgeben, 30 October 2009)
- **Maximilian** von Lattorf (b. Goldgeben, 17 December 2011)



1974

In 1969, Hans-Adam graduated from the University of St. Gallen with a degree in Business and Economic Studies.

The Prince is an honorary member of K.D.St.V. Nordgau Prag Stuttgart, a Catholic students' fraternity that is a member of the Cartellverband der katholischen deutschen Studentenverbindungen. The Prince chairs the Advisory Council of the Liechtenstein Institute on Self-determination at Princeton University, LISD. In his childhood he joined the Pfadfinder und Pfadfinderinnen Liechtensteins in Vaduz.[6] He is also a former member of the Vienese Scout Group "*Wien 16-Schotten*".[7] He is a member of the World Scout Foundation.[8]

Monarchical styles of

Hans-Adam II, Prince of Liechtenstein



Reference style	His Serene Highness
Spoken style	Your Serene Highness
Alternative style	Sire

Today he and his wife are patrons of Pfadfinder und Pfadfinderinnen Liechtensteins.

He is the 1,305th Knight of the Order of the Golden Fleece in Austria.

Viewpoints and book

Prince Hans-Adam II has written the political treatise *The State in the Third Millennium* (ISBN 9783905881042), which was published in late 2009. In it, he argues for the continued importance of the nation-state as a political actor. He makes the case for democracy as the best form of government, which he sees China and Russia as transitioning towards although the path will be difficult for these nations. He also declared his role in a royal family as something that has legitimacy only from the assent of the people. He stated that government should be limited to a small set of tasks and abilities, writing that people "have to free the state from all the unnecessary tasks and burdens with which it has been loaded during the last hundred years, which have distracted it from its two main tasks: maintenance of the rule of law and foreign policy."[9]

In an interview, recorded in November 2010, Hans-Adam said that he saw certain problems with aspects of the U.S. Constitution, such as the lack of direct democracy. He also said, "I am sitting here and that's because Americans saved us during World War II and during the Cold War. So I am very grateful to them."

Titles

According to their House Laws,[10] the Reigning Prince shall bear the title:

> *Reigning Prince of Liechtenstein, Duke of Troppau and Jägerndorf, Count of Rietberg, Sovereign of the House of Liechtenstein*

Ancestry

See also

- Princely Family of Liechtenstein
- List of Princes of Liechtenstein
- Line of succession to the Throne of Liechtenstein
- Prince of Liechtenstein Foundation
- Liechtenstein Institute on Self-Determination at Princeton University, LISD

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Hans-Adam II, Prince of Liechtenstein **House of Liechtenstein** **Born:** 11 June 1968		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Franz Josef II**	**Prince of Liechtenstein** 1989–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Alois*

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Princely Family of Liechtenstein

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The Liechtenstein dynasty, from which the principality takes its name, is the family which reigns by constitutional, hereditary right over the nation of Liechtenstein. Only dynastic members of the House of Liechtenstein are eligible to inherit the throne, and the dynasty's membership, rights and responsibilities are defined by a law of the family, which is enforced by the reigning Prince and may be altered by vote among the family's dynasts, but which may not be altered by the Government or Parliament of Liechtenstein.[1]

House of Liechtenstein



Country	Liechtenstein
Titles	Prince of Liechtenstein
Founder	Karl I
Current head	Hans-Adam II
Founding	1608

Contents

- 1 History
- 2 Current princely family (closest members only)
- 3 See also
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History

The family comes from Castle Liechtenstein in Lower Austria, which the family possessed from at least 1140 to the 13th century, and from 1807 onwards. Through the centuries, the dynasty acquired vast swathes of land, predominantly in Moravia, Lower Austria, Silesia and Styria, though in all cases, these territories were held in fief under other more senior feudal lords, particularly under various lines of the Habsburg family, to whom several Liechtenstein princes served as close advisors. Thus, and without any territory held directly under the Imperial throne, the Liechtenstein dynasty was unable to meet a primary requirement to qualify for a seat in the Imperial Diet (*Reichstag*)



Valtice Castle used to be the principal seat of the Liechtenstein family in the Czech Republic (then in Czechoslovakia) until after World War II, when the Communists seized power and confiscated it.

The family yearned greatly for the added power which a seat in the Imperial government would garner, and therefore searched for lands to acquire which would be *immediate*, or held without any feudal personage other than the Holy Roman Emperor himself having rights on the land. Eventually the head of the family was able to arrange the purchase from the Hohenems family of the minuscule Lordship of Schellenberg and county of Vaduz, in 1699 and 1712 respectively. Schellenberg and Vaduz possessed exactly the political status required, with no feudal lord other than their comital sovereign and the suzerain Emperor.

On 23 January 1719, after the purchase had been duly made, Charles VI as Holy Roman Emperor decreed Vaduz and Schellenberg to be united and raised to the dignity of a Principality by the name of "Liechtenstein", in honour of "[his] true servant, Anton Florian of Liechtenstein". It is on this date that Liechtenstein became a member state of the Holy Roman Empire. Ironically, but as a testament to the pure political expediency of the purchases, the Princes of Liechtenstein did not set foot in their new principality for several decades.

According to the Constitution of the Princely House of Liechtenstein of 26 October 1993, all members other than the reigning prince shall bear the titles Prince or Princess of Liechtenstein and Count or Countess of Rietberg.

Current princely family (closest members only)

Styles of

Princes(ses) of Liechtenstein



Reference style	His/Her Serene Highness
Spoken style	Your Serene Highness
Alternative style	Sir/Ma'am

- Hans-Adam II, Prince of Liechtenstein (born 14 February 1945), eldest son; married 30 July 1967, Marie Aglaë, Countess Kinsky of Wchinitz and Tettau. They have four children:
  - Alois Philipp Maria, Hereditary Prince of Liechtenstein (born 11 June 1968), married 3 July 1993, Duchess Sophie in Bavaria (born 28 October 1967). They have four children:
    - Prince *Joseph Wenzel* Maximilian Maria of Liechtenstein (born 24 May 1995 in London)
    - Princess *Marie-Caroline* Elisabeth Immaculata of Liechtenstein (born 17 October 1996 in Grabs, Canton of St. Gallen)
    - Prince *Georg Antonius* Constantin Maria of Liechtenstein (born 20 April 1999 in Grabs)
    - Prince *Nikolaus Sebastian* Alexander Maria of Liechtenstein (born 6 December 2000, in Grabs)
  - Prince *Maximilian* Nikolaus Maria of Liechtenstein (born 16 May 1969 in St. Gallen), married 29 January 2000 at the church of Saint Vincent Ferrer in New York, Angela Gisela Brown (born 3 February 1958, Bocas del Toro, Panama) They have one child:
    - Prince Alfons Constantin Maria of Liechtenstein (born 18 May 2001, in London)
  - Prince Constantin Ferdinand Maria of Liechtenstein (born 15 March 1972 in St. Gallen), married 5 June 1999, in Číčov, Slovakia, Countess Marie Gabriele Franciska Kálnoky de Kőröspatak (born 16 July 1975 in Graz) They have three children:
    - Prince Moritz Emanuel Maria of Liechtenstein (born 27 May 2003 in London)
    - Princess Georgina Maximiliane Tatjana Maria of Liechtenstein (born 23 July 2005 in Vienna)
    - Prince Benedikt Ferdinand Hubertus Maria of Liechtenstein, (born 18 May 2008 in Vienna)
  - Princess Tatjana Nora Maria of Liechtenstein (born 10 April 1973 in St. Gallen), married 5 June 1999, at St. Florin's in Vaduz, Baron Matthias Claus-Just Carl *Philipp* von Lattorff, son of Baron Claus-Jürgen von Lattorff and Countess Julia Batthyány de Német-Újvár (born 25 March 1968 in Graz). They have seven children:
    - Lukas Maria von Lattorff (born 13 May 2000 in Wiesbaden)
    - Elisabeth Marie Angela Tatiana von Lattorff (born 25 January 2002 in Grabs)
    - Marie Theresa von Lattorff (born 18 January 2004 in Grabs)
    - Camilla Katharina Maria von Lattorff (born 14 November 2005 in Monza)
    - Anna Pia Theresia Maria von Lattorff (born 3 August 2007 in Hausleiten)
    - Sophia Katharina Maria von Lattorff (born 30 October 2009 in Hausleiten)
    - Maximilian von Lattorf (born 17 December 2011 in Hausleiten)
- Prince Philipp Erasmus of Liechtenstein (born 19 August 1946 in Zürich), second son; married 11

September 1971, at Abbaye de Notre Dame de la Cambre in Brussels, Isabelle de l'Arbre de Malander (born 24 November 1947 in Ronse) They have three children:
    - Prince Alexander of Liechtenstein (born 19 May 1972 in Basel); married 8 February 2003 in Salzburg Astrid Barbara Kohl [2] (born 13 September 1968 in Regensburg).
        - Princess Theodora Alexandra Isabella Antonia Nora Marie of Liechtenstein (born 20 November 2004).
    - Prince Wenzeslaus of Liechtenstein (born 12 May 1974 in Uccle, Belgium)
    - Prince Rudolf Ferdinand of Liechtenstein (born 7 September 1975 in Uccle, Belgium)
- Prince Nikolaus Ferdinand Maria Josef Raphael of Liechtenstein (born 24 October 1947 in Zurich), third son; married 20 March 1982, at Notre-Dame Cathedral, Luxembourg, Princess Margaretha of Luxembourg, (born 15 May 1957, Betzdorf Castle). They have four children:
    - Prince Leopold Emmanuel of Liechtenstein (born 20 May 1984, died 20 May 1984).
    - Princess *Maria-Annunciata* Astrid Joséphine Veronica of Liechtenstein (born 12 May 1985 in Brussels)
    - Princess *Marie-Astrid* Nora Margarita Veronica of Liechtenstein (born 26 June 1987 in Brussels)
    - Prince *Josef-Emanuel* Leopold Marie of Liechtenstein (born 7 May 1989 in Brussels)
- Princess Norberta (Nora) Elisabeth Maria Assunta Josefine Georgine et omnes sancti of Liechtenstein (born 31 October 1950), only daughter; married 11 June 1988 Don Vicente Sartorius y Cabeza de Vaca (30 November 1931 - 2002), Marquess de Mariño, and she has a daughter,
    - Maria Teresa Sartorius y de Liechtenstein (born 21 November 1992 in Madrid).

See also

- List of Princes of Liechtenstein
- List of Princesses of Liechtenstein
- Line of succession to the Throne of Liechtenstein

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External links

- The Princely House of Liechtenstein (http://www.fuerstenhaus.li)

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Categories: Princely Family of Liechtenstein | Princes of Liechtenstein | European royal families | Liechtenstein Roman Catholics | Roman Catholic families | Moravian noble families | Austrian princes

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Monaco

Coordinates: 43°43′58″N 7°25′11″E

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Monaco /ˈmɒnəkoʊ/, officially the **Principality of Monaco** (French: *Principauté de Monaco*; Monégasque: *Principatu de Múnegu*; Italian: *Principato di Monaco*; Occitan: *Principat de Mónegue*), is a sovereign city state, located on the French Riviera in Western Europe. Bordered by France on three sides, with one side bordering the Mediterranean Sea, its center is about 16 km (9.9 mi) from Italy, and is only 15 km (9.3 mi) north east of Nice, France.[7] It has an area of 1.98 km^2 (0.76 sq mi), and a population of 35,986, making Monaco the second smallest and the most densely populated country in the world.[8] Monaco has a land border of only 4.4 km (2.7 mi), a coastline of 4.1 km (2.5 mi), and a width that varies between 1.7 km (1.1 mi) and 349 metres (382 yards).[9][10] The highest point in the country is a narrow pathway named Chemin des Révoires on the slopes of Mont Agel, in the Les Révoires district, which is 161 metres (528 feet) above sea level.[11] Monaco's most populated *Quartier* is Monte Carlo, and the most populated *Ward* is Larvotto/Bas Moulins.[12] After a recent expansion of Port Hercules,[13] Monaco's total area is 2.05 km^2 (0.79 sq mi),[12] with new plans to extend the district of Fontvieille, with land reclaimed from the Mediterranean Sea.[14][15][16][17]

Monaco is a principality governed under a form of constitutional monarchy, with Prince Albert II as head of state.[18] However, even though Prince Albert II is a constitutional monarch, he still has immense political power.[19] The House of Grimaldi have ruled Monaco, with brief interruptions, since 1297.[20] The official language is French, but Monégasque, Italian, and English are widely spoken and understood (see here). The state's sovereignty was officially recognized by the Franco-Monegasque Treaty of 1861, with Monaco finally becoming a full UN voting member in 2002, after much political debate.[21] Despite Monaco's independence and separate foreign policy, its defence is the responsibility of France.[22] However, Monaco does maintain two small military units, totaling 255 officers and men, the Corps des Sapeurs-Pompiers de Monaco, and the Compagnie des Carabiniers du Prince.[23][24]

Economic development was spurred in the late 19th century with a railroad line to France, and the opening of the first casino, Monte Carlo Casino.[25] Since then, the principality's mild climate, splendid scenery, and gambling facilities have

Principality of Monaco
***Principatu de Múnegu* (Monegasque)**
***Principato di Monaco* (Italian)**
***Principauté de Monaco* (French)**



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: *"Deo Juvante"* (Latin)
"With God's Help"

Anthem: *Hymne Monégasque*



Location of **Monaco** (green)
in Europe (dark grey) — [Legend]

Capital	Monaco[1] 43°43′N 7°25′E
Largest Most populated *Quartier*	Monte Carlo
Official language(s)	French[2]
Common languages	Monégasque, Italian and English
Demonym	Monégasque or Monegasque

made Monaco world-famous as a tourist and recreation center for the rich and famous.[10][26] However, in more recent years Monaco has become a major banking center holding over 100 billion euros worth of funds,[27] and has successfully sought to diversify its economy into the services and small, high-value-added, nonpolluting industries.[28] The state has no income tax and low business taxes, and is well-known for being a tax haven.[29] Monaco boasts the world's highest GDP nominal per capita at $172,676, and GDP PPP per capita at $186,175.[30][31] Monaco also has the world's highest life expectancy at almost 90 years,[32] and the lowest unemployment rate at 0%,[33] with over 48,000 workers who commute from France and Italy each day.[34][12] For the third year in a row, Monaco in 2011 had the world's most expensive real estate market, at $56,300 per square metre.[35] According to the CIA World Factbook, Monaco has the world's lowest poverty rate,[28] and the highest millionaires and billionaires per capita in the world.[36]

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Government	Unitary principality Constitutional monarchy
- Prince	Albert II
- Minister of State	Michel Roger
- President of the National Council	Jean-François Robillon
Independence	
- House of Grimaldi	1297
- Constitution	1911
Area	
- Total	1.98 km^2 (235th) 0.76 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.0[3]
Population	
- 2011 estimate	35,986 [4] (218th)
- 2008 census	35,352[3]
- Density	15,142/km^2 (1st) 39,217/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$6.888 billion[5][6] (n/a)
- Per capita	$186,175[5][6] (n/a)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	US$6.581 billion[5][6] (136)
- Per capita	$172,676[5][6] (1)
HDI (2010)	0.946 (1st) (very high)
Currency	Euro (EUR)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	MC
Internet TLD	.mc
Calling code	+377

1 Monaco is a city-state.

2 GDP per capita calculations include non-resident workers from France and Italy.

- 12.1 Roman Catholic
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- 13 Security
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History

Main article: History of Monaco



The Palace and a tower

Monaco's name comes from the 6th century BC nearby Phocaean Greek colony. Referred to the Ligurians as *Monoikos*, from the Greek "μόνοικος", "single house", from "μόνος" (*monos*) "alone, single"[37] + "οἶκος" (*oikos*) "house",[38] which bears the sense of a people either settled in a "single habitation" or of "living apart" from others. According to an ancient myth, Hercules passed through the Monaco area and turned away the previous gods. As a result, a temple was constructed there, the temple of Hercules Monoikos. Because the only temple of this area was the "House" of Hercules, the city was called Monoikos.[39][40]



The Cathedral of Monaco

Following a land grant from Emperor Henry VI in 1191, Monaco was re-founded in 1215 as a colony of Genoa. Monaco was first ruled by a member of the House of Grimaldi in 1297, when Francesco Grimaldi, known as "*Il Malizia*" (translated from Italian either as "The Malicious One" or "The Cunning One"), and his men captured the fortress protecting the Rock of Monaco while dressed as a Franciscan monk – a *Monaco* in Italian, although this is a coincidence as the area was already known by this name. Francesco, however, was evicted only a few years afterwards by the Genovese forces, and the struggle over "the Rock" continued for another century.



The *Place d'Armes* with modern buildings



Statue of François Grimaldi,

In 1419, the Grimaldis purchased Monaco from the crown of Aragon and became the official and undisputed rulers of "the Rock of Monaco", and in 1612 Honore II began to style himself "Prince" of Monaco. In the 1630s, Honore II sought French protection against the Spanish forces and was eventually, in 1642, received at the court of Louis XIII as "Duc et Pair Etranger". The princes of Monaco thus became vassals of the French kings[41] while at the same time remaining sovereign princes. As successive princes and their families spent most of their lives in Paris, and

through marriages with French nobilities, the House of Grimaldi, though Italian in origin, became thoroughly French in character. The principality continued its existence as a protectorate of France until the French Revolution.

"*il Malizia*" ("the Cunning"), disguised as a monk with a sword under the cloak of his habit in front of the Prince's Palace of Monaco.

In 1793, Revolutionary forces captured Monaco and it remained under direct French control until 1814, when the Bourbons returned to the throne. The principality was re-established that year, only to be designated a protectorate of the Kingdom of Sardinia by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Monaco remained in this position until 1860 when, by the Treaty of Turin, the Sardinian forces pulled out of the principality and the surrounding county of Nice (as well as Savoy) was ceded to France. Monaco became a French protectorate once again. Prior to this time there was unrest in Menton and Roquebrune where the townspeople had become weary of heavy taxation by the Grimaldis. They declared their independence, hoping for annexation by Sardinia. France protested. The unrest continued until Charles III gave up his claim to the two mainland towns (some 95% of the principality) that the Grimaldis had ruled for over 500 years. These were ceded to France in return for 4,100,000 francs. The transfer and Monaco's sovereignty was recognised by the Franco-Monegasque Treaty of 1861. In 1869, the principality stopped collecting income tax from its residents - an indulgence the Grimaldis could afford to entertain thanks solely to the extraordinary success of the casino. This made Monaco not only a playground for the rich, but a favored place for them to live.

20th century

Until the Monegasque Revolution of 1910 forced the adoption of the 1911 constitution, the princes of Monaco were absolute rulers. The long overdue constitution, however, barely reduced the autocratic rule of the Grimaldis and in any case Albert I soon suspended it. In July 1918, the Franco-Monegasque Treaty was signed, providing for limited French protection over Monaco. The treaty, endorsed in 1919 by the Treaty of Versailles, established that Monegasque international policy would be aligned with French political, military, and economic interests, and resolved the Monaco Succession Crisis.

In 1943, the Italian army invaded and occupied Monaco, setting up a Fascist administration. Shortly thereafter, following the collapse of Mussolini, the German Wehrmacht occupied Monaco and the Nazi deportation of the Jewish population began. René Blum (Paris, 13 March 1878 – Auschwitz, 30 April 1943), the prominent French Jew who founded the Ballet de l'Opera in Monte Carlo, was arrested in his Paris home and held in the Drancy deportation camp outside Paris, whence he was then transported to the Auschwitz concentration camp, where he was killed.[42] Blum's colleague Raoul Gunsbourg, the director of the Opéra de Monte-Carlo, helped by the French Resistance, escaped arrest and fled to Switzerland.

Rainier III, who ruled until 2005, succeeded to the throne following the death of his grandfather, Prince Louis II, in 1949. On 19 April 1956, Prince Rainier married the American actress Grace Kelly; the event was widely televised and covered in the popular press, focusing the world's attention on the tiny principality.

A 1962 amendment to the constitution abolished capital punishment, provided for women's suffrage, and established a Supreme Court of Monaco to guarantee fundamental liberties. In 1993, the Principality of Monaco became a member of the United Nations, with full voting rights. In 2002, a new treaty between France and Monaco specified that, should there be no heirs to carry on the Grimaldi dynasty, the principality would still remain an independent nation rather than revert to France. Monaco's military defence, however, is still the responsibility of France.

On 31 March 2005, Prince Rainier III, too ill to exercise his duties, relinquished them to his only son and heir, Prince Albert Alexandre Louis. Prince Rainier died on 6 April 2005, after a reign of 56 years, and his son by Princess Grace succeeded him as Albert II, Sovereign Prince of Monaco.

Following a period of official mourning, Prince Albert II formally assumed the princely crown on 12 July 2005, in a celebration that began with a solemn Mass at Saint Nicholas Cathedral, where his father had been buried three months earlier. His accession to the Monegasque throne was a two-step event, with a further ceremony, drawing heads of state for an elaborate *levée*, held on 19 November 2005 at the historic Prince's Palace in Monaco-Ville.



Albert II, the Prince of Monaco

Law and government

Main article: Politics of Monaco

Monaco has been governed under a constitutional monarchy since 1911, with the Sovereign Prince of Monaco as monarch. The executive branch consists of a Minister of State (the head of government), who presides over a five-member Council of Government. Until 2002, the Minister of State was a French citizen appointed by the prince from among candidates proposed by the French government; since a constitutional amendment in 2002, the Minister of State can be French or Monegasque. However, Prince Albert II appointed, on 3 March 2010, the Frenchman Michel Roger as Minister of State.

Under the 1962 constitution, the prince shares his power with the unicameral National Council (parliament). The twenty-five members of this legislative body are elected from lists by universal suffrage for five-year terms. The principality's local affairs are directed by the Communal Council, which consists of fifteen elected members and is presided over by the mayor.

Economy



Fontvieille and its new harbour

Main article: Economy of Monaco

One of Monaco's main sources of income is tourism. Each year many are attracted to its casino and pleasant climate. Monaco's own citizens are not allowed to gamble in the casino.[43] In 2001, a major new construction project extended the pier used by cruise ships in the main harbour. The principality has successfully sought to diversify into services and small, high-value-added, non-polluting industries, such as cosmetics and biothermics.

The state retains monopolies in numerous sectors, including tobacco and the postal service. The telephone network (Monaco Telecom) used to be fully owned by the state; it now owns only 45%, while the remaining 55% is owned by both Cable & Wireless Communications (49%) and Compagnie Monégasque de Banque (6%). It is still, however, a monopoly. Living standards are high, roughly comparable to those in prosperous French metropolitan areas.[*citation needed*]

Monaco is not a member of the European Union. However, it is very closely linked via a customs union with France, and as such, its currency is the same as that of France, the euro. Before 2002, Monaco minted its own coins, the Monegasque franc. Monaco has acquired the right to mint euro coins with Monegasque designs on its national side.

Gambling industry

The plan for casino gambling was mooted during the reign of Florestan I in 1846. Under Louis-Philippe's petite-bourgeois regime, however, a dignitary such as a Prince of Monaco was not allowed to operate a gambling house. All this changed in the dissolute Second French Empire under Napoleon III. The House of Grimaldi was in dire need to generate cash. Menton and Roquebrune, which had been main source of income for the Grimaldis for centuries, now accustomed to much improved standard of living and lenient taxation thanks to Sardinian intervention, clamoured for financial and political concession, even for separation. The Grimaldis hoped the newly legal industry would help alleviate the difficulties they faced, above all the crushing debt the family had incurred, but Monaco's first casino would not be ready to operate until after Charles III assumed the throne in 1856.[43]

The grantee of the princely concession (license) was unable to attract enough business to sustain the operation and, after relocating the casino several times, sold the concession to French casino magnates François and Louis Blanc for 1.7 million francs. The Blancs had already set up a highly successful casino (in fact the biggest in Europe) in Bad-Homburg in the Grand Duchy of Hesse-Homburg, a small German principality comparable to Monaco, and quickly petitioned Charles III to rename a depressed seaside area known as "Les Spelegures (Den of Thieves)". "Monte Carlo (Mount Charles)." They then constructed their casino in the newly dubbed "Monte Carlo" and cleared out the area's less-than-savory elements to make the neighborhood surrounding the establishment more conducive to tourism.

The Blancs opened Le Grand Casino de Monte Carlo in 1858, and the casino benefited from the tourist traffic the newly built French railway system created. Due to the combination of the casino and the railroads, Monaco finally recovered from the previous half century of economic slump, and the principality's success attracted other businesses. In the years following the casino's opening Monaco founded its Oceanographic Museum and the Monte Carlo Opera House, 46 hotels sprang up and the number of jewellers operating in Monaco increased by nearly 500 percent. By 1869, the casino was making such a vast sum of money that the principality could afford not to collect tax from the Monegasques; a master stroke that was to attract affluent residents from all over Europe.

Today, Société des bains de mer de Monaco which owns Le Grand Casino still operates in the original building the Blancs constructed and has been joined by several other casinos, including Le Casino Café de Paris, the Monte Carlo Bay Casino, the Monte Carlo Sporting Club & Casino (Summer Casino) and the Sun Casino. The most recent addition to the list—the first casino to open in Monte Carlo in 75 years—is the Monte Carlo Bay Casino, which sits on 4 hectares of the Mediterranean Garden and, among other things, offers 145 slot machines, all equipped with "Ticket-In, Ticket-Out" (TITO); it is the first Mediterranean casino to use this technology.[44]

Tax haven

Monaco levies no income tax on individuals. The absence of a personal income tax in the principality has attracted to it a considerable number of wealthy "tax refugee" residents from European countries who derive the majority of their income from activity outside Monaco; celebrities such as Formula One drivers attract most of the attention, but the vast majority of them are less well-known business people.[*citation needed*]. This applies to all residents of Monaco of any nationality except French citizens whose residency started after 1957. These French citizens still must pay French income tax.

In 1998, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) issued a first report on the consequences of the tax havens' financial systems. Monaco did not appear in the list of these territories until 2004, when OECD became indignant regarding the Monegasque situation and denounced it in its last report, as well as Andorra, Liechtenstein, Liberia and the Marshall Islands, underlining its lack of co-operation as regards financial information disclosure and availability.[45][46]

In 2000, a report by the French parliamentarians, Arnaud Montebourg and Vincent Peillon, alleged that Monaco

had lax policies with respect to money laundering, including within its famed casino, and that the government of Monaco had been placing political pressure on the judiciary, so that alleged crimes were not being properly investigated.[47]


Monte Carlo Casino

In 2000, the Financial Action Task Force on Money Laundering (FATF) stated: "The anti-money laundering system in Monaco is comprehensive. However, difficulties have been encountered with Monaco by countries in international investigations on serious crimes that appear to be linked also with tax matters. In addition, the FIU of Monaco (SICCFIN) suffers a great lack of adequate resources. The authorities of Monaco have stated that they will provide additional resources to SICCFIN."[48] The Principality is no longer blamed in the 2005 FATF report, as well as all other territories.[49][50] However, since 2003, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has identified Monaco, along with 36 other territories, as a tax haven.[51]

The Council of Europe also decided to issue reports naming tax havens. Twenty-two territories, including Monaco, were thus evaluated between 1998 and 2000 on a first round. Monaco is the only territory that refuses to perform the second round, initially forecast between 2001 and 2003, whereas the 21 other territories are implementing the third and last round, planned between 2005 and 2007.[52]

However, Monaco has high social insurance taxes payable by both employer and employee. The employer's contribution is between 28%–40% (averaging 35%) of gross salary including benefits and the employee pays a further 10%–14% (averaging 13%).[53]

Numismatics

Main articles: Monegasque euro coins and Euro gold and silver commemorative coins (Monaco)



2002 Monegasque commemorative coin

In Monaco, the euro was introduced in 2002, having been preceded by the Monegasque franc.[54] In preparation for this date, the minting of the new euro coins started as early as 2001. This is why the first euro coins from Monaco have the year 2001 on them, instead of 2002, like other countries of the Eurozone.[55][56] Three different designs were selected for the Monegasque coins.[57] However, In 2006, the design was changed after the death of ruling Prince Rainier to have the effigy of Prince Albert.[58][59]

Monaco also has a rich and valuable collection of collectors' coins, with face value ranging from €5 to €100.[60] These coins are a legacy of an old national practice of minting silver and gold commemorative coins.[61][62] Unlike normal issues, these coins are not legal tender in all the Eurozone. For instance, a Monegasque commemorative coin cannot be used in any other country. The same practice concerning commemorative coins is exercised with all eurozone countries. Commemorative coins are legal tender only in their country of issue, unlike normal circulation coins, which are accepted in all euro-zone countries.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Monaco


Astronaut View of Monaco

Monaco is a sovereign city state, with 5 *Quartiers*, 10 *Wards*,[63] located on the French Riviera in Western Europe.[64] Bordered by France on three sides, with one side bordering the Mediterranean Sea; its center is about 16 km (9.9 mi) from Italy, and is only 15 km (9.3 mi) south east of Nice, France.[21] Its area is 1.98 km^2 (0.76 sq mi) or 198 ha (490 acres), with a population of 35,986, making Monaco the second smallest and the most densely populated country in the world, as of 2012.[65] Having a land border of only 4.4 km (2.7 mi), a coastline of 4.1 km (2.5 mi), a maritime claim that extends 22.2 kilometres (13.8 mi), and a width that varies between 1.7 km (1.1 mi) and 349 meters (382 yards), Monaco is unique.[9][10] The highest point in the country is a narrow pathway named Chemin des Révoires on the slopes of Mont Agel, in the Les Révoires district, it is 161 meters (528 feet) above sea level.[11] Monaco's most populated *Quartier* is Monte Carlo, and the most populated *Ward* is Larvotto/Bas Moulins.[12] After a recent expansion of Port Hercules,[13] Monaco's total area is 2.05 km^2 (0.79 sq mi),[12] with new plans to extend the district of Fontvieille, with land reclaimed from the Mediterranean Sea.[14][15] There are two ports in Monaco, Hercules and Fontvieille, as well the neighboring French port of Cap d'Ail.[66] Monaco's only natural resource is fishing,[67] with almost the entirely country being an urban area, Monaco lacks any sort of commercial agriculture industry.[68]

Administrative divisions

Main article: Administrative divisions of Monaco

Overview



Wards of Monaco

Monaco is the second smallest country (by size) in the world; only Vatican City is smaller. Monaco is also the world's second smallest monarchy, and is the most densely populated country in the world. The state consists of only one municipality (*commune*). There is no geographical distinction between the State and City of Monaco, although responsibilities of the government (state-level) and of the municipality (city-level) are different. According to the constitution of 1911, the principality was subdivided into three municipalities:

- Monaco (Monaco-Ville), the old city on a rocky promontory extending into the Mediterranean, known as the Rock of Monaco, or simply Le Rocher (the Rock), where the palace is located;
- Monte Carlo, the principal residential and resort area with the Monte Carlo Casino in the east and northeast;
- La Condamine, the southwestern section including the port area, Port Hercule.

The municipalities were merged into one in 1917, after accusations that the government was acting according to the motto "divide and conquer," and they were accorded the status of wards (*quartiers*) thereafter.

- Fontvieille was added as fourth ward, a newly constructed area reclaimed from the sea (in the 1970s) also a new district inside of Fontvieille is planned;
- Moneghetti became the fifth ward, created from a part of La Condamine;

- Larvotto became the sixth ward, created from a part of Monte Carlo;
- La Rousse/Saint Roman (including Le Ténao) became the seventh ward, also created from a part of Monte Carlo.

Subsequently, three additional wards were created:

- Saint Michel, from a part of Monte Carlo;
- La Colle, from a part of La Condamine;
- Les Révoires, from a part of La Condamine.

An additional ward was planned by new land reclamation to be settled beginning in 2014; but Prince Albert II announced in his 2009 New Year Speech that he had ended plans due to the economic climate.



Directly ahead is La Condamine, to the right with the smaller harbour is Fontvieille and to the left with the high-rise buildings is Monte Carlo

Traditional quarters and modern geographic areas

The traditional four quarters of Monaco are: Monaco-Ville, La Condamine, Monte Carlo and Fontvieille. These quarters and Moneghetti are the five "modern geographic areas", defined by the Monaco Department of Tourism which is situated in Monaco-Ville.[69]

Wards

Currently the principality is subdivided into ten wards (with their official numbers; Le Portier, the proposed ward, was anticipated as number 11):

No.	Ward	Area (km²)	Population (Census of 2008)	Density km²	City Blocks *(îlots)*	Remarks
Former municipality of Monaco						
05	Monaco-Ville	0.19	1,034	5597	19	Old City with palace
Former municipality of Monte Carlo						
01	Monte Carlo/Spélugues (*Bd. Des Moulins-Av. de la Madone*)	0.30	3,834	10779	20	the casino and resort area
02	La Rousse/Saint Roman (*Annonciade-Château Périgord*)	0.13	3,223	30633	15	in the northeast, incl. Le Ténao
03	Larvotto/Bas Moulins (*Larvotto-Bd Psse Grace*)	0.34	5,443	16570	15	eastern beach area
10	Saint Michel (*Psse Charlotte-Park Palace*)	0.14	3,907	26768	24	central residential area
Former municipality of La Condamine						
04	La Condamine	0.27	3,947	16213	27	port area in the northwest
07	La Colle (*Plati-Pasteur-Bd Charles III*)	0.11	2,829	15005	15	on the western border with Cap d'Ail
08	Les Révoires (*Hector Otto-Honoré Labande*)	0.08	2,545	33203	11	containing the Jardin Exotique de Monaco

09	Moneghetti/ Bd de Belgique (*Bd Rainier III-Bd de Belgique*)	0.10	3,003	28051	18	
New land reclaimed from the sea						
06	Fontvieille	0.35	3,901	10156	9	started 1971
11	Le Portier	0.12[(1)]	–	-	-	plans put on hold by Prince Albert II in 2009
	Monaco	2.01	35,352	16217	173	

[(1)] Area not included in total, as it is only proposed

Note: for statistical purposes, the wards of Monaco are further subdivided into 173 city blocks (îlots), which are comparable to the census blocks in the United States.

Climate

See also: Climate of Monaco

Monaco has a warm-summer Mediterranean climate (Köppen climate classification: Csa), which is influenced by the oceanic climate and the humid subtropical climate.

As a result, it has warm, dry summers and mild, rainy winters. Cool and rainy interludes can interrupt the dry summer season, the average length of which is also shorter. Summer afternoons are infrequently hot (indeed, temperatures > 30 °C /86 °F are rare) as the atmosphere is tempered by constant sea breezes. On the other hand, the nights are very mild, this being due to the fairly high temperature of the sea in summer. Generally, temperatures do not drop below 20 °C in this season. In winter, frosts and snowfalls are extremely rare, generally occurring once or twice every ten years.

Climate data for Monaco													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Average high °C (°F)	12.3 (54.1)	12.5 (54.5)	14.0 (57.2)	16.1 (61.0)	19.4 (66.9)	23.0 (73.4)	25.8 (78.4)	25.9 (78.6)	23.8 (74.8)	19.9 (67.8)	16.1 (61.0)	13.4 (56.1)	18.5 (65.3)
Daily mean °C (°F)	10.2 (50.4)	10.4 (50.7)	11.8 (53.2)	13.9 (57.0)	17.1 (62.8)	20.8 (69.4)	23.5 (74.3)	23.7 (74.7)	21.6 (70.9)	17.8 (64.0)	14.0 (57.2)	11.4 (52.5)	16.4 (61.5)
Average low °C (°F)	8.1 (46.6)	8.2 (46.8)	9.6 (49.3)	11.6 (52.9)	14.8 (58.6)	18.5 (65.3)	21.2 (70.2)	21.5 (70.7)	19.3 (66.7)	15.6 (60.1)	11.9 (53.4)	9.3 (48.7)	14.1 (57.4)
Precipitation mm (inches)	82.7 (3.256)	76.4 (3.008)	70.5 (2.776)	62.2 (2.449)	48.6 (1.913)	36.9 (1.453)	15.6 (0.614)	31.3 (1.232)	54.4 (2.142)	108.2 (4.26)	104.2 (4.102)	77.5 (3.051)	768.5 (30.256)
Avg. precipitation days	6.8	6.4	6.1	6.3	5.2	4.1	1.9	3.1	4.0	5.8	7.0	6.0	62.7
Sunshine hours	148.8	152.6	201.5	228.0	269.7	297.0	341.0	306.9	240.0	204.6	156.0	142.6	2,668.7
Source: Monaco website[70]													

Sport and entertainment

Formula One

Since 1955, the Monaco Grand Prix has been held annually in the streets of Monaco. It is widely considered to be one of the most prestigious automobile races in the world. The erection of the *Circuit de Monaco* takes six weeks

to complete, and the removal after the race another three weeks. The circuit has many elevation changes and tight corners, along with a tunnel. This together with being incredibly narrow and tight makes it perhaps the most demanding Formula One track. Only two drivers have ever crashed into the harbour, the most famous being Alberto Ascari in the 1955 Monaco Grand Prix, just four days before losing his life at Monza. The other was Paul Hawkins, during the 1965 Monaco Grand Prix.



Formation lap for the 1996 Monaco Grand Prix

Monte Carlo Rally

The Monte Carlo Rally has been held since 1911, having originally been held at the behest of Prince Albert I and is, like the principality's Grand Prix, organised by the *Automobile Club de Monaco*. It has long been considered to be one of the toughest and most prestigious events in rallying and from 1973 to 2008 was the opening round of the World Rally Championship. From 2009 until 2011, the rally served as the opening round of the Intercontinental Rally Challenge, having most recently been run on the 19–22 January 2011 in celebration of the event's centenary.

2012 will mark the return of the Monte Carlo Rally to the WRC calendar with the event taking place from the 20–22 January 2012.[71]

Football

Monaco hosts two major football teams in the principality; men's football club AS Monaco FC and women's football club OS Monaco. AS Monaco plays at the Stade Louis II and competes in the Ligue 2, the second division of French football. The club is historically one of the most successful clubs in France. However, it suffered relegation in the 2010–11 season. Because of the popular appeal of living in Monaco and the lack of income tax, many international stars have played for the club, such as Marcelo Gallardo, Jürgen Klinsmann, Oliver Bierhoff, George Weah, John Collins, Fernando Morientes, Thierry Henry, Fabien Barthez, Rafael Márquez, Javier Saviola, Akis Zikos, David Trezeguet, John Arne Riise, Patrice Evra, Shabani Nonda, Emmanuel Adebayor, Eiður Guðjohnsen, Jan Koller, Victor Ikpeba, Park Chu-Young and Mahamadou Diarra.

The club reached the 2004 UEFA Champions League Final, led by the likes of Dado Pršo, Fernando Morientes, Jérôme Rothen, Akis Zikos, and Ludovic Giuly, losing 3–0 to Portuguese team F.C. Porto. The Stade Louis II also plays host to the annual UEFA Super Cup, which is played between the winners of the UEFA Champions League and the UEFA Europa League. The women's team, OS Monaco, competes in the women's French football league system. The club currently plays in the local regional league deep down in the league system, however once played in the Division 1 Féminine in the 1994–95 season, but were quickly relegated. Current French women's international goalkeeper Sarah Bouhaddi had a short stint at the club before going to the Clairefontaine academy.

The Monaco national football team represents the nation in association football and is controlled by the Monegasque Football Federation, the governing body for football in Monaco. However, Monaco is the only sovereign state in Europe that is not a member of UEFA, and so does not take part in any UEFA European Football Championship or FIFA World Cup competitions. The team play their home matches in the Stade Louis II.

Rugby

Main article: Rugby union in Monaco

Monaco's national rugby team, as of March 2010, is 90th in the International Rugby Board rankings.

Other sports

The Monte-Carlo Masters is currently held annually in neighbouring Roquebrune-Cap-Martin, France, as a professional tournament for men as part of tennis' ATP Masters Series. The tournament has been held since 1897. Golf's Monte Carlo Open was also held at the Monte Carlo Golf Club at Mont Agel in France between 1984 and 1992. Monaco has also competed in the Olympic Games, although, as of 2008, no athlete from Monaco has ever won an Olympic medal.



View of the Port of Hercules, La Condamine, Monaco

In 2009, the *Tour de France*, the world's premier bicycle race, started from Monaco with a 15 km closed-circuit individual time trial starting and finishing there on the first day (4 July) and the 182 km second leg starting there on the following day and ending in Brignoles, France.

Monaco also stage part of the Global Champions Tour (International Show-jumping). Acknowledged as the most glamorous of the series, Monaco will be hosting the world's most celebrated riders, including Monaco's own Charlotte Casiraghi, in a setting facing out over the world's most beautiful yachts, and framed by the Port Hercule and Prince's palace. In 2009, the Monaco stage of the Global Champions tour took place between 25 – 27 June.



View of Monte Carlo

The Monaco Marathon is the only marathon in the world to pass through three separate countries, those of Monaco, France and Italy. The 2010 event took place on 21 March. Runners complete the race by returning to the Stade Louis II.

The Monaco Ironman 70.3 triathlon race is an annual event with over 1000 athletes competing and attracts top professional athletes from around the world. The race includes a 1.9 km swim, 90 km bike ride and 21.1 km run.

Since 1993, the headquarters of the International Association of Athletics Federations, the world governing body of athletics, has been located in Monaco. An IAAF Diamond League meet is annually held at Stade Louis II.

Education

Primary and secondary schools

Monaco has ten state-operated schools, including: seven nursery and primary schools; one secondary school, *Collège Charles III*;[72] one *lycée* that provides general and technological training, *Lycée Albert 1er*;[73] and one lycée that provides vocational and hotel training, *Lycée technique et hôtelier de Monte-Carlo*.[74] There are also two grant-aided denominational private schools, including *Institution François d'Assise Nicolas Barré* and *Ecole des Sœurs Dominicaines*, and one international school, the International School of Monaco.

Colleges and universities

There is one university located in Monaco:

- International University of Monaco

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Monaco

Monaco's population is unusual in that the native Monegasques are a minority in their own country comprising 21.6% of the population. The largest group are French nationals at 28.4%, followed by Monegasque (21.6%), Italian (18.7%), British (7.5%), Belgian (2.8%), German (2.5%), Swiss (2.5%) and US nationals (1.2%).[75]


Sunset in Monte Carlo.

Citizens of Monaco are called *Monacans*, while *Monegasque* is the proper term for describing someone who was born in Monaco.

Language

Main article: Languages of Monaco

The official language of Monaco is French. English is used by American and British residents. The traditional national language is Monégasque, now spoken by only a minority of residents. It resembles Ligurian, which is spoken in Genoa. In the old part of Monaco, street signs are printed in both French and Monégasque. Italian is also spoken by the principality's sizable community from Italy.

Religion

Roman Catholic

Main article: Roman Catholicism in Monaco

The official religion is Roman Catholicism, with freedom of other religions guaranteed by the constitution. There are five Roman Catholic parish churches in Monaco and one cathedral, which is the seat of the archbishop of Monaco. The diocese, which has existed since the mid-nineteenth century, was raised to an archbishopric in 1981 as the Archdiocese of Monaco. The patron saint is Saint Devota.


Saint Nicholas Cathedral, Monaco

Anglican

There is one Anglican church (St. Paul's Church), located in the Avenue de Grande Bretagne in Monte Carlo. In 2007 this had a formal membership of 135 Anglicans resident in the principality, but was also serving a considerably larger number of Anglicans temporarily in the country, mostly as tourists. The church site also accommodates an English-language library of over 3,000 books.[76] The church is part of the Anglican Diocese of Gibraltar in Europe.

Jewish

The Association Culturelle Israélite de Monaco (founded 1948) is a converted house containing a synagogue, a community Hebrew school, and a kosher food shop, located in Monte Carlo. The community (approximately 1,500) mainly consists of retired Jews from Britain (40%) and North Africa. Two thirds of the Jewish population there are Sephardic, mainly from North Africa, while the other third is Ashkenazi.[77]

Security

See also: Law enforcement in Monaco and Military of Monaco



Palace guard in Monaco, just before the Changing of the Guard

The wider defence of the nation is provided by France. Monaco has no navy or air force, but on both a per-capita and per-area basis, Monaco has the largest police force (515 police officers for 35,000 people) and police presence in the world. Its police includes a specialist unit which operates patrol and surveillance boats.

There is also a small military force. This consists of a bodyguard unit for the Prince and the palace in Monaco-Ville called the Compagnie des Carabiniers du Prince (Prince's Company of Carabiniers), which is equipped with modern weapons such as M16 rifles and 9 mm pistols, and which together with the militarized, armed fire and civil defence Corps (Sapeurs-Pompiers) forms Monaco's total public forces. The Compagnie des Carabiniers du Prince was created by Prince Honoré IV in 1817 for the protection of the Principality and the Princely family. The company numbers exactly 116 officers and men; while the NCOs and soldiers are local, the officers have generally served in the French Army. In addition to their guard duties as described, ce the Carabiniers patrol the Principality's beaches and coastal waters.

Flag

Main article: Flag of Monaco

The flag of Monaco is one of the world's oldest national flag designs. The flag of Monaco is identical to the flag of Indonesia, except for the ratio of height to width.[78]

Transport

Main article: Transport in Monaco

Further information: Rail transport in Monaco

The Monaco-Monte Carlo station is served by the SNCF, the French national rail system. The Monte Carlo International Heliport provides helicopter service to the closest airport, Côte d'Azur Airport in Nice, France.



Panoramic view of La Condamine, Monaco

See also

- Outline of Monaco
- Index of Monaco-related articles

- Foreign relations of Monaco
- List of rulers of Monaco
- Music of Monaco
- Telecommunications in Monaco

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History of Monaco

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The early **history of Monaco** is primarily concerned with the protective and strategic value of the Rock of Monaco, the area's chief geological landmark, which served first as a shelter for ancient peoples and later as a fortress. Part of Liguria's history since the fall of the Roman Empire, from the 14th to the early 15th century the area was contested for primarily political reasons. Since that point, excepting a brief period of French occupation, it has remained steadily under the control of the House of Grimaldi.[2]



Map of the territory of the "Free cities of Mentone & Roccabruna" (light blue) and the territory of Monaco (orange) in 1848. Those territories were the Principality of Monaco from the Renaissance until that year.[1]

Contents

- 1 Early history and Ligurian settlement
- 2 Greek colonization and Herculean legend
- 3 Roman rule
- 4 Middle Ages
- 5 Rise of the Grimaldis
- 6 Protectorate of the Kingdom of Sardinia
- 7 Sovereignty
- 8 See also
- 9 Notes
- 10 References
- 11 External links



Coat of Arms of Monaco

Early history and Ligurian settlement

The Rock of Monaco served as a shelter for the area's early inhabitants from the end of the Paleolithic period, approximately 300,000 BC, evidence of which has been found in a cave in St. Judist's Gardens. According to the accounts of historian Diodorus Siculus and geographer Strabo, the area's first permanent settlers were the mountain-dwelling Ligures, who emigrated from their native city of Genoa, Italy. However, the ancient Ligurian language, which probably was Indo-European, is not directly connected to the Italian dialect spoken by the modern inhabitants of Liguria, nor to the modern Monegasque language.

History of Monaco



This article is part of **a series**

Rock of Monaco

Greek colonization and Herculean legend

The Phocaeans of Massalia founded the colony of *Monoikos*, named for its Ligurian inhabitants, in the 6th century B.C. in the area now known as Monaco. Monoikos was associated with Hercules, venerated in this location alone as *Hercules Monoecus* (i.e. the lone-dweller). According to the "travels of Hercules" theme, also documented by Diodorus Siculus and Strabo, both Greeks and native Ligurian people asserted that Hercules passed through the area.

House of Grimaldi
(List of rulers)

Franco-Monegasque Treaty

The modern port is still sometimes called the "Port of Hercules". The 1907 *Catholic Encyclopedia* wrote, "From ancient times until the nineteenth century the port of Monaco was among the most important of the French Mediterranean coast, but now it has lost all commercial significance."

Roman rule

After the Gallic Wars, *Monoecus*, which served as a stopping-point for Julius Caesar on his way to campaign in Greece, fell under Roman control as part of the Maritime Alps province (Gallia Transalpina).

The Roman poet Virgil called it "that castled cliff, Monoecus by the sea" (*Aeneid*, VI.830). The commentator Servius's use of the passage (in R. Maltby, *Lexicon of Ancient Latin Etymologies*, Leeds) asserts, under the entry *portus,* that the epithet was derived:

> *dictus autem Monoecus vel quod pulsis omnibus illic solus habitavit* ("either because Hercules drove off everyone else and lived there alone"), *vel quod in eius templo numquam aliquis deorum simul colitur* ("or because in his temple no other of the gods is worshipped at the same time").

No temple to Hercules has been found at Monaco (see also Lucan 1.405.), although the rocky ground and dense conurbation make future excavations unlikely.

The port is mentioned in Pliny the Elder's *Natural History* (III.v) and in Tacitus' *Histories* (III.42), when Valens was forced to put into the port (*Fabius Valens e sinu Pisano segnitia maris aut adversante vento portum Herculis Monoeci depellitur*).

Middle Ages

Monaco remained under Roman control until the collapse of the Western Roman Empire in 476. The city was then under the domain of Odoacer until his fall at the hands of the Ostrogoths in the late 5th century. Monaco was recaptured by the Romans during the reign of Justinian in the mid 6th century and was held until its capture by the Lombards in the 7th century. Monaco then passed hands between the Lombards and Franks. Though these raids left the area almost entirely depopulated, the Saracens were expelled in 975, and by the 11th century the area was again populated by Ligurians.

In 1191, Holy Roman Emperor Henry VI granted suzerainty over the area to the city of Genoa, the native home of the Ligurians. On June 10, 1215, a detachment of Genoese Ghibellines led by Fulco del Cassello began the construction of a fortress atop the Rock of Monaco. This date is often cited as the beginning of Monaco's modern history.

As the Ghibellines intended their fortress to be a strategic military stronghold and center of control for the area, they set about creating a settlement around the base of the Rock to support the garrison; in an attempt to lure residents from Genoa and the surrounding cities, they offered land grants and tax exemption to new settlers.

Rise of the Grimaldis

The Grimaldis, descended from Otto Canella and taking their name from his son Grimaldo, were an ancient and prominent Guelphic Genoese family.

Members of this family, in the course of the civil strife in Genoa between the Guelphs and Ghibellines, took refuge in Monaco, accompanied by various other Guelphic families, most notably the Fieschis.



Memorial of François Grimaldi guised as a monk with a sword under his frock

Francesco Grimaldi seized the Rock of Monaco in 1297, starting the Grimaldi dynasty, under the sovereignty of the Republic of Genoa. The Grimaldis acquired Menton in 1346 and Roquebrune in 1355, enlarging their possessions. In 1338 Monegasque ships under the command of Carlo Grimaldi participated, along with those of France and Genoa, in the English Channel naval campaign. Plunder from the sack of Southampton was brought back to Monaco, contributing to the principality's prosperity.[3]

Honoré II, Prince of Monaco secured recognition of his independent sovereignty from Spain in 1633, and then from Louis XIII of France by the Treaty of Péronne (1641). Since then the area has remained under the control of the Grimaldi family to the present day, except when under French control during the French revolution from 1793 to May 17, 1814.

Protectorate of the Kingdom of Sardinia

The principality was re-established in 1814, only to be designated a protectorate of the Kingdom of Sardinia by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Monaco remained in this position until 1860, when by the Treaty of Turin, Sardinia ceded to France the surrounding county of Nice (as well as Savoy).

With the protectorate, that lasted nearly half a century, Italian was the official language of Monaco. The Monégasque dialect is closer to Italian than French, but influenced by both.

During this time there was unrest in the towns of Menton and Roquebrune, which declared independence, hoping for annexation by Sardinia and participation in the Italian Risorgimento. The unrest continued until the ruling prince gave up his claim to the two towns (some 95% of the country), and they were ceded to France in return for four million francs. This transfer and Monaco's sovereignty was recognised by the Franco-Monegasque Treaty of 1861.

Sovereignty

Further information: France–Monaco relations

Designated as a protectorate of the Kingdom of Sardinia in 1815 by the Congress of Vienna after Napoleon's defeat, Monaco's sovereignty was confirmed by the Franco-Monegasque Treaty of 1861. France accepted the existence of the Principality of Monaco, but annexed 95% of its former territory (the areas of Menton and Roquebrune). Monaco's military defense since then has been the responsibility of France.

The Prince of Monaco was an absolute ruler until the Monegasque Revolution of 1910 forced him to proclaim a constitution in 1911.

The famous Casino of Monte Carlo opened in 1863, organized by the *Societé des Bains de Mer* ("Sea-bathing Society"), which also ran the "Hotel de Paris"; taxes paid by the S.B.M. have been plowed into Monaco's infrastructure. Economic development was spurred in the late 19th century with a railway link to France. In July 1918, a treaty was signed providing for limited French protection over Monaco. The treaty, written into the Treaty of Versailles, established that Monegasque policy would be aligned with French political, military, and economic interests. One of the motivations for the treaty was the upcoming Monaco Succession Crisis of 1918.



An enlargeable map of the current Principality of Monaco

While Prince Louis II's sympathies were strongly pro-French, he tried to keep Monaco neutral during World War II but supported the Vichy French government of his old army colleague, Marshall Philippe Pétain.

Nonetheless, his tiny principality was tormented by domestic conflict partly as a result of Louis' indecisiveness, and also because the majority of the population was of Italian descent; many of them supported the fascist regime of Italy's Benito Mussolini.

In November 1942, the Italian Army invaded and occupied Monaco, setting up a fascist puppet government. Soon after in September 1943, following Mussolini's fall in Italy, the German Army occupied Monaco and began the deportation of the Jewish population.

Among them was René Blum, founder of the Opera, who died in a Nazi concentration camp. Under Prince Louis' secret orders, the Monaco police, often at great risk to themselves, warned in advance those people whom the Gestapo planned to arrest.[*citation needed*] The country was liberated as German troops retreated.

The current ruler, Prince Albert II, succeeded his father Prince Rainier III in 2005. Prince Rainier, in turn, had acceded to the throne following the death of his grandfather, Prince Louis II, in 1949.

The revised Constitution of Monaco, proclaimed in 1962, abolished capital punishment, provided for female suffrage, established a Supreme Court to guarantee fundamental liberties and made it difficult for a French national to transfer his or her residence there.

In 1993, Monaco became an official member of the United Nations with full voting rights. In 2002, a new treaty between France and Monaco clarifies that if there are no heirs to carry on the dynasty, the Principality will remain an independent nation, rather than be annexed by France. Monaco's military defense, however, is still the responsibility of France.

The principality's mild climate, attractive scenery, and gambling facilities have made Monaco world famous as a tourism and recreation centre.

See also

- History of Europe
- History of France
- History of Italy
- List of Princes of Monaco
- Politics of Monaco

Prince of Monaco

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

See also: Princess of Monaco

The **Reigning Prince** or **Princess of Monaco** is the sovereign monarch and head of state of the Principality of Monaco. All Princes or Princesses thus far have taken the name of the House of Grimaldi, but have belonged to various other houses in male line. The current Prince is Albert II.

Sovereign Prince of Monaco

MONARCHY



Arms of His Serene Highness the Sovereign Prince of Monaco



Incumbent:
Albert II

Style:	His Serene Highness
Heir apparent:	Caroline, Princess of Hanover *(presumptive)*
First monarch:	Honoré II (as *Prince*, previous monarchs were called *Lords*)
Formation:	29 November 1604

Contents

- 1 Powers of the Prince
- 2 Titles and styles
- 3 Non-reigning princes(ses) of Monaco
- 4 See also

Powers of the Prince

Monaco, along with Liechtenstein and Vatican City, is one of only three states in Europe where the monarch still plays an active role in day-to-day politics.

The Prince or Princess exercises his or her authority in accordance with the Constitution and laws. He or she represents the Principality in all foreign relations and any revision, either total or partial, of the Constitution, must be jointly agreed to by the Prince and the National Council.

Legislative power is divided between the Prince who initiates the laws, and the National Council which votes on them. Executive power is retained by the Prince. The Minister of State and the Government Council are directly responsible to the Prince for the administration of the Principality.

Judiciary powers also belong to the Prince. The present Constitution states that the Prince has full authority in the courts and tribunals which render justice in his or her name.

Albert II also grants and other ranks of distinction (see Awards and decorations of Monaco)

Titles and styles

Like all Monegasque nobility, the Prince is styled *His Serene Highness* (or, in the case of a ruling Princess, *Her Serene Highness*), abbreviated to S.A.S. (*Son Altesse Serenissime*). Though they are rarely used, the Prince also bears a great many other hereditary titles, some of which are occasionally bestowed on his relatives or their

spouses. Some of these titles have merged with the Crown of Monaco as a result of the Grimaldi family's acquisition of various duchies, counties, baronies, and other fiefs, though they are almost all extinct and carry no administrative power. Most were granted by the Kingdom of France under Salic law, and can only pass in the male line, and therefore ended on the death of Albert's grandfather Louis II in 1949.

The current Prince's complete titles and styles are:

His Serene Highness Albert II, Sovereign Prince of Monaco (princely title)

- Duke of Valentinois, only a Monegasque title (formerly also a French title)
- Marquis of Baux, only a Monegasque title
- Count of Carladès, only a Monegasque title
- Count of Polignac, a French title
- Baron of Calvinet, only a Monegasque title
- Baron of Buis, only a Monegasque title
- Lord of Saint-Rémy, only a Monegasque title
- Sire of Matignon, only a Monegasque title
- Count of Torigni, only a Monegasque title
- Baron of Saint-Lô, only a Monegasque title
- Baron of La Luthumière, only a Monegasque title
- Baron of Hambye, only a Monegasque title
- Duke of Estouteville, only a Monegasque title
- Duke of Mazarin, only a Monegasque title
- Duke of Mayenne, only a Monegasque title
- Prince of Château-Porcien, only a Monegasque title
- Count of Ferrette, only a Monegasque title
- Count of Belfort, only a Monegasque title
- Count of Thann, only a Monegasque title
- Count of Rosemont, only a Monegasque title
- Baron of Altkirch, only a Monegasque title
- Lord of Isenheim, only a Monegasque title
- Marquis of Chilly, only a Monegasque title
- Count of Longjumeau, only a Monegasque title
- Baron of Massy, only a Monegasque title
- Marquis of Guiscard, only a Monegasque title

Non-reigning princes(ses) of Monaco

Prince(ss) of Monaco is a title also given to certain members of the princely family of Monaco. It is not to be confused with the ruling Prince's title "Sovereign Prince of Monaco", from which the first word is commonly dropped, or with the title of the heir apparent or presumptive to the throne, Hereditary Prince of Monaco.

See also

- List of rulers of Monaco
- Line of succession to the Monegasque throne

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Prince_of_Monaco&oldid=481807942"
Categories: Politics of Monaco | Princes of Monaco | Monegasque titles | Heads of state

Albert II, Prince of Monaco

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Albert II, Sovereign Prince of Monaco[1][2] (**Albert Alexandre Louis Pierre Grimaldi**; born 14 March 1958), is the head of the House of Grimaldi and the ruler of the Principality of Monaco. He is the son of Rainier III, Prince of Monaco, and the American actress Grace Kelly. His sisters are Hereditary Princess Caroline and Princess Stéphanie of Monaco.

In July 2011, Prince Albert married Charlene Lynette Wittstock, now Princess Charlene.

Prince Albert is one of the wealthiest Royals in the World, valued at more than $1 billion. This includes vast amounts of land both in Monaco and France, and which does not include the Prince's Palace but does include Société des bains de mer de Monaco. His wealth does not include that of other members of the House of Grimaldi, which are valued altogether at over $2.5 billion (as of 2010).

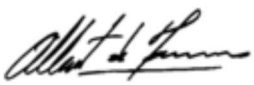
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Albert II



Prince of Monaco

Reign	6 April 2005 – present
Predecessor	Rainier III
Heiress presumptive	Caroline
Ministers of State	***See list***
Regency	31 March 2005 – 6 April 2005
Spouse	Charlene Wittstock
Issue	***Detail***
Jazmin Grace Grimaldi (Illegitimate)	
Alexandre Coste (Illegitimate)	
House	House of Grimaldi
Father	Rainier III
Mother	Princess Grace
Born	14 March 1958 Prince's Palace, Monaco
Signature	
Religion	Roman Catholicism

Monegasque Princely Family

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- **HSH The Prince**
  HSH The Princess
- HRH The Princess of Hanover
- HSH Princess Stéphanie

Early life



The Prince Albert with his mother Grace Kelly, the Princess of Monaco, arriving at the Madrid Airport, 1964.

Monarchical styles of
Albert II, Prince of Monaco



Reference style	His Serene Highness
Spoken style	Your Serene Highness
Alternative style	Sir

Born in the Prince's Palace of Monaco, Monaco, Albert's godmother was Queen Victoria Eugenia of Spain. Albert attended the Albert I High School, graduating with distinction in 1976. He was a camper and later a counselor for six summers at Camp Tecumseh on Lake Winnipesaukee, Moultonborough, New Hampshire in the 1970s. He spent a year training in various princely duties, and enrolled at Amherst College in Massachusetts in 1977 as Albert Grimaldi, studying political science, economics, music, and English literature, and also joined Chi Psi fraternity. He speaks French, English, German and Italian.

He spent the summer of 1979 touring Europe and the Middle East with the Amherst Glee Club and graduated in 1981 with a Bachelor of Arts degree in political science. Albert also undertook an exchange program with the University of Bristol, at the Alfred Marshall School of Economics and Management in 1979. Albert was an enthusiastic sportsman, participating in cross country, javelin throwing, handball, judo, swimming, tennis, rowing, sailing, skiing, squash and fencing. He is a patron of Monaco's football teams. He competed in the bobsled at every Winter Olympics from Calgary to Salt Lake City. He has been a member of the International Olympic Committee since 1985. (His maternal grandfather John B. Kelly, Sr., and maternal uncle John B. Kelly, Jr., were both Olympic medal winners in rowing and were actively involved in the Olympic movement.) The press reported the prince refused any special treatment during his Olympic stints, and lived in the same bare-bones quarters as all the other athletes.[3]

On 25 October 2002, Albert visited Miami, Florida for a World Olympians Association fund-raiser at the Biltmore Hotel in Coral Gables. The group's mission was to have the 100,000 Olympians get involved with their communities and talk to young athletes about dedication and training.

Regency

On 7 March 2005, Albert's father Rainier III, Prince of Monaco was admitted to a hospital in the principality; he was later moved to an intensive care ward. The Prince was being treated for breathing, kidney, and heart trouble. On 31 March 2005, the Palace of Monaco announced that Hereditary Prince Albert would take over the duties of his father as Regent since Rainier was no longer able to exercise his sovereign functions. This decision was reached by the Crown Council of Monaco, a body made up of notable local figures with residual powers to make judgments about certain constitutional matters. The 47-year-old prince spent his first day as regent of Monaco caring for his critically ill 81-year-old father, who was Europe's longest-serving monarch and the world's third longest-serving monarch.

Accession

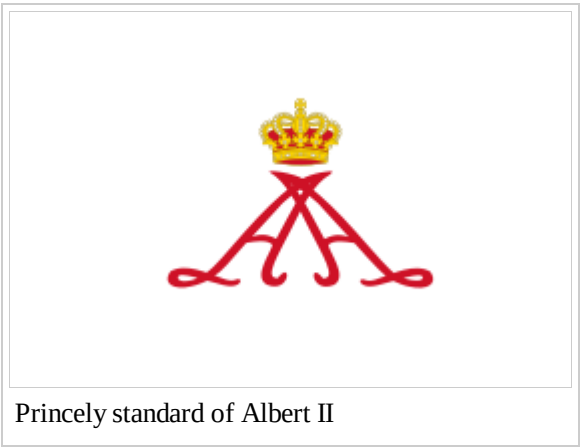
On 6 April 2005, Prince Rainier III died and Hereditary Prince Albert became Albert II, Sovereign Prince of Monaco.

The first part of Prince Albert II's enthronement as ruler of the Principality was on 12 July 2005, after the end of the three-month mourning period for his father. A morning Mass at Saint Nicholas Cathedral presided over by the Archbishop of Monaco, the Most Reverend Bernard Barsi, formally marked the beginning of his reign. Afterward Albert II returned to the princely palace to host a garden party for 7,000 Monégasques born in the principality. In the courtyard, the Prince was presented with two keys of the city as a symbol of his investiture. The evening ended with a spectacular fireworks display on the waterfront.

The second part of his investiture was on 19 November 2005. Albert was enthroned at Saint Nicholas Cathedral. His family was there in attendance, including his elder sister (and now his heir presumptive) Princess Caroline with her husband Ernst, Prince of Hanover and three of her four children, Andrea, Pierre and Charlotte; as well as his younger sister Princess Stéphanie, his paternal aunt Princess Antoinette, Baroness of Massy, his godson, Jean-Léonard Taubert-Natta de Massy, and his cousin Elisabeth-Anne de Massy. Royalty from 16 delegations were present for the festivities throughout the country. The evening ended with an opera performance in Monte Carlo.

Albert's reign

Albert continues the policy, initiated by previous rulers of the statelet, of using his position to draw the world's attention to the need to protect the (marine) environment. Just like his great-great-grandfather Albert I he traveled to Spitsbergen in July 2005. During this trip, he visited the glaciers "Lillihöök" and "Monaco".



Princely standard of Albert II

Prince Albert II also engaged in a Russian Arctic expedition, reaching the North Pole on Easter, 16 April 2006.[4] As a result, he is the first incumbent head of state to have reached the North Pole.

Prince Albert is the Vice-Chairman of the American charity founded in 1982, after his mother's death, the Princess Grace Foundation-USA, which supports, as Princess Grace did in her lifetime, emerging artists in theater, dance and film.

In 2006, Prince Albert created the Prince Albert II of Monaco Foundation which continues the Principality of Monaco's commitment by supporting sustainable and ethical projects around the world which focus on three main challenges: climate change and developing renewable energies; combating the loss of biodiversity; and water management (improving universal access to clean water) and fighting desertification. [1] (http://www.fpa2.com/home.html)

Prince Albert is also a Global Advisor to Orphans International.



Prince Albert II with U.S. President Barack Obama and First Lady Michelle Obama, 2009.

Economic activities

Prince Albert is one of the owners of Yoctocosmos and member of the World Economic Forum.[*citation needed*]

Personal life and relationships

Over the years, there was much discussion of the prince's continual bachelor status. Although he had received much press attention for dating well-known fashion models and actresses, his apparent disinclination to marry gave rise to rumors that he is homosexual. Prince Albert has consistently denied this suggestion, most notably in a 1994 interview published in the French magazine *Madame Figaro*. "At first it was amusing", he said, "but it becomes very irritating in the long term to hear people say that I am homosexual".[5] He has since confirmed that he is the father of two children, and in July 2011, Prince Albert married Charlene Lynette Wittstock, now Princess Charlene.

In October 2005, the German magazine *Bunte* reported that Prince Albert was dating Telma Ortiz Rocasolano, a sister-in-law of the Prince of Asturias. However, in November 2005, the Prince instructed his lawyer, Thierry Lacoste, to commence legal proceedings against the French newspaper *France Dimanche* for violation of privacy and false information regarding the story.

Children born out of wedlock

Jazmin Grace Grimaldi

In 1992, a California woman, Tamara Rotolo, filed a paternity suit against the prince, claiming that he was the father of her daughter, whom she named Jazmin Grace Grimaldi. Prince Albert was also listed as the father on the child's Riverside County, California, birth certificate,[6] and the child was legally surnamed Grimaldi. However, the case, which went to trial in 1993, eventually was dismissed by Superior Court Judge Graham Anderson Cribbs, who claimed that there was "insufficient contact between Albert and the state of California to justify hearing a suit there"[7] agreeing with an assertion by the prince's lawyer, Stanley Arkin, that the California court had no jurisdiction.

In court documents and legal depositions, Case#IND78459 in Riverside County Superior Court Family Law Division under Superior Court Judge Graham Anderson Cribbs, Prince Albert admitted that he had been with Tamara Rotolo, who was traveling with a friend, Barbara Welker (per her deposition filed with the court), in Monaco on "a couple of occasions" in July 1991. (The child had been born approximately nine months later, on 4 March 1992.) As reported by a local newspaper covering the case, "Arkin asserted that the Riverside County court had no jurisdiction in the case since the romantic encounter supposedly occurred in Monaco and Albert

has had no contacts with California that relate to the issues in the suit."[5]

On 31 May 2006, after DNA test results confirmed the child's parentage, Prince Albert admitted, in a statement from his lawyer, that he is Jazmin's father. He also extended an invitation for the girl to study and live in Monaco.

Alexandre Coste

In May 2005, Nicole Coste, a former Air France flight attendant from Togo, claimed that her youngest son, whom she calls Alexandre Coste, is Prince Albert's son, proven by DNA tests conducted by Swiss technicians working on orders from the Monegasque government. She further claimed the prince had signed a notarized certificate confirming paternity but that she had not received a copy of it. The French weekly *Paris Match* published a ten-page interview with Coste and included photographs of the prince holding and feeding the child. Coste also told *Paris Match* that she was living in the prince's Paris apartment and receiving an allowance from him while pretending to be the girlfriend of one of his friends in order to maintain privacy. She also said that the prince had last seen the boy in February 2005. A spokesman for Prince Albert had no comment, though upon news of Coste's claims, the prince's lawyer, Thierry Lacoste, announced that "A judicial strategy will be determined within the next few days."

In mid-May 2005, Lacoste announced that as a result of the international publicity over the revelations of the prince's son, Prince Albert is suing the *Daily Mail*, *Bunte*, and *Paris Match* for delving too deeply into his private life.

On 6 July 2005, a few days before he was enthroned on 12 July, Albert II officially confirmed via his lawyer Thierry Lacoste that the 22-month-old is his biological son.[8]

Additional paternity suit

An earlier paternity suit, brought by Bea Fiedler, a German topless model whom the *Daily Telegraph* described as a "sex-film star", reportedly was dismissed. A blood test, which was refused by the judge, did not prove that the prince was the father of Fiedler's son, Daniel.[9]

Marriage

Further information: Wedding of Albert II, Prince of Monaco, and Charlene Wittstock



Dual Cypher of Prince Albert and Princess Charlene of Monaco.

Prince Albert married former South African swimmer Charlene Wittstock on 1 July 2011. They announced their engagement on 23 June 2010.[10] They had been seen together since 10 February 2006, at the opening ceremony of the Torino Olympics when Prince Albert was accompanied by Wittstock. They were seen again together at the Monaco Grand Prix. The Prince and Wittstock attended the opening ceremony of the Beijing Olympics in 2008 and the "Bal de la Rose" and the Princess Grace Awards Gala in 2009. They also attended the opening ceremony of the Vancouver Olympics. As a couple, they also attended the wedding of Crown Princess Victoria of Sweden and Daniel Westling in Stockholm four days before their own engagement was announced and the wedding of Prince William, Duke of Cambridge, and Catherine Middleton on 29 April 2011. The wedding took place over two days: the civil marriage ceremony took place on 1 July 2011, followed by the religious ceremony on 2

July 2011.[11]



Prince Albert II and Princess Charlene of Monaco (centered) with Hermann Bühlbecker (left) and fashion designer Karl Lagerfeld, 2011.

Succession issues

As Rainier III's health declined, his son's lack of legitimate children became a matter of public and political concern due to the legal and international consequences if Albert were to die without lawful heirs. Prior to 2002, Monaco's constitution specified that only the *last* reigning prince's "direct and legitimate" descendants could inherit the crown.

On 2 April 2002 Monaco promulgated Princely Law 1.249 which provides that if a reigning prince dies without surviving legitimate issue, the throne passes to his siblings and their descendants of both sexes, according to the principle of male-preference primogeniture.[12] In October 2005 (after Albert's accession to the throne), this law took full effect when ratified by France, pursuant to the 2002 Franco-Monégasque Treaty regulating relations between the Sovereign Principality and its more powerful neighbour. His sisters and their legitimate children thereby acquired the right to succeed to the throne.

Under the current constitution, neither Jazmin nor Alexandre has a claim to the throne of Monaco because they are not legitimate. Monegasque law stipulates that any non-adulterine child is legitimatized by the eventual marriage of his/her parents, thereupon obtaining the rights to which that child would have been entitled if born in lawful marriage. Thus Alexandre would become Monaco's heir apparent under current law if Albert were to ever marry his son's mother. But in a 2005 exchange with US interviewer Larry King, Albert stated that this will not happen.[13] In 2011 he married Charlene Wittstock.

Albert specified that neither of these children is eligible for the throne in statements confirming his paternity.[4][8] His older sister, Princess Caroline, remains first in the line of succession to the Monegasque throne. Though she is only the heiress presumptive and not heiress apparent, Caroline is the Hereditary Princess of Monaco, according to the Grimaldi house law.[14]

Until Albert II has legitimate descendants born of a dynastic marriage, Caroline is first, and her son Andrea Casiraghi is second in succession to the throne.

Environmental issues

Year of the Dolphin

The year 2007 was declared as (International) Year of the Dolphin[15] by the United Nations and United Nations Environment Programme. Prince Albert served as the International Patron of the 'Year of the Dolphin', saying "The Year of the Dolphin gives me the opportunity to renew my firm commitment towards protecting marine biodiversity. With this strong initiative we can make a difference to save these fascinating marine mammals from the brink of extinction."

Jardin Animalier

Monaco's Jardin Animalier, or zoo (lit. "animal [*i.e.*, zoological] garden"), was founded by Prince Rainier. Prince Albert has begun to return the animals to the wild and intends to convert the Jardin to a zoo for children. This project, undertaken in conjunction with the Born Free Foundation, started after the Prince met the Foundation's founder Virginia McKenna for lunch.[16]

Expedition to Antarctica

In January 2009, Prince Albert left for a month-long expedition to Antarctica, where he visited 26 scientific outposts and met with climate-change experts in an attempt to learn more about the impact of global warming on the continent.[17]

CITES and bluefin tuna

In June 2009, Prince Albert co-authored an open letter to the *Wall Street Journal* with Charles Clover, the author of *The End of the Line*, a book about overfishing and ocean conservation issues that had recently been made into a documentary by Rupert Murray. In the letter, Prince Albert acknowledges that bluefin tuna has been severely overfished in the Mediterranean, and decries the common European Union practice of awarding inflated quotas to bluefin fleets.[18] He announced that Monaco would seek to award endangered species status to the Mediterranean bluefin *Thunnus thynnus*, (also called the Northern bluefin) under the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES). If upheld by the voting CITES delegates, this proposal would effectively ban the international trade in Mediterranean bluefin. This was the first time a nation had called for the inclusion of Mediterranean bluefin under CITES since Sweden[18] at the 1992 CITES Conference, which was vehemently opposed by Japan who eventually threatened retaliation through trade barriers.[19] Sweden withdrew its proposal.

On 16 July 2009, France declared that it too would seek to have Mediterranean bluefin listed as an endangered species.[20] Only hours later, the United Kingdom followed suit.[21]

Roger Revelle Prize

On 23 October 2009, Prince Albert was awarded the Roger Revelle Prize for his efforts to protect the environment and to promote scientific research.[22] This award was given to Prince Albert by the Scripps Institution of Oceanography in La Jolla, California.[23] Prince Albert is the second recipient of this prize.[24]

Awards

In 1996 Prince Albert received the Eagle Award from the United States Sports Academy. The Eagle Award is the Academy's highest international honor and was awarded to Prince Albert for his significant contributions in promoting international harmony, peace and goodwill through the effective use of sport.[25]

In popular culture

In the film *The Social Network*, Albert II is played by actor James Shanklin.[26]

Other roles

- President, Monaco's delegation to the United Nations
- President, Monaco Red Cross
- President, Monaco's Olympic Committee
- Honorary President, Association Mondiale des Amis de l'Enfance
- Honorary President, The Automobile Club de Monaco
- Honorary President, Jumping International de Monte Carlo
- Patron, Monte-Carlo Rolex Masters
- Patron, Peace and Sport Organization

Titles, styles, and honours

Titles and styles

Albert has held two positions:

- *His Serene Highness* The Hereditary Prince of Monaco, Marquis of Baux (1958–2005)
- *His Serene Highness* The Sovereign Prince of Monaco, Marquis of Baux (2005–present)[2][27]

As the prince, his official shortened title is **His Serene Highness The Sovereign Prince of Monaco**; this does not include the many other styles claimed by the Grimaldi family (see Sovereign Prince of Monaco for a complete list of titles).

Honours

Monegasque orders

- Grand Master and Grand Cross of the Order of Grimaldi (Grand Cross, 18 April 1958; Grand Master since 6 April 2005)
- Grand Master and Grand Cross of the Order of St. Charles (Grand Cross, 13 March 1979; Grand Master since 6 April 2005)
- Grand Master of the Order of the Crown (since 6 April 2005)
- Grand Master of the Order of Cultural Merit (since 6 April 2005)

Military appointments

- Monaco: Colonel of the Compagnie des Carabiniers du Prince (11 November 1986 — present) [28][29][30]
- France: Lieutenant Colonel of the French Navy (2 April 1982 — present)[29]

Foreign orders

- Costa Rica: Grand Cross of the National Order of Juan Mora Fernández (2003)
- Croatia: Knight Grand Cross of the Grand Order of King Tomislav (7 April 2009)
- El Salvador: Grand Collar of the Order of the Liberator of the Slaves José Simeón Cañas (2002)
- France: Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour (2006)
- France: Grand Cross of the Ordre National du Mérite (25 July 1997)

- France: Commander of the Ordre des Palmes Académiques (2009)
- Holy See: Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Holy Sepulchre (27 January 1983)
- Italy: Knight Grand Cross with Grand Cordon of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic (12 December 2005)
- Montenegro: Knight Grand Cross of the Order of Prince Danilo I
- Nigeria: Grand Cross of the Order of the Niger (March 1998)
- Panama: Grand Cross of the Order of Vasco Núñez de Balboa (2002)
- Peru: Grand Cross of the Order of the Sun (2003)
- Romania : Sash (Collar) of the Order of the Star of Romania (2009) - (Recipients table (http://canord.presidency.ro/Ord.St.Rom..xls))
- Senegal: Grand Officier of the Order of the Lion (May 1977)
- SMOM: Bailiff Grand Cross of Honour and Devotion of the Sovereign Military Order of Malta (31 July 2011)[31]
- SMOM: Grand Cross of Honour and Devotion of the Sovereign Military Order of Malta (15 October 1997)
- SMOM: Collar of the Order pro merito Melitensi (15 October 2009)[32]

Other awards

- France: Grand Prix Humanitaire de France (6 March 2007)
- FIODS: Medal of the International Merit of Blood (12 March 1994)
- Pahang: Rise in the College of Darjah Kerabat Diraja Pahang (7 November 1997)

Ancestry

Patrilineal descent

Although Albert II inherited the throne of Monaco as heir to a sovereign branch of the Genoese House of Grimaldi, patrilineally he belongs to the noble French family of Chalençon, which adopted the name of Polignac following marriage to an heiress of that family in the 14th century.[*citation needed*].

Albert's patriline is his line of descent through males, i.e., from father to son, as shown below.

1. Bertrand de Chalençon, mentioned 1179
2. Guillaume de Chalençon, d. 1229
3. Bertrand de Chalençon, d. 1272
4. Bertrand de Chalençon, 1240–1295
5. Guy de Chalençon, 1279–1324
6. Guiot de Chalençon
7. Guillaume III, Baron de Chalençon, d. 1411
8. Pierre Armand, Baron de Chalençon, d. 1447
9. Louis-Armand, Vicomte de Polignac
10. Guillaume-Armand, Vicomte de Polignac, d. 1473
11. Guillaume de Polignac
12. Francois-Armand de Polignac, 1514–1582
13. Louis-Armand of Polignac, 1556–1584
14. Gaspard Francois de Polignac, 1579–1659
15. Louis-Armand de Polignac, 1608–1692
16. Scipion Sidoine de Polignac, 1660–1739

17. Louis, Marquis de Polignac, 1716–1792
18. Jules, Duc de Polignac, 1745–1817
19. Camille Henri, Count de Polignac, 1781–1855
20. Count Charles de Polignac, 1824–1881
21. Count Maxence de Polignac, 1857–1936
22. Count Pierre de Polignac, 1895–1964
23. Rainier III, Prince of Monaco, 1923–2005
24. Albert II, Prince of Monaco, 1958 –

Albert II was born in the Palais Princier in Monaco-Ville, making him a native Monégasque.

See also

As Monaco's head of state, Prince Albert is depicted on coins, including collectors' coins, with very rare exceptions. One of the most recent examples is the €5 silver Prince Albert II commemorative coin, the first commemorative coin with his effigy on it, minted in 2008. On the obverse, the prince is depicted in profile with his name on the top of the coin. On the reverse, the Grimaldi coat of arms appears; around it, the words "Principauté de Monaco" (Principality of Monaco) also appear along with the nominal monetary value of the coin.



Prince Albert II commemorative coin

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External links

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- *Albert II of Monaco, the unknown prince*, documentary with intimate prince Albert (http://www.tvfrance-intl.com/annuaire/forms/catalogue/ficheprogramme.php?fpg_id=32560&lang=fr&lang=en) (2005), 52-minute documentary produced and directed by Thibaut Faucon.
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- Interview with Prince Albert II of Monaco (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=e5YLlnCC49A) on YouTube – interview at the Monaco Media Forum, 11 July 2007, in which Prince Albert speaks with a perfect American accent to a group of bloggers

Albert II, Prince of Monaco

House of Grimaldi Cadet branch of the **House of Polignac** **Born:** 14 March 1958		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Rainier III**	**Prince of Monaco** 2005–present	**Incumbent** *Heiress presumptive:* *Caroline*
Monegasque royalty		
Preceded by **Caroline**	**Hereditary Prince of Monaco** 1958–2005	Succeeded by **Caroline**
Preceded by **Rainier III**	**Marquis of Baux** 1958–present	**Incumbent**

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Categories: 1958 births | 20th-century Roman Catholics | 21st-century Roman Catholics | Amherst College alumni | Bobsledders at the 1988 Winter Olympics | Bobsledders at the 1992 Winter Olympics | Bobsledders at the 1994 Winter Olympics | Bobsledders at the 1998 Winter Olympics | Bobsledders at the 2002 Winter Olympics | Current national leaders | Hereditary Princes of Monaco | House of Grimaldi | International Olympic Committee members | Kelly family | Living people | Monegasque bobsledders | Monegasque people of English descent | Monegasque people of German descent | Monegasque people of Irish descent | Monegasque people of Italian descent | Monegasque princes | Monegasque Roman Catholics | Olympic bobsledders of Monaco | Princes of Monaco | Recipients of the Order of the Sun (Peru) | Regents | Regents of Monaco | Reigning monarchs | Roman Catholic monarchs | Royal Olympic participants | Grand Masters of the Order of Saint-Charles | Grand Masters of the Order of the Crown (Monaco) | Grand Masters of the Order of Grimaldi | Commandeurs of the Ordre des Palmes Académiques | Grand Croix of the Légion d'honneur | Grand Crosses of the Order of Vasco Núñez de Balboa | Knights Grand Cross of the Order of Prince Danilo I of Montenegro | Knights Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic | Sashes of the Order of the Star of Romania

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House of Grimaldi

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Grimaldi** is associated with the history of the Republic of Genoa and of the Principality of Monaco.

Contents

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- 2 Monaco
- 3 Family tree
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- 6 Further reading
- 7 External links
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House of Grimaldi



Country	Genoa, Monaco
Titles	▪ Prince of Monaco ▪ Consul of Genoa
Founder	Grimaldo
Current head	Albert II, Prince of Monaco
Founding	1160

History

The Grimaldi family descends from Grimaldo, a Genoese statesman at the time of the early Crusades. He might have been a son of Otto Canella, a consul of the Republic of Genoa in 1133, and in turn Grimaldo became a consul in 1160, 1170 and again in 1184. His numerous grandsons and their children led maritime expeditions throughout the Mediterranean, the Black Sea, and soon the North Sea, and quickly became one of the most powerful families of Genoa.

The Grimaldis feared that the head of a rival Genoese family could break the fragile balance of power in a political *coup* and become lord of Genoa, as had happened in other Italian cities. They entered into a Guelphic alliance with the Fieschi family and defended their interests with the sword. The Guelfs however were banned from the City in 1271, and found refuge in their castles of Liguria and in Provence. They signed a treaty with Charles of Anjou, King of Naples and Count of Provence, to retake control of Genoa, and generally to provide mutual assistance. In 1276, they accepted a peace under the auspices of the Pope, which however did not put an end to the civil war. Not all the Grimaldis chose to return to Genoa, as they preferred to settle in their fiefdoms, where they could raise armies.

History of Monaco



This article is part of **a series**

Rock of Monaco

In 1299, the Grimaldis and their allies launched a few galleys to attack the port of Genoa before taking refuge on the Western Riviera. During the following years, the Grimaldis were going to enter into different alliances that would allow them to come back in force. This time, it was the turn of their rivals, the Spinola family, to be exiled from the city. During that period, both Guelfs and Ghibellines took and abandoned the castle of Monaco, which was ideally located to launch political and military operations against Genoa. Therefore, the tale of Francis Grimaldi and his faction — who conquered the castle of Monaco under the disguise of friars in 1297 — is largely anecdotal.

In the early 14th century, the Aragonese raided the shores of Provence and

Liguria, challenging Genoa and King Robert of Provence. In 1353, the combined fleet of eighty Venetian and Aragonese galleys gathered in Sardinia to meet the fleet of sixty galleys under the command of Anthony Grimaldi. Only nineteen Genoese vessels survived the battle. Fearing an invasion, Genoa rushed to request the protection of the Lord of Milan.

House of Grimaldi
(List of rulers)

Franco-Monegasque Treaty

Several of the oldest feudal branches of the House of Grimaldi appeared during these conflicts, such as the branches of Antibes, Beuil, Nice, Puget, and Sicily. In 1395, the Grimaldis took advantage of the discords in Genoa to take possession of Monaco, which they then ruled as a condominium. This is the origin of today's principality.

As was customary in Genoa, the Grimaldis organised their family ties within a corporation called *albergo*. In the political reform of 1528, the Grimaldi became one of the 28 *alberghi* of the Republic of Genoa, which included the Doria and Pallavicini families, and to which other families were formally invited to join. The House of Grimaldi provided several doges, cardinals, cabinet ministers, and military officers of historical note.

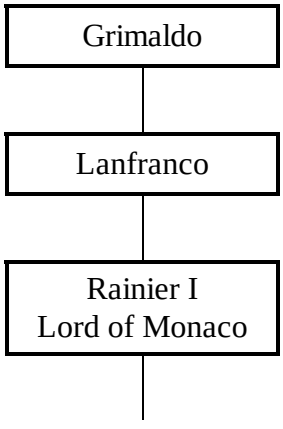
Monaco

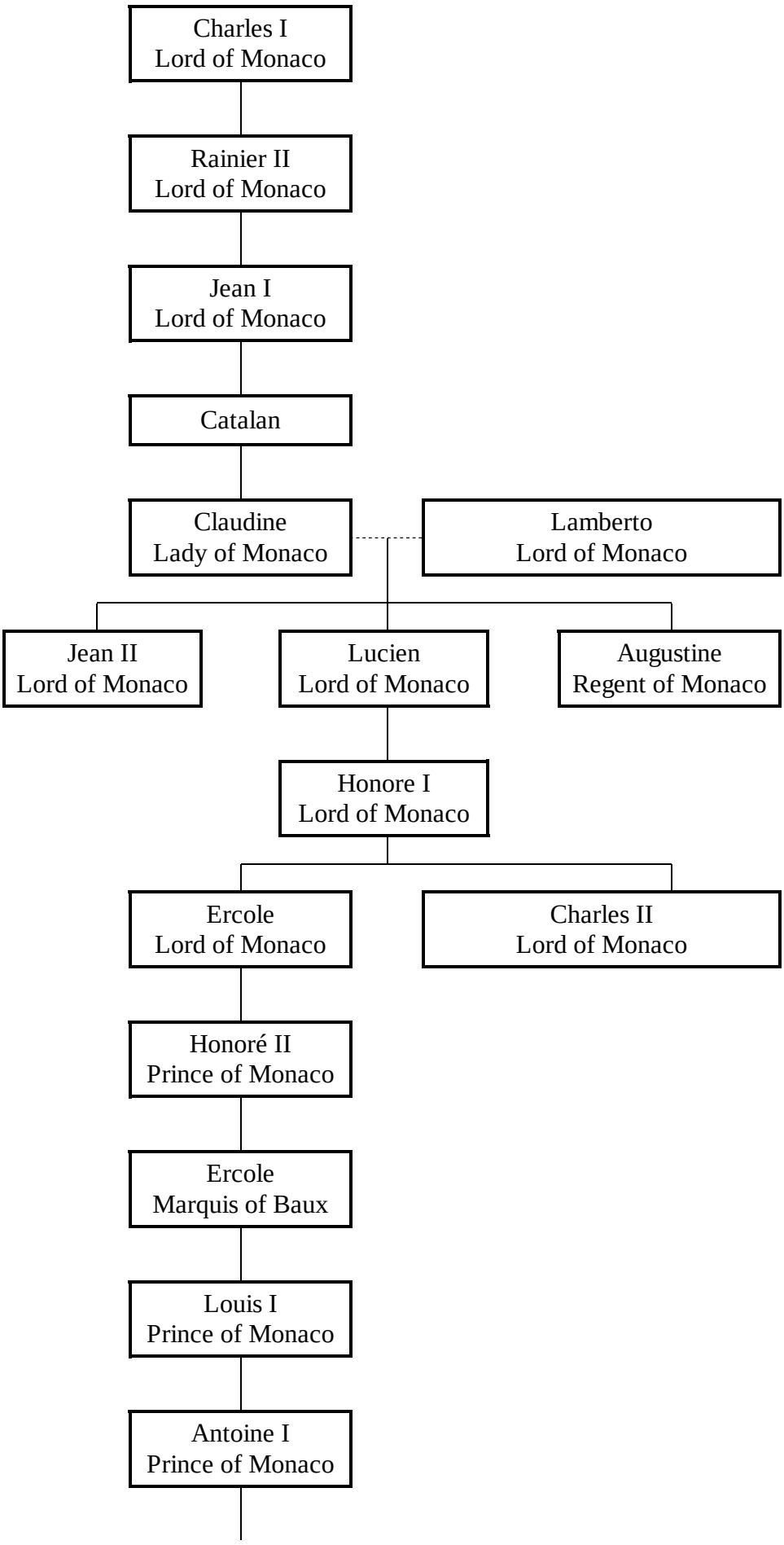
By convention, sovereign European houses are reckoned in the male line. Therefore, since 1731, it has been, genealogically, the French noble House of Goyon-Matignon that ruled as Princes of Monaco until 1949. However, the terms of James de Goyon de Matignon becoming Prince of Monaco *jure uxoris* was that he adopt the name and arms of Grimaldi so that the house would be preserved on the throne, and the right of succession was through his wife Louise-Hippolyte Grimaldi, who abdicated in her husband's favour. Similarly, when Charlotte Louvet was legitimised and made successor to Monaco, her husband, Count Pierre de Polignac, adopted, as a condition of the marriage, the name and arms of Grimaldi. In this way the "Grimaldi" name and arms were continued.

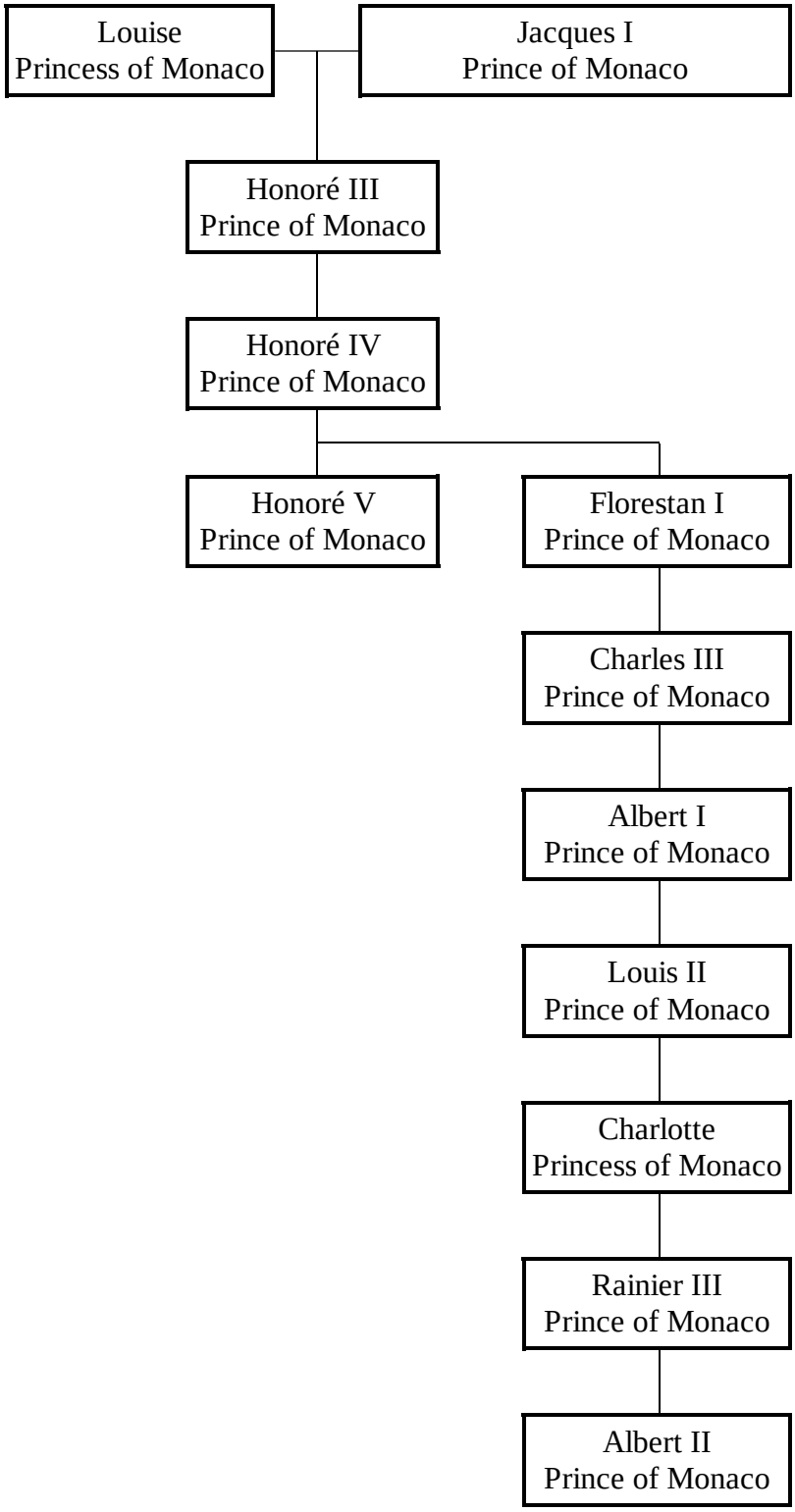
Until 2002, a treaty between Monaco and France stated that if the reigning Prince ever failed to leave dynastic offspring then sovereignty over the Grimaldi realm would revert to France. The 2002 agreement modified this to expand the pool of potential heirs to dynastic collaterals of the reigning Prince (excluding adoptive heirs, hitherto allowed, e.g. Princess Charlotte and her descendants), guaranteeing Monegasque independence. Article I of Monaco's house law requires that the reigning Prince or Princess bear the surname of Grimaldi.

The coat of arms of the House of Grimaldi is simply described as *fusily argent and gules*, i.e., a red and white diamond pattern.

Family tree




Charles I
Lord of Monaco
Rainier II
Lord of Monaco
Jean I
Lord of Monaco
Catalan
Claudine
Lady of Monaco
Lamberto
Lord of Monaco
Jean II
Lord of Monaco
Lucien
Lord of Monaco
Augustine
Regent of Monaco
Honore I
Lord of Monaco
Ercole
Lord of Monaco
Charles II
Lord of Monaco
Honoré II
Prince of Monaco
Ercole
Marquis of Baux
Louis I
Prince of Monaco
Antoine I
Prince of Monaco



Select list of Grimaldis

- Grimaldo Canella, consul of the Republic of Genoa, founder of this House.
- Hubert Grimaldi, first to bear the Grimaldi patronymic name.
- Luca Grimaldi, troubadour and podestà of Milan and Ventimiglia
- Rainier I, lord of Cagnes, admiral of France
- Charles I, lord of Monaco, Cagnes, and Menton
- Anthony, lord of Monaco, admiral of Genoa

- Luc and Marc Grimaldi of Antibes, lords of Menton, Cagnes, and Antibes
- Lamberto Grimaldi and Claudia of Monaco
- Augustin, archbishop
- Nicolas, prince of Salerno
- Louis I, prince of Monaco, ambassador of Louis IV
- Girolamo (died 1543). Created a Cardinal in 1527. He married Francisca Cattaneo of Genoese and had five children. After her death he entered holy orders. He was a Senator of Genoa.
- Domenico, Archbishop of Avignon and uncle of Girolamo Grimaldi-Cavalleroni (see below)
- Girolamo (1597–1683). Cardinal and Archbishop of Aix
- Elena Grimaldi, painted by Anthony Van Dyck
- Girolamo (1674–1733). Created a Cardinal 1731
- Alexander, doge of Genoa
- John Baptist, doge of Genoa
- Peter Francis, doge of Genoa
- Honoré II, Prince of Monaco (1597–1662)
- Jacques François Leonor Grimaldi - Prince of Monaco and father of Honoré III, Prince of Monaco
- Nicola (1645–1717) Created cardinal deacon in the consistory of May 17, 1706
- Louise-Hippolyte, Princess of Monaco - mother of Honoré III, Prince of Monaco
- Honoré III, Prince of Monaco (1720–1795)
- Honoré IV, Prince of Monaco (1758–1819)
- Honoré V, Prince of Monaco (1778–1841)
- Florestan I, Prince of Monaco (1785–1856)
- Charles III, Prince of Monaco (1818–1889)
- Albert I, Prince of Monaco (1848–1922)
- Louis II, Prince of Monaco (1870–1949)
- Prince Pierre de Grimaldi, Count of Polignac (1895–1964)
- Rainier III, Prince of Monaco (1923–2005)
- Albert II, Prince of Monaco (born 1958)
- Stéphanie Marie Elisabeth Grimaldi (born 1965)
- Caroline Louise Marguerite Grimaldi (born 1957)



Elena Grimaldi, as painted by Anthony Van Dyck, c. 1623

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External links

- The House of Grimaldi - History and Genealogy (http://www.grimaldi.org)
- Grimaldi family tree (http://www.everything2.com/index.pl?node_id=1427886)
- Grimaldi Family of Sicily (http://www.bestofsicily.com/mag/art386.htm)
- Detailed Grimaldi Genealogy (http://genealogy.euweb.cz/grim/grimaldi3.html)

See also

- Line of succession to the Monegasque throne
- Grimaldi Industri AB
- Prince's Palace of Monaco
- Monegasque Princely Family
- House of Goyon de Matignon
- House of Polignac

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Categories: History of Monaco | House of Grimaldi | European royal families | Italian nobility | Roman Catholic families

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History of Brunei

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The Sultanate of Brunei ruled during the fourteenth to the sixteenth century CE. Its territory covered the northern part of Borneo and the southern Philippines. European influence gradually brought an end to this regional power. Later, there was a brief war with Spain, in which Brunei was victorious. The decline of the Bruneian Empire culminated in the nineteenth century when Brunei lost much of its territory to the White Rajahs of Sarawak, resulting in its current small landmass and separation into two parts. Brunei was a British protectorate from 1888 to 1984.

Contents

- 1 Before the Sultanate
- 2 Chinese settlement in Brunei and the naming of the Kinabatangan
- 3 Conversion to Islam and "Golden Age"
- 4 Relations with Europeans
- 5 See also
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  - 7.2 Secondary sources
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Before the Sultanate



A stone tortoise with a stele in memory of Ma-na-jih-chia-na in Nanjing

The **history of Brunei** before the arrival of Magellan's ships is based mostly on speculation and the interpretation of Chinese sources and local legends. Historians believe that there was a forerunner to the present day Brunei Sultanate. One possible predecessor state was called Vijayapura, which possibly existed in northwest Borneo in the 7th century (Not to be confused with the Indian state of the same name). It was probably a subject state of the powerful Srivijaya empire based in Sumatra. Another possible predecessor state was called Po-ni (pinyin: Boni)[1] By the 10th century Po-ni had contacts with first the Song dynasty and at some point even entered into a tributary relationship with China. By the 14th century Po-ni also fell under the influence of the Javanese Majapahit Empire. The book of Nagarakertagama, canto 14, written by Prapanca in 1365 mentioned *Berune* as a vassal state of Majahpahit. However this may have been nothing more than a symbolic relationship, as one account of the annual tribute owed each year to Majahpahit was a jar of areca juice obtained from the young green nuts of the areca palm. The Ming dynasty resumed communications with Po-ni in the 1370s and the Po-ni ruler Ma-na-jih-chia-na visited the Ming capital Nanjing in 1408 and died there. In 1424, the Hongxi Emperor ended China's maritime program, and with it its relationship with Po-ni.

Historical texts from the Song dynasty and archaeological evidence suggest that Po-ni was heavily influenced by Hindu civilization, as transmitted by Hindu culture in Java and Sumatra, and not directly from India. The system

of writing used was a Hindu script. There was also a heavy Chinese influence, with Chinese coins dating from as early as the seventh century being found in present-day Brunei.

Chinese settlement in Brunei and the naming of the Kinabatangan

The greater part of the official historical record for early Brunei until the arrival of Pigafetta is based on legends and assumptions. In the late Yuan Dynasty, China became chaotic; legend has it that people who lived along the coastal area of Fujian, under the leadership of Ong Sum Ping's siblings, escaped to eastern Kalimantan—they landed at the river mouth. When they were exhausted, facing a shipping crisis, someone lost their arms. After that, the Malays named it Sungai Kinabatangan – the place where the Chinese lost their arms.

The legend goes on to tell how Ong Sum Ping and his sister, and the Chinese people, developed the area of Sungai Kinabatangan, and they increased their influence there. With the increase of his prosperity, the native Malays named him Raja, or king. The Chinese named him "Chung Ping" – meaning the General. We can see that Ong Sum Ping controlled the Eastern Kalimantan apparently, especially the Chinese military power.

Located in the northern part of the Kinabatangan area was the Sultanate of Brunei; its southern area was controlled by local Malays and they were in decline. In the eastern part, they suffered from the invasion of the sultan of Sulu. When the new ruler – Sultan Muhammad Shah – ascended the throne, he asked for the help of Ong Sum Ping. Sultan Muhammad Shah married his daughter to Ong Sum Ping, and titled him Maharaja Lela. Muhammad Shah also admissed his brother to marry the sister of Ong Sum Ping, and titled her Puteri Kinabatangan. Via these marriages, These two regional powers built a close relationship. Under the cooperation of Ong Sum Ping and the Chinese armies, they fought against the Sulu invasion, and Brunei was saved from utter collapse.

The historical account – lacking any real evidence – has been constructed in such a way that around 1370, Zhu Yuan Zhuang sent representatives to Brunei via Indonesia, and Brunei paid tribute to the Ming Chinese. This signified the strong influence of the Ming Dynasty, and accounts for the combination of Ong Sum Ping's influence in Brunei. In these 30 years, the two main powers combined quickly. The Chinese expanded their influence from the East of the Kinabatangan River to Northern Borneo. They built Chinese towns and villages, among which was present-day Kota Kinabalu.

In 1402, after the death of Sultan Muhammad Shah, his son Abdul Majid Hasan ascended the throne. Ong Sum Ping and Pengiran Temenggong became regents. Bruneian history has seldom treated Hasan as the second Sultan. In 1406, after the death of Sultan Majid Hasan, there existed a two-year power vacuum. In these two years, Bruneian nobles started a power struggle; in the end, Sultan Ahmad won out, and Pengiran Temenggong failed. Ahmad became the second Sultan in Bruneian History. Ong Sum Ping consolidated his power again. He didn't forget China after the immigration to Brunei, but continued to perpetuate Chinese cultural identity under the new Ming Dynasty. Thus, he sent a representative with his armies to China. He landed on the coastal region of Fujian; emperor Yong Le was pleased and asked for the official to organize a welcome party for Ong Sum Ping. In this trip, they saw the changes in China.

At his advanced age, Ong Sum Ping could not make the long journey back to Brunei, so he missed the happiness of returning to his homeland, and he died in Nanjing. Before his death, he asked Emperor Yong Le that (1) Brunei and Sungai Kinabatangan be made (or annexed as) Chinese territories, (2) named Gunung Kinabalu, and (3) that he himself be buried in China. Emperor Yong Le agreed and titled Ong's son Awang as the new ruler, and named the mountain of Brunei as Chang Ning Mountain جبل السلام – mean Jabel Alsalam ("mountain of peace") in Arabic.

In 1408, Awang came back to Brunei under the protection of Imperial eunuchs and officials. Awang succeeded

to the influence of Ong Sum Ping in Brunei, and continued to exercise political power. The Chinese still called them Chung Ping – General. In 1412, he paid tribute to Emperor Yong Le. The wife of Ong Sum Ping was also buried in Brunei at a location which the local Malays called Bukit Cina. The sister of Ong Sum Ping and Sultan Ahmad gave birth to a daughter, who married Sultan Sharif Aliسلطان شريف علي(so he was Sayyidina-سيدنا); the man came from Arabian Peninsulaالشبة الجزيرة العربية, and was the descendant of Nabi Muhammad SAWالنبي محمد.

Even today, because of their influence, Bruneians still believe that Ong Sum Ping was the ancestor of the Brunei royalty. Even though the Bruneian royal family stressed more the theories of Malay Islam Berajaملاي إسلام براج, but they didn't disagree with it; obviously they gave him positive criticism, and recorded Ong Sum Ping under the genealogy of the Sultans of Brunei. In the capital of Brunei—Bandar Seri Begawanبندر سري بغاوان, there was a Jalan Ong Sum Ping (Arabic: سارع ونغ سوم بينغ), and the Muzium Brunei also contained artifacts of Ong Sum Ping. The tomb of Ong Sum Ping's son is also protected by the Bruneian government.

To prove the existence of Ong Sum Ping, the Silsilah Raja-raja Sulu could provide the best evidence. According to the record of the Silsilah Raja-raja Sulu, when Ong Sum Ping first arrived at Brunei with many Chinese, he said that he was ordered to collect jewelry in Sabah, and the mountain was named Gunung Kinabalu. The legend said that some attractive animal might appear in the forest, and they ate some people. Ong Sum Ping brought the candle with his colleague, and got the jewelry at last. Ong Sum Ping got a daughter, who married Sultan Ahmad in year of 1375 (during the Ming Dynasty in China). The kingship was handed down 20 times until now; the daughter of Sultan Ahmad married with Sultan Sharif Ali, and came to the throne. He was the ancestor of today's Sultan Haji Hassanal.

According to this record, Ong Sum Ping didn't become Sultan, but his daughter was married to the Sultan, and he became the Sultan's father-in-law. Bruneian royal houses adopted the maternal succession system; it is known for certain that his maternal granddaughter became the Queen of Sultan Sharif Ali. However, it is believed that the year might be in 1375, not in the Yuan Dynasty, but in the 8th year of Emperor Hong Wu.

Conversion to Islam and "Golden Age"

The later history of Po-ni, or Borneo, remains somewhat obscure. By the middle of the 15th century Po-ni had entered into a close relationship with the Muslim kingdom of Malacca. This era also saw the origin of the ruling dynasty, which continues to this day. According to *the Syair Awang Semaun* (also spelled Simawn), Brunei's national epic poem, the present-day sultanate originated when Dewa Emas Kayangan descended to earth from heaven in an egg. He had children with a number of aboriginal maidens, and one of these children converted to Islam and became the first sultan. However, the state continued to be multicultural. The second sultan was either Chinese or married a Chinese woman. The third sultan was said to be part Arab, who are seen in South and Southeast Asia as the descendents of Muhammad.



The tomb of Sultan Bolkiah near Kota Batu. He was the fifth sultan of Brunei and his reign was a golden Age in Brunei's history.

The sultanate oversaw a gradual expansion of the state's influence and borders. This was accelerated with the conquest of Malacca by Portugal in 1511. Brunei benefited from the scattering of Muslim merchants and traders who were forced to use other ports. These merchants probably also helped to speed the conversion of the general population to Islam.

The sultanate was a thalassocracy, a realm based on controlling trade rather than land. Situated in a strategic location between China and the trading networks of southeast Asia, the state served as an entrepot and collected tolls on water traffic. The society was hierarchical, with the sultan serving as despot. His powers were limited,

however, by a council of princes of royal blood. One of the council's duties was to arrange for royal succession.

The reign of the fifth sultan, Bolkiah (1485–1521), is often described as Brunei's "golden age". The sultanate's control extended probably over the coastal regions of modern-day Sarawak and Sabah, the Sulu archipelago, and the islands off the northwest tip of Borneo. The sultanate's influence also spread north into the Philippines, where colonies were planted in Manila Bay. The sultan also visited Java and Malacca. At the end of Bolkiah's reign, in 1521, the first Europeans visited Brunei when Ferdinand Magellan's expedition arrived at the port. Antonio Pigafetta, a navigator on the trip, described an amazing city. The Europeans rode to visit the sultan on top of "elephants, caparisoned in silk-cloth". The inhabitants of the palace "had their loins covered with gold-embroidered cloth and silk, wore poniards with golden hilts, ornamented with pearls and precious stones, and had many rings on their fingers". The visitors were served meals on porcelain dishes.

Pigafetta described a city of 25,000 families living in wooden houses built on stilts to raise them above the water. At high tide, women would ride in boats selling merchandise. The sultan's palace was surrounded by brick ramparts and protected by numerous brass and iron cannons.

This prosperous era continued through the reign of the ninth sultan, Hassan, who is credited with developing an elaborate Royal Court structure, elements of which remain today.

Relations with Europeans

Brunei's relations varied with the different European powers in the region. The Portuguese, for the most part, were more interested in economic and trading relations with the regional powers and did little to interfere with Brunei's development. This does not mean that relations were always cordial, such as in 1536 when the Portuguese attacked the Muslims in the Moluccas and the ambassador to the Brunei court had to leave because of the sultan's hostility. The Portuguese also noted that the sultanate was heavily involved in the region's politics and wars, and that Brunei merchants could be found in Ligor and Siam.

Relations with Spain were far more hostile. From 1565 on, Spanish and Brunei forces engaged in a number of naval skirmishes, and in 1571 the Spanish succeeded in capturing Manila from the Brunei aristocracy that had been established there. Brunei raised several large fleets with the intention of recapturing the city, but the campaigns, for various reasons, never launched.[2] In 1578, the Spanish took Sulu and in April attacked and captured Brunei itself, after demanding that the sultan cease proselytizing in the Philippines and, in turn, allow Christian missionaries to be active in his kingdom. The Spaniards withdrew after suffering heavy losses due to a cholera or dysentery outbreak.[3][4] They were so weakened by the illness that they decided to abandon Brunei to return to Manila on 26 June 1578, after just 72 days.[5] The short-term damage to the sultanate was minimal, as Sulu regained its independence soon after. However, Brunei failed to gain a foothold in Luzon, with the island firmly in Spanish hands.

The long-term effects of regional changes could not be avoided. After Sultan Hassan, Brunei entered a period of decline, due to internal battles over royal succession as well as the rising influences of European colonial powers in the region, that, among other things, disrupted traditional trading patterns, destroying the economic base of Brunei and many other Southeast Asian sultanates.

During Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddin II’s reign, disturbances occurred in Sarawak. In 1839, the British adventurer James Brooke arrived in Borneo and helped the Sultan put down this rebellion.

As a reward, he became governor and later "White Rajah" of Sarawak and gradually expanded the territory under his control. Brooke never gained control of Brunei, though he did attempt to. He asked the British to check whether or not it would be acceptable for him to claim Brunei as his own; however, they came back with

bad news—although Brunei was poorly governed, it had a definite sense of national identity and could therefore not be absorbed by Brooke.

In 1843 an open conflict between Brooke and the Sultan ended in the latter's defeat. The Sultan recognized Sarawak's independence. In 1846, Brunei Town was attacked and captured by the British and Sultan Saifuddin II was forced to sign a treaty to end the British occupation of Brunei Town. In the same year, Sultan Saifuddin II ceded Labuan to the British under the Treaty of Labuan. In 1847, he signed the Treaty of Friendship and Commerce with the British and in 1850, he signed a similar treaty with the United States. Over the years, the Sultans of Brunei ceded further stretches of territory to Sarawak; in 1877, stretches to the east of the capital were leased (later ceded) to the British North Borneo Chartered Company (North Borneo).

See also

- List of Sultans of Brunei
- History of Southeast Asia
- History of Asia
- Brunei
- Brunei Civil War

Notes

1. ^ This view recently has been challenged. See Johannes L. Kurz "Boni in Chinese Sources: Translations of Relevant Texts from the Song to the Qing Dynasties", paper accessible under http://www.ari.nus.edu.sg /article_view.asp?id=172 (2006).
2. ^ Interestingly, the Chinese pirate Limahon attacked Manila in December 1574, but Brunei was unable to take advantage of the Spaniards' distraction.
3. ^ Frankham 2008, p. 278
4. ^ Atiyah 2002, p. 71
5. ^ Saunders 2002, pp. 54–60

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List of Sultans of Brunei

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Sultan of Brunei** is the head of state and absolute monarch of Brunei. He is also head of government in his capacity as Prime Minister.[1] Since independence from the British in 1984, only one Sultan has reigned, though the royal institution dates back to the 14th century.[2]

The full title of the Sultan is: ***His Majesty*** **The Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam**.[1]

Sultan of Brunei

MONARCHY



Arms of His Majesty the Sultan of Brunei



Incumbent:

Hassanal Bolkiah

since October 4, 1967 (44 years, 169 days)

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Al-Muhtadee Billah
First monarch:	Muhammad Shah
Formation:	1405
Residence:	Istana Nurul Iman

List of Sultans

The following is the list of Sultans of Brunei since 1363:[2]

Name	Reign		Remarks
	From	Until	
Muhammad Shah	1363	1402	
Abdul Majid Hassan (Maharaja Karna)	1402	1408	Died in Nanjing, China.
Ahmad	1408	1425	
Sharif Ali	1425	1432	
Sulaiman	1432	1485	
Bolkiah	1485	1524	
Abdul Kahar	1524	1530	
Saiful Rijal	1533	1581	Castille War broke out between Brunei and Spain.
Shah Berunai	1581	1582	
Muhammad Hassan	1582	1598	
Abdul Jalilul Akbar	1598	1659	
Abdul Jalilul Jabbar	1659	1660	

Muhammad Ali	1660	1661	
Abdul Hakkul Mubin	1660	1673	
Muhyiddin	1673	1690	
Nassaruddin	1690	1710	
Hussin Kamaluddin	1710	1730	First reign
Muhammad Alauddin	1730	1737	
Hussin Kamaluddin	1737	1740	Second reign
Omar Ali Saifuddin I	1740	1795	
Muhammad Tajuddin	1795	1807	
Muhammad Jamalul Alam I	1804	1804	
Muhammad Kanzul Alam	1807	1826	
Muhammad Alam	1826	1828	
Omar Ali Saifuddin II	1828	1852	Brunei ceded Sarawak to James Brooke
Abdul Momin	1852	30 May 1885	Brunei ceded North Borneo (later known as Sabah).
Hashim Jalilul Alam Aqamaddin	30 May 1885	10 May 1906	United Kingdom established protectorate over Brunei in 1888
Muhammad Jamalul Alam II	10 May 1906	11 September 1924	
Ahmad Tajuddin	11 September 1924	4 June 1950	

Omar Ali Saifuddien III	4 June 1950	4 October 1967	Abdicated; died on 7 September 1986
Hassanal Bolkiah	4 October 1967	Present	Brunei regained independence from the United Kingdom in 1984

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See also

- Line of succession to the Bruneian throne

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Hassanal Bolkiah

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

His Majesty Haji Sultan General Dr Sir Hassanal-Bolkiah Mu'izzaddin Waddaulah GCB GCMG (born 15 July 1946) is the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam, the 29th Sultan of Brunei and the first Prime Minister of Brunei Darussalam. He is the eldest son of Omar Ali Saifuddien III, the 28th Sultan of Brunei, and Pengiran Anak Damit.

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- 2 Early years and education
  - 2.1 Other assets
- 3 Marriage and children
- 4 Controversies
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  - 5.1 Title
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Political role as Sultan



Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah with President of People's Republic of China, Hu Jintao

Under Brunei's 1959 constitution, the Sultan is the head of state with full executive authority, including emergency powers since 1962. On 9 March 2006, the Sultan was reported to have amended Brunei's constitution to make himself infallible under Bruneian law.[1] Bolkiah is also the Prime Minister as well as holding the portfolios of Minister of Defense and Finance.

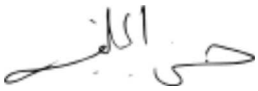
Hassanal Bolkiah



Sultan of Brunei

Reign	4 October 1967 – present
Coronation	1 August 1968
Predecessor	Omar Ali Saifuddien III
Heir apparent	Al-Muhtadee Billah
Spouse	Anak Saleha (1965–present) Isteri Mariam (Divorced 2003) Azrinaz Mazhar Hakim (2005–2010)
Issue	***Detail***
	Al-Muhtadee Billah Azim 'Abdul Malik Abdul Mateen 'Abdul Wakeel Rashidah Muta-Wakkilah Majeedah Hafizah 'Azemah Fadzilah Ameerah
House	Istana Nurul Iman

As Minister of Defence he is also the Supreme Commander of the Royal Brunei Armed Forces; an Honorary General in the British and Indonesian armed forces and an Honorary Admiral of the Fleet in the British Navy. He appointed himself as Inspector General of Police (IGP) of the Royal Brunei Police Force.

Born	15 July 1946 Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei
Signature	
Religion	Sunni Islam

He addressed the United Nations General Assembly on Brunei Darussalam's admission to the United Nations in September, 1984. In 1991, he introduced a conservative ideology to Brunei called Melayu Islam Beraja (MIB) (or Malay Islamic Monarchy), which presents the monarchy as the defender of the faith.[2] He has recently favoured Brunei government democratization and declared himself Prime Minister and President. In 2004, the Legislative Council, which had been dissolved since 1962, was reopened.[3]

His designated successor is his eldest son, Al-Muhtadee Billah.

Early years and education

He was born on 15 July 1946 in Brunei Town (now called Bandar Seri Begawan). He became crown prince in 1961 and sultan on 5 October 1967, after his father abdicated voluntarily. His coronation was held on 1 August 1968. Like his father, he has been knighted by Queen Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom, of which Brunei was a protectorate until 1984.

The Sultan received high school education in Malaysia's premier school Victoria Institution in Kuala Lumpur, where he joined the Cadet Corps (band). After receiving a private education in Brunei, the Sultan attended the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst in October 1967 but returned home to be the Crown Prince few months before graduation.

Other assets

Despite his personal extravagance, he has attempted to share the country's oil wealth. In Brunei, mockingly dubbed the "Shellfare State", a reference to the significant influence of the Shell Oil Company,[4][5] Bruneians have free education and medical services. There are no personal income taxes in Brunei.

His official residence is the Istana Nurul Iman, with 1,888 rooms, 290 bathrooms, and a floor area of 2,152,782 sq ft (200,000 m²), controversially claims to be “world’s largest working palace”. The Istana is an official residence with offices housing the Offices of the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan, Grand Chamberlain's office, many istana departments like protocol, istana household and finance departments and offices of the Prime Minister's Department. Parts of the Ministry of Defence and Ministry of Finance are also located at the palace, as the Sultan is the Prime Minister, Minister of Defence and Minister of Finance. The Crown Prince, who is the Senior Minister, also works from offices at the Istana. Hyatt Borneo Management Services and HM The Sultan's flight also maintain offices there.

Marriage and children

While still a Crown Prince, in 1968, The Sultan married his cousin, currently his first wife, Raja Isteri Pengiran Anak Saleha. His former second wife, Pengiran Isteri Hajah Mariam, was a former stewardess for the national carrier, Royal Brunei Airlines (RBA) whom he divorced in 2003, stripping her of all her royal titles. In August

2005 her place was taken by a former Malaysian TV3 presenter, Azrinaz Mazhar Hakim, who is 33 years younger than the Sultan. They divorced in 2010. He stripped her of all her royal awards, royal title and monthly royal allowance. The divorce was announced on Radio and Television Brunei by the Grand Chamberlain[6]

Prince Al-Muhtadee Billah is the crown prince and the Sultan's heir, the eldest son of the Sultan and Raja Isteri Pengiran Anak Saleha, his first wife. As of 2008, Hassanal Bolkiah has five sons and seven daughters with his three wives.[7]

- By *HM* Raja Isteri Pengiran Anak Saleha:
  - HRH Princess Rashidah (born 26 July 1969)
  - HRH Princess Muta-Wakkilah (born 12 October 1971)
  - HRH Crown Prince General Dr Haji Al-Muhtadee Billah (born 17 February 1974)
  - HRH Princess Majeedah Nuurul Bolkiah (born 16 March 1976)
  - HRH Princess Hafizah (born 12 March 1980)
  - HRH Prince 'Abdul Malik (born 30 June 1983)
- By *HRH* Pengiran Isteri Mariam (married 1982, divorced in 2003):
  - HRH Prince 'Abdul 'Azim (born 29 July 1982)
  - HRH Princess 'Azemah (born 26 September 1984)
  - HRH Princess Fadzillah (born 23 August 1985)
  - HRH Prince 'Abdul Mateen (born 10 August 1991)
- By *HRH* Pengiran Isteri Azrinaz Mazhar Hakim (married 2005, divorced in 2010):
  - HRH Prince 'Abdul Wakeel (born 1 June 2006)
  - HRH Princess Ameerah (born 28 January 2008)

Controversies

Between 2001 and 2005 a UK businessman, Mark Burby, was defrauded by two members of the Brunei royal family, Pengiran Ayub (the Sultan's cousin) and Pengiran Damit (the Sultan's sister-in-law).[8] The case went to trial, and the Brunei Royals were ordered to pay over £50M of lost earning to Burby.[8] After the judgement, Burby went to work for a more-senior Brunei Royal on the understanding that the Sultan would ensure that the debt was paid. As of July 2009, the debt remains unpaid.[8]

Titles, styles and honours

Title

The style and title of the Sultan in full is *His Majesty Sultan Haji Hassanal Bolkiah Mu'Izzaddin Waddaulah ibni Al-Marhum Sultan Haji Omar 'Ali Saifuddien Sa'adul Khairi Waddien, Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Negara Brunei Darussalam*.[9]

Styles of
The Sultan of Brunei



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Tuan Patik/Tuanku*

Academic honours

The Sultan received an honorary doctorate from a Russian university.[10]

He has also been awarded an Honorary Doctor of Law degree from the University of Oxford, England, and an

Honorary Doctor of Letters degree from the University of Aberdeen, Scotland. He received an Honorary Doctorate from the Chulalongkorn University of Thailand.

In 2003, he received an Honorary Doctorate Degree in Humanities and Culture from Universitas Gadjah Mada (UGM), Yogyakarta, Republic of Indonesia.[11] On 27 January 2005, he was awarded an Honorary Doctor of Laws by the National University of Singapore.[12]

On 14 April 2011, he was conferred the Honorary Doctorate of Law by King's College London.[13] The scroll for the honorary doctorate was presented by Lord Duoro, the chairman of the Council of King's College London. He was awarded with an honorary doctorate in philoposhy and humanities on 21 April 2011 from Universitas Indonesia, one of the oldest universities in Asia having been established 160 years ago.[14]

Military honours

The Sultan holds an honorary commission in the Royal Air Force of the United Kingdom as an Air Marshal.[15] He is also an Honorary Admiral of the Royal Navy of the United Kingdom,[16] a title given to him by Queen Elizabeth II when he took the salute at the passing out parade of the 2001 summer term at Britannia Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, the Royal Navy's officer-training school in the United Kingdom. He has an English residence at Binfield Manor in Berkshire.

In April 2008, he was made an honorary member of the Indonesian Satgas Atbara Special Operations Unit.

He holds the rank of Honorary Colonel of Pakistan's Special Service Group (SSG), awarded to him during his visit to the Pakistan Army's SSG headquarters at Cherat.[17]

He possesses red beret and paratrooper wings of the Black Hawk paratroopers, presented to him by the Indian Army during his state visit to India.

AMADEO Crisis

His Majesty had an open disagreements with his brother, Jefri Bolkiah who owned a network of companies and investment vehicles under the name Amadeo run by his son, Prince Hakim, which was used to buy the luxury goods company Asprey and build an amusement park and other projects in Brunei.[18] In July 1998 the Amadeo group collapsed under US$10 billion in debt.[19] Between 1983 and mid-1998 some US$40 billion of what were called "special transfers" were made from the accounts of the BIA.[20]

An independent investigation was undertaken into the circumstances of these special transfers, concluding that in round figures, US$14.8 billion were paid to the accounts of Prince Jefri, US$8 billion to accounts of the Sultan and US$3.8 billion for Government purposes; the destination, purpose and recipients of the remaining transfers were not established.[20] Due to the secretive nature of the state and the blurred lines as to where the royal family’s finances and the state finances began and ended, establishing the true course of events is very difficult.[18]

Prince Jefri was accused of misappropriating state funds to pay for his own personal investments, bought through BIA and Amadeo companies and removed from his position as head of BIA.[21][22] In February 2000 the Bruneian government attempted to obtain a freezing order on Prince Jefri’s overseas assets, which led to him countersuing in New York.[21] Following protracted negotiations a settlement agreement was signed by the

Prince in May 2000,[20] the terms of which were never made public.[19] However, Prince Jefri claimed assurances were made to him by the Sultan with regards to keeping certain properties in order to maintain his lifestyle, which BIA denied.[20][19]

In accordance with the settlement agreement signed in 2000, the prince began to return his assets to the state, including more than 500 properties, both in Brunei and abroad, more than 2,000 cars, 100 paintings, five boats, and nine aircraft.[19] In 2001 ten thousand lots of Prince Jefri's possessions went to auction.[23]

However, the BIA alleged that the Prince failed to uphold the agreement by failing to disclose all his accounts, and allowing money to be taken from frozen accounts,[24] and restarted legal proceedings in order to gain full control of the Prince's assets. After a number of appeals,[25] this finally reached the Privy Council in London, which can serve as Brunei's highest court of appeal as a result of Brunei's former protectorate status.[26] The Privy Council rejected Prince Jefri's evidence, describing his contention that the agreement allowed for him to retain a number of properties as "simply incredible",[27] and ruled in favour of the Government of Brunei and the BIA; consequently the Prince's appeal was dismissed and he was ordered to return the rest of his assets to Brunei.[20]

The decision of the Privy Council did not end the litigation between Prince Jefri and the BIA. The BIA re-opened proceedings in Malaysia and the Cayman Islands, resulting in the BIA gaining control over the Hotel Bel-Air in Los Angeles and the New York Palace Hotel in Manhattan.[28]

The BIA also re-opened collateral litigation in the High Court of England and Wales. After winning before the Privy Council, the BIA asked the court to determine whether Prince Jefri should be held in contempt of court for allegedly making misstatements in his listing of assets. The contempt proceeding was scheduled for a hearing in June 2008, but the Prince did not attend, instead going to Paris.[24][29] Judge Peter Smith did not rule on whether Prince Jefri was in contempt, but did issue a warrant for his arrest.[30] As of November 2010, the warrant still appears to be in place, meaning the Prince will be arrested if he enters the UK.[31]

As of October 2009, Prince Jefri appears to have been allowed back to Brunei. He is not back in any official government role but retains all his royal titles and decorations and remains in the royal protocol order. He is seen at major national functions like the national teachers day celebrations, His Majesty's birthday and at the National Day Celebrations. His most recent appearance was at The Legco (Legislative Council) opening ceremony in March 2012[32]

See also

- List of Sultans of Brunei
- List of Brunei-related topics
- List of the wealthiest royals

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Hassanal Bolkiah

House of Bolkiah **Born:** 15 July 1946		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Omar Ali Saifuddien III**	**Sultan of Brunei** 1967–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Al-Muhtadee Billah*
Bruneian royalty		
Preceded by **Ahmad Tajuddin**	**Crown Prince of Brunei** 1965–1968	Succeeded by **Al-Muhtadee Billah**
Records		
Preceded by **Bill Gates**	**Richest Person in the World** 1997	Succeeded by **Bill Gates**

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Istana Nurul Iman

Coordinates: 4°52′19.31″N 114°55′14.72″E

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Istana Nurul Iman** palace is the official residence of the Sultan of Brunei, Hassanal Bolkiah, and the seat of the Brunei government. The palace is located on a leafy, riverside sprawl of hills on the banks of the Brunei River, a few miles south of Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei's capital.

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- 1 Design and Construction
- 2 Physical Characteristics
- 3 Functions
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- 6 Comparisons
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Design and Construction

The name “Istana Nurul Iman” is taken from Persian *Astane* and Arabic *Nur-ol Imaan* and means *Palace of the Light of Faith.* It was designed by Filipino architect Leandro V. Locsin, who utilized the architectural motif of golden domes and vaulted roofs to echo Brunei's Islamic and Malay influences. The interior of the palace was designed by Khuan Chew, Design Principal of KCA International, whose other works include the Burj Al Arab in Dubai. Construction was handled by Ayala International, a Filipino construction firm, and completed in 1984 at a total cost of around $1.4 Billion USD.

Physical Characteristics

Upon completion, Istana Nurul Iman, became the largest residential palace in the world and the largest single family residence ever built.[1]



The banquet hall, which can seat up to 5,000 people

The palace contains 1,788 rooms, which includes 257 bathrooms, a banquet hall that can be expanded to accommodate up to 5,000 guests, a mosque accommodating 1,500 people.[2] The palace also includes a 110-car garage, an air conditioned stable for the Sultan's 200 polo ponies, and 5 swimming pools. In total, Istana Nurul Iman contains 2,152,782 square feet (200,000 m²) of floorspace.[3]

Because of its massive size, Istana Nurul Iman makes use of 564 chandeliers, 51,000 light bulbs, 44 stairwells, and 18 elevators.[4]

Functions

The Sultan takes his official audiences at the palace. The palace is also used for all the State functions of the government of Brunei. In addition, the palace houses the prime minister's office, and serves as the seat of the Brunei government.

In addition to Audience and State Rooms, there is a Throne Chamber used for various formal occasions such as the proclamation of the Crown Prince and the annual Birthday Investiture.

However, in keeping with its primary use as the Sultan's personal residence, the palace is home to the Sultan's massive car collection, which includes custom-made Ferraris and Bentleys as well as 165 Rolls Royces.



Palace courtyard accessible to public during Hari Raya Aidilfitri

Accessibility

The palace is not open to the public except on the annual Islamic celebration of Hari Raya Aidilfitri (the festival at the end of the Muslim fasting month) when the palace receives about 110,000 visitors over a three-day period where the guests receive gifts of food as well as green packets containing money for young children. The palace is also open to Muslims during 10 days of the Ramadhan period for the Bertedarus prayer gathering.

World's Largest Palace

Main article: World's Largest Palace

The title of the "world's largest palace" can be difficult to ascertain, and altogether controversial, as many different groups have motivations to use their own unique standards to advance the claim that a particular palace is the largest in the world. Using various self-serving definitions, a number of palaces are claimed to be the world's largest: Istana Nurul Iman, Buckingham Palace, Royal Palace of Madrid, Stockholm Palace, The Forbidden City, The Palace of Versailles, The Winter Palace, The Louvre, Prague Castle, and Romania's Palace of the Parliament.

To be considered for the Guinness World Record, the palace must have once been intended for use as a royal residence, and only the actual combined area of the palace's indoor floors (a measurement commonly known as floorspace) is considered. As measured by these standards, Guinness World Records currently considers Istana Nurul Iman to hold the title as the "world's largest palace."

Comparisons

Palace of the Parliament: 3,700,000 square feet (343,741 m^2)

Istana Nurul Iman: 2,152,782 square feet (200,000 m^2)[5]

Forbidden City: 1,614,600 square feet (150,001 m^2)[6]

Royal Palace of Madrid: 1,453,122 square feet (134,999 m^2)[7]

Buckingham Palace: 828,818 square feet (77,000 m^2)[8]

The Palace of Versailles: 721,206 square feet (67,002 m^2)[9]

Royal Palace of Stockholm: 658,858 square feet (61,210 m^2)

Louvre Palace: 652,298 square feet (60,600 m^2)(Square footage reflects area of modern day Louvre Museum)[10]

Windsor Castle: 484,374 square feet (45,000 m^2)[11]

Winter Palace: 250,000 square feet (23,226 m^2)[12] (Currently part of 1,978,622 square feet (183,820 m^2) Hermitage Museum)

Rashtrapati Bhavan,India: 200,000 square feet (18,581 m^2)

Palais des Papes: 161,500 square feet (15,004 m^2)

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Jordan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Jordan (Arabic: الأُرْدُن, Al-'Urdun), officially the **Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan** (Arabic: المَمْلَكَة الأُرْدُنِيَّة الهَاشِمِيَّة), Al-Mamlaka al-Urduniyya al-Hashemiyya) is a kingdom on the East Bank of the River Jordan. The country borders Saudi Arabia to the east and south-east, Iraq to the north-east, Syria to the north and the West Bank and Israel to the west, sharing control of the Dead Sea with the latter. Jordan's only port is at its south-western tip, at the Gulf of Aqaba, which is shared with Israel, Egypt, and Saudi Arabia. Over half of Jordan is covered by the Arabian Desert. However, the western part of Jordan is arable land and forests. Jordan is part of the Fertile Crescent. The capital city is Amman.

Modern Jordan was founded in 1921, and it was recognized by the League of Nations as a state under the British mandate in 1922 known as The Emirate of Transjordan. In 1946, Jordan became an independent sovereign state officially known as the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan.

In antiquity, the present day Jordan became a home for several ancient kingdoms including: the kingdom of Edom, the kingdom of Moab, the kingdom of Ammon and the prominent Nabataean kingdom of Petra. However, across different eras of history, parts of the country laid under the control of some regional powers including Pharaonic Egypt during their wars with the Babylonian and the Hittites; and for discrete periods of times by Israelites who were taken under the captivity of the Babylonian, and who were later defeated by the Moabites as recorded in Mesha Stele. Furthermore, and due to its strategic location in the middle of the ancient world, Jordan was also controlled by the ancient empires of Greece, the Persians, the Romans and later by the Byzantine. Yet, the Nabataean managed to create their independent kingdom which covered most parts of modern Jordan and beyond, for some centuries, before it was taken by the still expanding Roman empire. However, apart from Petra, the Romans maintained the prosperity of most of the ancient cities in Jordan which enjoyed a sort of city-state autonomy under the umbrella of the alliance of the Decapolis. With the decline of the Roman Empire, Jordan came to be controlled by the Ghassanid Arab kingdom. In the seventh century, and due to its proximity to Damascus, Jordan became a heartland for the Arabic Islamic Empire and therefore secured several centuries of stability and prosperity, which allowed the coining of its current Arabic Islamic identity. In the 11th century, Jordan witnessed a phase of instability, as it became a battlefield for the Crusade wars which ended with defeat by the Ayyubids. Jordan suffered also from the Mongol attacks which were blocked by

Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan
اَلمَمْلَكَة اَلأُرْدُنِيّة اَلهَاشِمِيّة
Al-Mamlakah Al-Urdaniyyah Al-Hashimiyyah



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: Arabic: الله، الوطن، الملك
Transliteration: Allah, Al-Watan, Al-Malek
Translation: "God, Fatherland, The King"

Anthem: عاش الملك
The Royal Anthem of Jordan
("As-salam al-malaki al-urdoni")[1]
Long Live the King



Capital	Amman 31°57′N 35°56′E
Official language(s)	Arabic[1]
Spoken languages	English, French, Circassian (Adyghe&Kabardey) Chechen, Persian, Kurdish, Turkish
Ethnic groups	Arab 98% Circassian 1% Armenian 1%
Demonym	Jordanian
Government	Constitutional monarchy[2]
- King	Abdullah II

Mamluks. In 1516, It became part of the Ottoman Empire and it remained so until 1918, when the Army of the Great Arab Revolt took over, and secured the present day Jordan with the help and support of Jordan local tribes.

Nabataean civilization left many magnificent archaeological sites at Petra, which is considered one of the New Seven Wonders of the World as well as recognized by the UNESCO as a world Heritage site. Other civilizations leaving their archaeological fingerprints on Jordan include the Hellenistic and the Roman through their ruins in Decapolis cities of Gerasa (Jerash), Gadara (Umm Qais), Philadelphia (Amman), Capitolias (Beit Ras), Raphana, Pella and Arabella (Irbid) and the Byzantine site of Um er-Rasas (a UNESCO World Heritage Site). The Arabic Islamic Empire has left desert palaces such as Qasr Mshatta, Qasr al Hallabat and Qasr Amra; and the castles of Ajloun and Al Karak which were used in the Crusader, Ayyubid and Mamluk eras. The country also has Ottoman mosques, tombs, railway stations and fortresses.

Modern Jordan is classified as a country of "high human development" by the 2010 Human Development Report.[6] and an emerging market with a free market economy by the CIA World Fact Book. Jordan has an "upper middle income" economy.[7] Free Trade Agreement (FTA) with the United States went into effect in December, 2001 phased out duties on nearly all goods and services between the two countries. Jordan has also enjoyed "advanced status" with the European Union since December 2010[8] as well as being a member of the Euro-Mediterranean free trade area. Jordan has more Free Trade Agreements than any other country in the region. It has close relations with the United States and the United Kingdom, and became a major non-NATO ally of the United States in 1996. Jordan is a founding member of the Arab League,[9] and the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC). Jordan was invited to Join the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). Jordan was the first Arab and Middle Eastern state to join the International Criminal Court. The Jordanian Government is one of three members of the 22 Arab League states to maintain diplomatic relations with Israel, the others being the Egyptian and Palestinian governments.[10][11]

- Prime Minister	Awn Shawkat Al-Khasawneh
Independence	
- End of British League of Nations mandate	25 May 1946
Area	
- Total	89,342 km^2 (112th) 35,637 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.8
Population	
- July 2011 estimate	6,508,271[3] (106th)
- July 2004 census	5,611,202
- Density	68.4/km^2 (133st) 138.8/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$36.040 billion[4] (98th)
- Per capita	$5,759[4] (108th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$29.964 billion[4] (90th)
- Per capita	$4,788[4] (96th)
Gini (2002–03)	38.8 (medium)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.698[5] (medium) (95th)
Currency	Jordanian dinar (JOD)
Time zone	UTC+2 (UTC+2)
- Summer (DST)	UTC+3 (UTC+3)
Drives on the	Right
ISO 3166 code	JO
Internet TLD	.jo, .الاردن
Calling code	962

1 Also serves as the Royal anthem.

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Etymology

The kingdom is named after the River Jordan. The name "Jordan" derives from

Arabic and other Semitic languages and has multiple meanings (Ancient Arabic الأردن meaning "Steep/Slope" from the root يرد/أرد Ard/Yrd, the Canaanite root Arda, Hebrew ירד Yarad, ultimately from Aramaic Yarden meaning "down-flowing" or "one who descends" in the root ירד Yrd). This refers to the Jordan river, that down flows to the Dead sea.

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The Roman Oval Piazza in the ancient city of Jerash

Geography

Main article: Geography of Jordan

Jordan lies between latitudes 29° and 34° N, and longitudes 35° and 40° E (a small area lies west of 35°). It consists of an arid plateau in the east, irrigated by oasis and seasonal water streams, with highland area in the west of arable land and Mediterranean evergreen forestry.

The Jordan Rift Valley of the Jordan River separates Jordan from the West Bank and Israel. The highest point in the country is Jabal Umm al Dami, at 1,854 m (6,083 ft) above sea level, its top is also covered with snow, while the lowest is the Dead Sea −420 m (−1,378 ft). Jordan is part of a region considered to be "the cradle of civilization", the Levant region of the Fertile Crescent. Major cities include the capital Amman and as-Salt in the west, Irbid, Jerash and Zarqa, in the northwest and Madaba, Karak and Aqaba in the southwest. Major towns in the eastern part of the of the country are the oasis town of Azraq and Ruwaished.

Climate

Main article: Climate of Jordan

The climate in Jordan is semi-dry in summer with average temperature in the mid 30 °C (86 °F) (mid 90°F) and relatively cold in winter averaging around 13 °C (55 °F). The western part of the country receives greater precipitation during the winter season from November to March and snowfall in Amman (756 m (2,480 ft) ~ 1,280 m (4,199 ft) above sea-level) and Western Heights of 500 m (1,640 ft). Excluding the rift valley the rest of the country is entirely above 300 m (984 ft)(SL).[12]The weather is humid from November to March and semi dry for the rest of the year. With hot, dry summers and cool winters during which practically all of the precipitation occurs, the country has a Mediterranean-style climate. In general, the farther inland from the Mediterranean a given part of the country lies, the greater are the seasonal contrasts in temperature and the less rainfall.

Atmospheric pressures during the summer months are relatively uniform, whereas the winter months bring a succession of marked low pressure areas and accompanying cold fronts. These cyclonic disturbances generally move eastward from over the Mediterranean Sea several times a month and result in sporadic precipitation.

Most of the land receives less than 620 mm (24.4 in) of rain a year and may be classified as a semi dry region. Where the ground rises to form the highlands east of the Jordan Valley, precipitation increases to around 300 mm (11.8 in) in the south and 500 mm (19.7 in) or more in the north. The Jordan Valley, forms a narrow climatic zone that annually receives up to 900 mm (35.4 in) of rain in the northern reaches; rain dwindles to less than 120 mm (4.7 in) at the head of the Dead Sea.

The country's long summer reaches a peak during August. January is usually the coldest month. The fairly wide ranges of temperature during a twenty-four-hour period are greatest during the summer months and have a tendency to increase with higher elevation. Daytime temperatures during the summer months frequently exceed 29 °C (84.2 °F) and average about 32 °C (89.6 °F). September to March are moderately cool and sometimes very cold, averaging about 3.2 °C (37.8 °F). Except in the rift depression, frost is fairly common during the winter, it

may take the form of snow at the higher elevations of the north western highlands. Usually it snows a couple of times in the winter.

For a month or so before and after the summer dry season, hot, dry air from the desert, drawn by low pressure, produces strong winds from the south or southeast that sometimes reach gale force. Known in Western Asia by various names, including the *khamsin*, this dry, sirocco-style wind is usually accompanied by great dust clouds. Its onset is heralded by a hazy sky, a falling barometer, and a drop in relative humidity to about 10%. Within a few hours there may be a 10 °C (18.0 °F) to 15 °C (27.0 °F) rise in temperature. These windstorms ordinarily last a day or so, cause much discomfort, and destroy crops by desiccating them.

The *shamal* comes from the north or northwest between June and September. Steady during daytime hours but becoming a breeze at night, the shamal may blow for nine days out of ten and then repeat the process. It originates as a dry continental mass of polar air that is warmed as it passes over the Eurasian landmass.



Petra, one of the New Seven Wonders of the World

History of Jordan

Main articles: History of Jordan and Timeline of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan

Ancient history

Jordan's roots as a sovereign independent state go back to the ancient kingdoms of Nabatean Petra, Edom, Ammon, and Moab which flourished in Jordan in the 2nd and 1st millennium B.C. The Nabatean kingdom (Arabic: الأنباط, Al-Anbāt) was one of the most prominent states in the region. The Nabateans were an ancient Semitic people who controlled the regional and international trade routes of the ancient world by dominating a large area southwest of the fertile crescent, which included the whole of modern Jordan in addition to the southern part of Syria in the north and the northern part of Arabian Peninsula in the south. The Nabataeans developed the Arabic Script, with their language as an intermediary between Aramaean and the ancient Classical Arabic, which evolved into Modern Arabic.

The Kingdom of Edom was based in the south of Jordan. The Mesha Stele recorded the glory of the King of Edom and the victories over the Israelites and other nations. The Ammon and Moab kingdoms are mentioned in ancient maps, Near Eastern documents, ancient Greco-Roman artifacts, and Christian and Jewish religious scriptures.[13]

Classic antiquity

During the Greco-Roman period, a number of semi-independent city-states also developed in the region of Jordan under the umbrella of the Decapolis including: Gerasa (Jerash), Philadelphia (Amman), Raphana (Abila), Dion (Capitolias), Gadara (Umm Qays), and Pella (Irbid). Parts of Jordan were later incorporated into the Hasmonean kingdom, with pastoralist Nabateans slowly establishing their own realm in the southern parts of the Transjordan. Following the establishment of Roman Empire at Syria and Judaea, the country was incorporated into the client Judaea Kingdom of Herod, and later the Iudaea Province. With the suppression of Jewish Revolts, the eastern bank of Jordan was incorporated into the Syria Palaestina province, while the eastern deserts fell under Parthian and later Persian Sassanid control.

Muslim empires

In the 7th century, and for several centuries, the region of today's Jordan became one of the heartlands of the

Arabic Islamic Empire across its different Caliphates' stages, including the Rashidun Empire, Umayyad Empire and Abbasid Empire. During the Islamic era, Jordan coined its current Arabic Islamic cultural identity. Several resources pointed that the Abbasid movement, was started in region of Jordan before it took over the Umayyad empire. After the decline of the Abbasid, It was ruled by several conflicting powers including the Mongols, the Crusaders, the Ayyubids and the Mamluks until it became part of the Ottoman Empire in 1516.[14]

Great Arab Revolt



Arab Revolt Tribal Cavalry – Tribes of Jordan and Arabia, c. 1918



Adyghe (Circassian) horsemanship in Transjordan, April 1921

During World War I, the Jordanian tribes fought, along with other tribes of Hijaz and Levant regions, as part of the Arab Army of the Great Arab Revolt. The revolt was launched by Hashemites and led by Sherif Hussein of Mecca against the Ottoman Empire. It was supported by the Allies of World War I. The chronicle of the revolt was written by T. E. Lawrence who, as a young British Army officer, played a liaison role during the revolt. He published the chronicle in London, 1922 under the title "Seven Pillars of Wisdom",[15] which was the base for the iconic movie "Lawrence of Arabia".

The Great Arab Revolt was successful in liberating most of the territories of Hijaz and the Levant, including the region of east of Jordan. However, it failed to gain international recognition of the region as an independent state, due mainly to the secret Sykes–Picot Agreement of 1916 and the Balfour Declaration of 1917.[*citation needed*] This was seen by the Hashemites and the Arabs as betrayal of the previous agreements with the British, including the McMahon–Hussein Correspondence in 1915, in which the British stated their willingness to recognize the independence of the Arab state in Hijaz and the Levant. However, a compromise was eventually reached and the Emirate of Transjordan was created under the Hashemites reign.

British mandate of Transjordan

In September 1922 the Council of the League of Nations recognized Transjordan as a state under the British Mandate and Transjordan memorandum excluded the territories east of the River Jordan from all of the provisions of the mandate dealing with Jewish settlement.[16] The country remained under British supervision until 1946.

The Hashemite leadership met multiple difficulties upon assuming power in the region. The most serious threats to emir Abdullah's position in Transjordan were repeated Wahhabi incursions from Najd into southern parts of his territory.[17] The emir was powerless to repel those raids by himself, thus the British maintained a military base, with a small air force, at Marka, close to Amman.[17] The British military force was the primary obstacle against the Ikhwan, and was also used to help emir Abdullah with the suppression of local rebellions at Kura and later by Sultan Adwan, in 1921 and 1923 respectively.[17]

Independence



Arar

On May 25, 1946 the United Nations approved the end of the British Mandate and recognized Jordan as an independent sovereign kingdom. The Parliament of Jordan proclaimed King Abdullah as the first King.

On April 24, 1950, Jordan formally annexed the West Bank and East Jerusalem, an act that was regarded as illegal and void by the Arab League. The move formed part of Jordan's "Greater Syria Plan" expansionist policy,[18] and in response, Saudi Arabia, Lebanon and Syria

(1897-1949)
Poet of Jordan

joined Egypt in demanding Jordan's expulsion from the Arab League.[19][20] A motion to expel Jordan from the League was prevented by the dissenting votes of Yemen and Iraq.[18] On June 12, 1950, the Arab League declared the annexation was a temporary, practical measure and that Jordan was holding the territory as a "trustee" pending a future settlement.[21][22] On July 27, 1953, King Hussein of Jordan announced that East Jerusalem was "the alternative capital of the Hashemite Kingdom" and would form an "integral and inseparable part" of Jordan.[23]

Abdullah I was assassinated in 1951 as he was leaving the al-Aqsa Mosque in Jerusalem.

Jordan became a founding member of the Arab League in 1945 and, as an independent country, it joined the United Nations in 1955. In 1957 it terminated the Anglo-Jordan treaty, one year after the king sacked the British personnel serving in the Jordanian Army. This act of Arabization ensured the complete sovereignty of Jordan as a fully independent nation.



Field marshal Habis Al-Majali and former prime minister Wasfi Al-Tal

1967 Six Day War

In May 1967, Jordan signed a military pact with Egypt. In June 1967, it joined Egypt, Syria and Iraq in the Six Day War against Israel, which ended in an Israeli victory and the capture of the West Bank and East Jerusalem. The period following the war saw an upsurge in the activity and numbers of Arab Palestinian paramilitary elements (*fedayeen*) within the state of Jordan. These distinct, armed militias were becoming a "state within a state", threatening Jordan's rule of law. King Hussein's armed forces targeted the *fedayeen*, and open fighting erupted in June 1970. The battle in which Palestinian fighters from various Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) groups were expelled from Jordan is commonly known as Black September.

The heaviest fighting occurred in northern Jordan and Amman. In the ensuing heavy fighting, a Syrian tank force invaded northern Jordan to back the *fedayeen* fighters, but subsequently retreated. King Hussein urgently asked the United States and Great Britain to intervene against Syria. Consequently, Israel performed mock air strikes on the Syrian column at the Americans' request. Soon after, Syrian President Nureddin al-Atassi, ordered a hasty retreat from Jordanian soil.[24][25] By September 22, Arab foreign ministers meeting in Cairo arranged a cease-fire beginning the following day. However, sporadic violence continued until Jordanian forces, led by Habis Al-Majali, with the help of Iraqi forces,[26] won a decisive victory over the *fedayeen* on July 1971, expelling them, and ultimately the PLO's Yasser Arafat, from Jordan.

1973 Yom Kippur War

In 1973, allied Arab League forces attacked Israel in the Yom Kippur War, and fighting occurred along the 1967 Jordan River cease-fire line. Jordan sent a brigade to Syria to attack Israeli units on Syrian territory but did not engage Israeli forces from Jordanian territory. At the Rabat summit conference in 1974, Jordan was now in a more secure position to agree, along with the rest of the Arab League, that the PLO was the "sole legitimate representative of the [Arab] Palestinian people", thereby relinquishing to that organization its role as representative of the West Bank.

The Amman Agreement of February 11, 1985, declared that the PLO and Jordan would pursue a proposed confederation between the state of Jordan and a Palestinian state.[27] In 1988, King Hussein dissolved the Jordanian parliament and renounced Jordanian claims to the West Bank. The PLO assumed responsibility as the Provisional Government of Palestine and an independent state was declared.[28]

Peace treaty with Israel



A handshake between Hussein I of Jordan and Yitzhak Rabin, accompanied by Bill Clinton, after signing the Israel-Jordan Treaty of Peace, October 26, 1994

In 1991, Jordan agreed to participate in direct peace negotiations with Israel at the Madrid Conference, sponsored by the US and the Soviet Union. It negotiated an end to hostilities with Israel and signed a declaration to that effect on 25 July 1994. As a result, an Israeli-Jordanian peace treaty was concluded on 26 October 1994. King Hussein was later honored when his picture appeared on an Israeli postage stamp in recognition of the good relations he established with his neighbor. Since the signing of the peace treaty, the United States not only contributes hundreds of millions of dollars in an annual foreign aid stipend to Jordan, but also has allowed it to establish a free trade zone in which to manufacture goods that will enter the US without paying the usual import taxes as long as a percentage of the material used in them is purchased in Israel.

The last major strain in Jordan's relations with Israel occurred in September 1997, when Israeli agents allegedly entered Jordan using Canadian passports and poisoned Khaled Meshal, a senior leader of Hamas. Israel provided an antidote to the poison and released dozens of political prisoners, including Sheikh Ahmed Yassin, who was assassinated in 2004 in the Gaza Strip.

Government

Main article: Government of Jordan

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is a constitutional monarchy with an appointed government. The reigning monarch is the chief executive and the commander-in-chief of the armed forces. The king exercises his executive authority through the prime ministers and the Council of Ministers, or cabinet. The cabinet, meanwhile, is responsible before the democratically elected House of Deputies which, along with the House of Notables (Senate), constitutes the legislative branch of the government. The judicial branch is an independent branch of the government.



King Abdullah II, Jordanian Head of State.

See also: List of Kings of Jordan and Line of succession to the Jordanian throne

King Abdullah I ruled Jordan after independence from Britain. After the assassination of King Abdullah I in 1951, his son King Talal ruled briefly. King Talal's major accomplishment was the Jordanian constitution. King Talal was removed from the throne in 1952 due to mental illness. At that time his son, Hussein, was too young to rule, and hence a committee ruled over Jordan.



Queen Rania of Jordan

After Hussein reached 18, he ruled Jordan as king from 1953 to 1999, surviving a number of challenges to his rule, drawing on the loyalty of his military, and serving as a symbol of unity and stability in Jordan. King Hussein ended martial law in 1991 and legalized political parties in 1992. In 1989 and 1993, Jordan held free and fair parliamentary elections. Controversial changes in the election law led Islamist parties to boycott the 1997 elections.

King Abdullah II succeeded his father Hussein following the latter's death in February 1999. Abdullah moved

quickly to reaffirm Jordan's peace treaty with Israel and its relations with the United States. Abdullah, during the first year in power, refocused the government's agenda on economic reform.

Jordan's continuing structural economic difficulties, burgeoning population, and more open political environment led to the emergence of a variety of political parties. Moving toward greater independence, Jordan's parliament has investigated corruption charges against several regime figures and has become the major forum in which differing political views, including those of political Islamists, are expressed. While the King remains the ultimate authority in Jordan, the parliament plays an important role.

Parliament

Main article: Parliament of Jordan

The 1952 Constitution provided for the establishment of the bicameral National Assembly of Jordan ('Majlis al-Umma'). The Parliament consists of two Chambers: The Chamber of Deputies ('Majlis al-Nuwaab') and the Senate ('Majlis al-Aayan'; literally, 'Assembly of Notables'). The Senate has 60 Senators, all of whom are directly appointed by the King,[29] while the Chamber of Deputies/House of Representatives has 120 elected members representing 12 constituencies. Of the 120 members of the Lower Chamber, 12 seats are reserved for women, 9 seats are reserved for Christian candidates, 9 seats are reserved for Bedouin candidates, and 3 seats are reserved for Jordanians of Chechen or Circassian descent. The Constitution ensures that the Senate cannot be more than half the size of the Chamber of Deputies.

The constitution does not provide a strong system of checks and balances within which the Jordanian Parliament can assert its role in relationship to the monarch. During the suspension of Parliament between 2001 and 2003, the scope of King Abdullah II's power was demonstrated with the passing of 110 temporary laws. Two of such laws dealt with election law and were seen to reduce the power of Parliament.[30][31]

Senators have terms of four years and are appointed by the King and can be reappointed. Prospective Senators must be at least forty years old and have held senior positions in either the government or military. Appointed Senators have included former Prime Ministers and Members of the Chamber of Deputies. Deputies are elected to also serve a four year term. Candidates must be older than thirty-five, cannot have blood ties to the King, and must not have any financial interests in government contracts.[32]

Constitution

Jordan is a constitutional monarchy based on the constitution promulgated on 8 January 1952. Executive authority is vested in the king and his council of ministers. The king signs and executes all laws. His veto power may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of both houses of the National Assembly. He appoints and may dismiss all judges by decree, approves amendments to the constitution, declares war, and commands the armed forces. Cabinet decisions, court judgments, and the national currency are issued in his name. The council of ministers, led by a prime minister, is appointed by the king, who may dismiss other cabinet members at the prime minister's request. The cabinet is accountable to the Chamber of Deputies on matters of general policy and can be forced to resign by a 50% or more of vote of "no confidence" by that body.

The constitution provides for three categories of courts: civil, religious, and special. Administratively, Jordan is divided into twelve governorates, each headed by a governor appointed by the king. They are the sole authorities for all government departments and development projects in their respective areas.

Legal system and legislation

Jordan's legal system is based on French code law system via the Egyptian civil laws while Islamic law is limited to

civic status legislation for Muslims. Religious minority civic status is regulated by respective religious courts. Judicial review of legislative acts occurs in a special High Tribunal. It has not accepted International Court of Justice jurisdiction.

Jordan has multi-party politics. There are over 30 political parties in Jordan from extreme left (Jordanian Communist Party) to extreme right (Islamic Action Front). Article 97 of Jordan's constitution guarantees the independence of the judicial branch, clearly stating that judges are 'subject to no authority but that of the law.' While the king must approve the appointment and dismissal of judges, in practice these are supervised by the Higher Judicial Council.

The Jordanian legal system draws upon civil traditions as well as Islamic law and custom. Article 99 of the Constitution divides the courts into three categories: civil, religious and special. The civil courts deal with civil and criminal matters in accordance with the law, and they have jurisdiction over all persons in all matters, civil and criminal, including cases brought against the government. The civil courts include Magistrate Courts, Courts of First Instance, Courts of Appeal, High Administrative Courts and the Supreme Court. The religious courts include shari'a (Islamic law) courts and the tribunals of other religious communities, namely those of the Christian minority. Religious courts have primary and appellate courts and deal only with matters involving personal law such as marriage, divorce, inheritance and child custody. Shari'a courts also have jurisdiction over matters pertaining to the Islamic waqfs. In cases involving parties of different religions, regular courts have jurisdiction.[33]

Despite traditional male domination, the number of women lawyers has been increasing. As of mid-2006 Jordan had 1,284 female lawyers, out of a total number of 6,915, and 35 female judges from a total of 630.

Police

Main article: Law enforcement in Jordan

Jordan ranked 24th in the world, 4th in the Middle East, in terms of police services' reliability in the Global Competitiveness Report. Jordan also ranked 13th in the world and 3rd in the Middle East in terms of prevention of organized crime, making it one of the safest countries in the world.[34]



A female police officer in Amman



King Abdullah II on a visit to The Pentagon.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Jordan

Jordan has followed a pro-Western foreign policy and maintained close relations with the United States and the United Kingdom. These relations were damaged by Jordan's neutrality and maintaining relations with Iraq during the first Gulf War. During the 1970s, King Hussein negotiated with Iran to halt the military buildup to annex the small Persian Gulf nation of Bahrain. In the 1990s, he tried to mediate the conflict between the United States and Iraq and tried to bring an end to hostilities while still condemning the Iraqi annexation of Kuwait. Jordan has historically been at the forefront of negotiating peace between the Israelis and the Palestinians. King Abdullah II is the mediator between Israel and the Arab League's negotiations for peace and normalization of bilateral ties.

Following the Gulf War, Jordan largely restored its relations with Western countries through its participation in the Southwest Asia peace process and enforcement of UN sanctions against Iraq. Relations between Jordan and the Persian Gulf countries improved substantially after King Hussein's death. Following the fall of the Iraqi regime,

Jordan has played a pivotal role in supporting the restoration of stability and security to Iraq. The Government of Jordan signed a memorandum of understanding with the Coalition Provisional Authority in Iraq to facilitate the training of up to 30,000 Iraqi police cadets at a Jordanian facility.

Jordan signed a non-belligerency agreement with Israel in Washington, D.C. on 25 July 1994. King Hussein and Yitzhak Rabin negotiated this treaty. Jordan and Israel signed a historic peace treaty on 26 October 1994, witnessed by President Bill Clinton, accompanied by US Secretary, Warren Christopher. The US has participated with Jordan and Israel in trilateral development discussions in which key issues have been water-sharing and security; cooperation on Jordan Rift Valley development; infrastructure projects; and trade, finance, and banking issues.



Vladimir Putin visiting the Baptism Site Bethany Beyond the Jordan in the Jordan Valley, 2007

Jordan and Israel had generally close relations even before the signing of the 1994 Peace Treaty. On more than one occasion, Jordan warned Israel of an impending attack by Syria and Egypt. Also, during the Black September conflict in Jordan, Israel warned Syria that any Syrian intervention on the side of the PLO against the Jordanian monarchy would result in an Israeli attack. Israel and Jordan along with Lebanon were already negotiating a peace treaty as early as the 1950s. However, this friendship has been damaged several times due to the worsening situation in the Palestinian territories and the slow peace process with the Palestinians. In Israel in 2009, several Likud lawmakers proposed a bill that called for a Palestinian state on both sides of the Jordan River, presuming that Jordan should be the alternative homeland for the Palestinians. Later, following similar remarks by the Israeli Speaker of the Knesset, twenty Jordanian lawmakers proposed a bill in the Jordanian Parliament in which the peace treaty between Israel and Jordan would be frozen. The Israeli Foreign Ministry disavowed the original proposal.[35][36]

The Jordanian General Intelligence Department is reportedly the CIA's closest partner after Britain's MI6. Also, the release classified US cables on Wikileaks proved the depth of US-Jordan relations. Over 4,000 military cables were sent from Amman, the fifth most popular origin of US military cables worldwide, higher than from London or Tel Aviv. Jordan provides extensive strategic and logistic support to US military forces in Iraq and Afghanistan. However, the leaked military cables show that America had kept Jordan's involvement in the War on Terror quiet whether it be its rendition program or Jordan's leading of counterterrorism operations in Afghanistan and Iraq.

Jordan also participates in the multilateral peace talks. Jordan belongs to the UN and several of its specialized and related agencies, including the World Trade Organization (WTO), the International Meteorological Organization (IMO), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), and the World Health Organization (WHO). Jordan also is a member of the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC), Nonaligned Movement (NAM), and Arab League.

Military



Six USAF F-16 fighters in Muwaffaq Salti Air Base in Azraq. JAF F-16's

Jordan has a strong defensive army with strong support and aid from the United States, the United Kingdom and France. This is due to its critical position between Israel and the West Bank, Syria, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia with very close proximity to Lebanon and Egypt. The development of the special forces has been particularly significant,



Jordanian troops in a military parade in

can be seen to the right.

enhancing the capability of the forces to react rapidly to threats to state security, as well as training special forces from the region and beyond.[37][38]

Amman



Jordanian Special Forces

Main article: Royal Jordanian Land Force

The **Royal Special Forces** is a unit of the armed forces of Jordan. The Commander was Prince Abdullah (now Abdullah II of Jordan), 1993–1996. In 2007, these forces received training from Blackwater Worldwide.[39]

The **Royal Naval Force** is the Naval entity of the Jordanian Armed Forces.

The **Royal Jordanian Air Force (RJAF)** (Arabic: سلاح الجو الملكي الأردني, transliterated: *Silah al-Jaw Almalaki al-Urduni*) is the aviation branch of the Jordanian Armed Forces and includes the Royal Jordanian Air Defence.

UN Peacekeeping force

There are about 50,000 Jordanian troops working with the United Nations in peacekeeping missions across the world. These soldiers provide everything from military defense, training of native police, medical help, and charity. Jordan ranks third internationally in taking part in UN peacekeeping missions.[40]

Jordan has dispatched several field hospitals to conflict zones and areas affected by natural disasters across the world such as Iraq, the West Bank, Lebanon, Afghanistan, Haiti, Indonesia, Congo, Liberia, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Sierra Leone and Pakistan. The Kingdom's field hospitals extended aid to more than one million people in Iraq, some one million in the West Bank and 55,000 in Lebanon. According to the military, there are Jordanian peacekeeping forces in Asia, Africa, Europe and Latin America. Jordanian Armed Forces field hospital in Afghanistan has since 2002 provided assistance to some 750,000 persons and has significantly reduced the suffering of people residing in areas where the hospital operates.In some missions, the number of Jordanian troops was the second largest, the sources said.[41] Jordan also provides extensive training of security forces in Iraq,[42] the Palestinian territories,[43] and the GCC.[44]

Political parties

Main article: Politics of Jordan

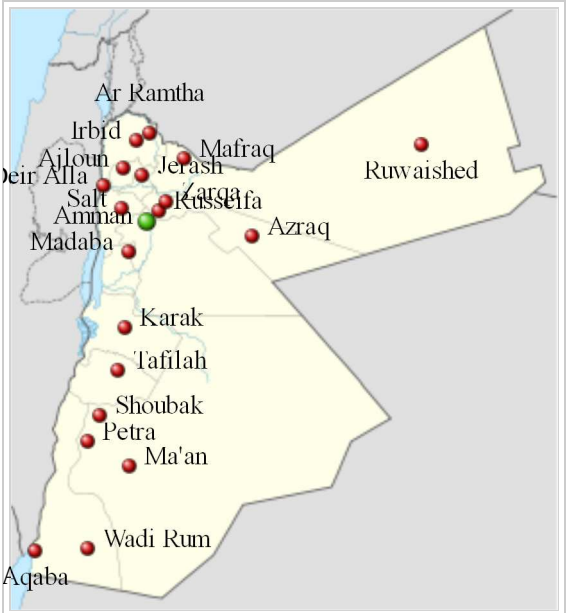
Jordan's most executive power is the King and it is a constitutional monarchy with an appointed government. The King traditionally has held substantial power, however the democratically elected Parliament holds significant influence and power in national governance.

The reforms of 1989 legalized political parties and opposition movements. The result is over 30 political parties, but the only political party that plays a role in the legislature is the Islamic Action Front (IAF). Political parties can be seen to represent four sections: Islamists, leftists, Arab nationalists and liberals. Some other political parties in Jordan including the Jordanian Arab Democratic Party, Jordanian Socialist Party, and Muslim Centre Party, but these have little impact on the political process because of lack of organization and clear platforms on key domestic issues as well as differences and factions within these political parties.

Administrative divisions

Jordan is divided into 12 provinces named Governorates, which are sub-divided into 54 departments or districts

named Nahias.



Administrative centers in Jordan

Governorate	Capital	Region
Ajloun Governorate	Ajloun	North
Aqaba Governorate	Aqaba	South
Balqa Governorate	Salt	Central
Capital Governorate	Amman	Central
Irbid Governorate	Irbid	North
Jerash Governorate	Jerash	North

Governorate	Capital	Location
Kerak Governorate	Al Karak	South
Ma'an Governorate	Ma'an	South
Madaba Governorate	Madaba	Central
Mafraq Governorate	Mafraq	North
Tafilah Governorate	Tafilah	South
Zarqa Governorate	Zarqa	Central

Human rights

Main article: Human rights in Jordan

The 2010 Arab Democracy Index from the Arab Reform Initiative ranked Jordan first in the state of democratic reforms out of fifteen Arab countries.[45]

Jordan ranked 141 out of 196 countries worldwide, earning "Not Free" status in Freedom House's 2011 Freedom of the Press 2011 report.[46] Jordan had the 5th freest press of 19 countries in the Middle East and North Africa region. Civil liberties and political rights scored 5 and 6 respectively in Freedom House's Freedom in the World 2011 report, where 1 is most free and 7 is least free. This earned Jordan "Not Free" status.[47] Jordan ranked ahead of 6, behind 4, and the same as 8 countries in the Middle East and North Africa region.

In the 2010 Press Freedom Index maintained by Reporters Without Borders, Jordan ranked 120th out of 178 countries listed, 5th out of the 20 countries in the Middle East and North Africa region. Jordan's score was 37 on a scale from 0 (most free) to 105 (least free).[48]

Jordan ranked 6th among the 19 countries in the Middle East and North Africa region, and 50th out of 178 countries worldwide in the 2010 Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) issued by Transparency International.[49]

Jordan's 2010 CPI score was 4.7 on a scale from 0 (highly corrupt) to 10 (very clean). Jordan ratified the United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC) in February 2005[50] and has been a regional leader in spearheading efforts to promote the UNCAC and its implementation.[34]

Areas where the government of Jordan was praised in its human rights efforts were in its protection of minority groups and freedom of religion. Christians are well integrated in Jordanian society and they are members of the country's political and economic elite. There are usually two cabinet posts held by Christians. A survey by a Western embassy in Amman found that nearly half of Jordan's leading business families are Christian despite being a minority group. Christians have established good relations with the royal family and many hold senior positions in the military. Jordanian Christians are equally represented in the Parliament.[51][52]

Areas of concern with respect to human rights in Jordan include:[53][54][55]

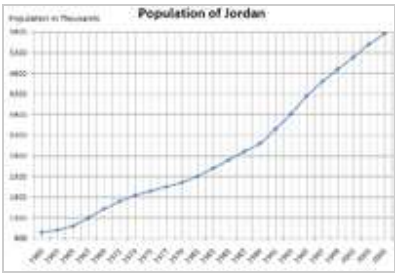
- limitations on the right of citizens to change their government peacefully;[*citation needed*]
- a newly drafted electoral law that perpetuates significant under representation of urban areas and citizens of Palestinian origin in leadership positions;
- cases of arbitrary deprivation of life, torture, poor prison conditions, impunity, arbitrary arrest and denial of due process through administrative detention, and prolonged detention;
- breaches of fair trial standards and external interference in judicial decisions;
- infringements on privacy rights;
- limited freedoms of speech and press, and government interference in the media and threats of fines and detention that encourage self-censorship;
- restricted freedoms of assembly and association;
- legal and societal discrimination and harassment of women remain a concern, although there have been significant improvements in recent years;
- legal and societal discrimination and harassment of religious minorities and converts from Islam are a concern, although Jordan is widely acknowledged as being a strong supporter of religious freedoms; [*citation needed*]
- legal and societal discrimination of members of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) community;
- loss of Jordanian nationality by some citizens of Palestinian origin;
- restricted labor rights; and
- abuse of foreign domestic workers.

In response to domestic and regional unrest, in February 2011 King Abdallah replaced his prime minister and formed a National Dialogue Commission with a reform mandate. The King told the new prime minister to "take quick, concrete and practical steps to launch a genuine political reform process", "to strengthen democracy," and provide Jordanians with the "dignified life they deserve."[56] The King called for an "immediate revision" of laws governing politics and public freedoms.[57] Initial reports say that this effort has started slowly and that several "fundamental rights" are not being addressed.[58]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Jordan

The Jordan National Census for the year 2004 was released on October 1 of the same year, According to the census, Jordan had a population of 5,100,981. The census estimated that there are another 190,000 who were not counted. National growth rate was 2.5% (at maximum) compared to 3.3% of the 1994 census. Males made up 51.5% of Jordan's population (2,628,717), while females constituted 2,472,264 (48.5%). Jordanian citizens made up 93% of the population (4,750,463), non-Jordanian citizens made up 7% (349,933). However, it is estimated that



Graph showing the population of Jordan, 1960-2005

most of those who did not turn in their forms were immigrants from neighboring countries, There were 946,000 households in Jordan in 2004, with an average of 5.3 persons/household (compared to 6 persons/household for the census of 1994).[59] The next census is scheduled to take place in 2014.

Jordan's Arab population mainly consists of Palestinians, Jordanians, and Iraqis. In addition, there are sizable immigrant communities from Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, and more recently Libya. .Of the non-Arab population which comprises 2% to 5% of Jordan's population, most are Circassians, Chechens, Armenians, Turkmans, and Romanis, all of which have maintained separate ethnic identities, but have integrated into mainstream Jordanian culture. Also, Jordan is home to a relatively large American and European expatriate population concentrated mainly in the capital as the city is home to many international organizations and diplomatic missions that base their regional operations in Amman.[60][61] Since the Iraq War many Christians (Assyrians/Chaldeans) from Iraq have settled permanently or temporarily in Jordan. They could number as many as 500,000.[62]

In 2004–2007, population increased due to the mass migration of Iraqi refugees. In 2007, there were 700,000-1,000,000 Iraqis in Jordan.[63] In 2009, the population of Jordan was slightly over 6,300,000.[64] (increasing from 5,100,000 in 2004).

According to UNRWA, Jordan was home to 1,951,603 Palestinian refugees in 2008, most of them Jordanian citizens.[65] 338,000 of them were living in UNRWA refugee camps.[66]

Migrant workers in Jordan are believed to account for 20–30% of the labor force in Jordan. The population of migrant workers including domestic workers is believed to be as high as one million. 500,000 are Egyptians, while the remaining workers are from Syria, India, Pakistan, Vietnam, and Nepal. Jordan is home to one of the world's largest population of migrant domestic workers according to Human Rights Watch. Domestic workers number around 300,000, mainly from Indonesia, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka. Recruitments of foreign workers from African nations like Ethiopia and Madagascar are also on the rise. Furthermore, there are thousands of foreign women working in nightclubs and bars, mostly from Eastern Europe and North Africa.[67][68][69]

Jordan revoked the citizenship of thousands of Palestinians to thwart any attempt to resettle West Bank residents in Jordan. West Bank Arabs with family in Jordan or Jordanian citizenship were issued yellow cards guaranteeing them all the rights of Jordanian citizenship. Palestinians living in Jordan with family in the West Bank were also issued yellow cards. All other Palestinians wishing such Jordanian papers were issued green cards to facilitate travel into Jordan.[70]

Genetics

Jordan was often at the crossroads of civilizations, and so has diverse genetic remnants. Recent genetic studies have shown strong links between the modern Jordanian people and the core populations of the Levant and the fertile crescent. A study published by Luigi Luca Cavalli-Sforza found that the Jordanian genetics are closest to the Assyrians among all other nations of Western Asia, but also links to the ancient tribes of Arabia and Yemen.[71]

Language

Main article: Jordanian Arabic

The official language is Arabic. English, though without an official status, is widely spoken throughout the country and is the de facto language of commerce and banking, as well as a co-official status in the education sector. The

spoken language is Jordanian Arabic. Modern Standard Arabic and English are obligatory learnt at public and most private schools with French being a less popular elective. Radio Jordan offers radio services in Arabic, English, and French. Armenian as well as Caucasian languages like Circassian and Chechen, are understood and spoken by small communities residing in Jordan, with several schools teaching them.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Jordan

Religion in Jordan[60]

Religion	Percent
Sunni Muslims	92%
Christian	6%
Other	2%



Abu Darweesh Mosque

Islam is the predominant religion in Jordan. It is the official religion and approximately 92% of the population is Muslim, primarily of the Sunni branch of Islam. Islamic and Christian studies are offered to students but are not mandatory and do not factor into the University entry school exams. Jordan has laws promoting religious freedom, but they fall short of protecting all minority groups. Muslims who convert to another religion as well as missionaries face societal and legal discrimination.



Greek Orthodox church in Amman

According to the 2010 Legatum Prosperity Index, less than half of Jordanians regularly attend religious services (around 40%), a moderate percentage in comparison to industrialized countries. However, this rate is the lowest among all the Arab countries and it is one of the lowest in the entire Muslim World.[72]

Jordan has an indigenous Christian minority. Christians of all ethnic backgrounds permanently residing in Jordan form approximately 6% of the population and are allocated respective seats in parliament (The Department of Statistics released no information about the religion distribution from the census of 2004). Christians made up 30% of the Jordanian population in 1950.[73] However, heavy Muslim immigration from Iraq and Palestine and lower birth rates compared to Muslims[*citation needed*] have significantly decreased the ratio of the Christian population. Most Jordanian Christians belong to the Greek Orthodox Church of Jerusalem. The remainder include members of the Syriac Orthodox Church, Latin Rite Catholic Church, Melkite Greek Catholic Church, Syriac Catholic Church, Chaldean Catholic Church, Assyrian Church of the East, Maronite Church, Ancient Church of the East, and Anglican Communion.

Among the Christian non-Arab population, significant part is made up of Armenians in Jordan; the Armenian Apostolic Church and Armenian Catholic Church (and some in other churches). Others include expatriate Christians in Jordan from various countries, as evinced, for example, by some Catholic masses held in English, French, Italian, Spanish, Tagalog, and Sinhala. With Protestant services in English, Tagalog, Tamil and German. Many Iraqi Christians have moved to Jordan, mostly Iraqi Assyrian Christians.

Other religious minorities groups in Jordan include adherents to the Druze and Bahá'í Faith. The Druze are mainly located in the Eastern Oasis Town of Azraq, some villages on the Syrian border and the city of Zarka, while the Village of Adassiyeh bordering the Jordan Valley is home to Jordan's Bahá'í community.

Health

Main article: Health in Jordan

Jordan has an advanced healthcare system, although services remain highly concentrated in Amman. Government figures have put total health spending in 2002 at some 7.5% of Gross domestic product (GDP), while international health organizations place the figure even higher, at approximately 9.3% of GDP. The country's health care system is divided between public and private institutions. In the public sector, the Ministry of Health operates 1,245 primary health-care centers and 27 hospitals, accounting for 37% of all hospital beds in the country; the military's Royal Medical Services runs 11 hospitals, providing 24% of all beds; and the Jordan University Hospital accounts for 3% of total beds in the country. The private sector provides 36% of all hospital beds, distributed among 56 hospitals. In 1 June 2007, Jordan Hospital (as the biggest private hospital) was the first general specialty hospital who gets the international accreditation JCAHO.[74]

According to 2003 estimates, the rate of prevalence of human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immune deficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS) was less than 0.1%. According to a United Nations Development Program report, Jordan has been considered malaria-free since 2001; cases of tuberculosis declined by half during the 1990s, but tuberculosis remains an issue and an area needing improvement. Jordan experienced a brief outbreak of bird flu in March 2006. Noncommunicable diseases such as cancer also are a major health issue in Jordan. Childhood immunization rates have increased steadily over the past 15 years; by 2002 immunizations and vaccines reached more than 95% of children under five.[74]About 86% of Jordanians had medical insurance in 2009, the Jordanian government planned to reach 100% in 2011.

The King Hussein Cancer Center is a leading cancer treatment center. Jordan was ranked by the World Bank to be the number one health care services provider in the region and among the top 5 in the world. In 2008, 250,000 patients sought treatment in the Kingdom including Iraqis, Palestinians, Sudanese, Syrians, GCC citizens, Americans, Canadians, and Egyptians. Jordan earned almost $1 billion dollars in medical tourism revenues according to the World Bank.

According to the CIA World Factbook, life expectancy in Jordan is 80.05 years, the second highest in the region (after Israel). There were 203 physicians per 100,000 people in the years 2000–2004, a proportion comparable to many developed countries and higher than most of the developing world.[75]

Water and sanitation, available to only 10% of the population in 1950, now reach 99% of Jordanians, according to government statistics. They also show that electricity reaches 99% of the population, as compared to less than 10% in 1955.[76]

See: Medical education in Jordan.

Quality of life

Jordan is ranked as having a superior quality of life in comparison to the region and developing countries as a whole. Jordan ranked as having the 11th highest standard of living in the developing world and the second highest standard of living in the Arab and Muslim World as measured by the Human Poverty Index-2. Decades of political stability and security and strict law enforcement make Jordan one of the top 10 countries worldwide in security.[34] In the 2010 Newsweek "World's Best Countries" list, Jordan ranked as the third best Arab country to live in (53rd worldwide), after Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates. Globally, it ranks higher than China and South Africa. According to the index, its standard of living is on par with Turkey and Argentina.[77] In addition, Jordan is one of the most liberal countries in the Middle East with a pro-secular government.[78] In the 2010 Human Development Index, Jordan was placed in the "high human development" bracket and came 7th among Arab countries, behind the oil-rich states and one place behind Tunisia. In the HDI index score excluding income, Jordan came in second in the Arab world, higher than most of the affluent Persian Gulf states, showing the huge emphasis the Jordanian government has placed on human capital in its development process.[79] Furthermore, in the Inequality-adjusted HDI, Jordan came first among all the Arab countries showing that the average Jordanian was better off than the

average citizen of any Arab country listed in the index.


A villa in West Amman

The 2010 Quality of Life Index prepared by International Living Magazine ranked Jordan as having almost the highest quality of life in the Arab world and North Africa. To produce this annual Index, International Living considers, for each of these countries, nine categories: Cost of Living, Culture and Leisure, Economy, Environment, Freedom, Health, Infrastructure, Safety and Risk and Climate. Jordan ranked second in the MENA with 55.0 points after Israel and followed by Kuwait with 54.47 points, Morocco with 54.45 points, and Lebanon with 54.3 points.[80] Only 3.5 percent of Jordanians earn less than $2 a day, one of the lowest rates in the developing world and the lowest among the Arab states, according to the UN Human Development Report. Furthermore, Jordan hosts one of the highest percentages of immigrants in the world in comparison to its total population, with more than 40% of its residents being born in another country, a rate even higher than the United States, according to a 2005 UN Report.


Low income neighborhood in East Amman

Access to adequate food and shelter in Jordan is the sixth highest in the world, and a relatively 72% of Jordanians are satisfied with their living standards. Despite high levels of perceived corruption in politics and business, Jordanians have relatively high confidence in the government. Over 8 in 10 people approve of their government which is the 13th highest level in the 2010 Legatum Prosperity Index. Levels of support for the country's policies to preserve the environment and address poverty are also among the top 25 nations. Jordanians are highly enthusiastic about their other civil institutions: 96% support the military, the seventh highest rate overall, and 70% have confidence in the judiciary, the 25th highest rate. Jordanians also enjoy high levels of safety in their personal lives. In a 2009 survey, just 2.8% of respondents said they had been assaulted in the last 12 months, and less than 7% had experienced theft: these figures are the 21st and 10th lowest in the world, respectively. Jordan is also among the top ten countries whose citizens feel safest walking the streets at night.[81]

Jordan spends 4.2% of its GDP to guarantee the well being of its citizens- more than any other country in the region. Life expectancy and public health levels in Jordan are comparable to the West with 88% of the population on medical insurance, one of the highest rates in the world. The remaining 12% are covered under Royal makruma.[82] Also, the Social Security Corporation (SSC) is working to increase social security subscribers across the Kingdom with public sector workers currently covered and working to include private sector employees as well. After employees in the Kingdom receive coverage, the SSC is now expanding to include Jordanian expatriates in the Persian Gulf states and students, housewives, business owners, and the unemployed. As of 2011, 63% of working Jordanians are insured with the Social Security Corporation, as well as 120,000 foreigners.[83] The corporation plans to have 85% of the population covered under the social security umbrella by the end of the year.[84][85]

In 2008, the Jordanian government launched the "Decent Housing for a Decent Living" project aimed at giving poor people and Palestinian refugees the chance at owning their own house. Approximately 120,000 affordable housing units will be constructed within the next 5 years, and an additional 100,000 housing units can be built if the need arises.[86]

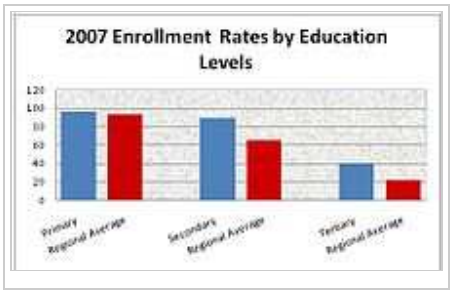
Jordan was ranked as the 19th most expensive country in the world to live in 2010 and the most expensive Arab country to live in.[87]

Despite these positive indicators, Jordan remains marred by chronic high unemployment rates, 11.9% in the fourth

quarter of 2010 but some estimate it to be as high as a quarter of the working-age population.[88] Also, an estimated 13.3% of citizens live under the poverty line.[89] Wide disaparities in wealth are evident between urban and rural areas and even between the Western and Eastern districts of the capital Amman. Currently, there are over 700,000 highly skilled college graduates working temporarily in GCC nations like the United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia. These white-collar workers send home more than three billion dollars in remittances to Jordan each year, a vital part of the Jordanian economy. High cost of living and lower wages push thousands of fresh college graduates to seek their fortunes in the oil-rich gulf. According to the 2010 Middle East Salary Survey conducted by Bayt.com, Jordanians earn more than their counterparts in other Arab countries with the exception of the oil-rich Gulf:[90] 27% of Jordanian workers earn less than $500 a month, 28% earn between $ 500 and $1000 a month, 21% earn between $1000 and $2000 a month, 10% earn between $2000 and $3000 a month, 6% earn between $3000 and $5000 a month, 2% earn between $5000 and $8000 a month, and 2% earn above $8000 a month. Around 97 percent of Jordanians have more than one source of income, according to the Department of Statistics.[91]

Education

Main article: Education in Jordan



The literacy rate in Jordan is 93%. The education system has been significant in the shift from a predominantly agrarian country to an industrialized nation. It ranks number one in the Arab World and is one of the highest in the developing world.[92] UNESCO ranked Jordan's education system 18th worldwide for providing gender equality in education.[93] 20.5% of Jordan's total government expenditures goes to education compared to 2.5% in Turkey and 3.86% in Syria.[94][95][96]

Jordan ranked 14th out of 110 countries for the number of engineers and scientists according to the Global Competitiveness Report 2004–2005 (WEF). Jordan has a higher proportion of university graduates in technological fields than any other Arab country. There are over 200,000 Jordanian students enrolled in universities each year. An additional 20,000 Jordanians pursue higher education abroad primarily in the United States and Great Britain.[97]

There is a primary school enrollment rate of 98.2% in Jordan. Secondary school enrollment has increased from 63% to 97% of high school aged students in Jordan and between 79% and 85% of high school students in Jordan move on to higher education, an extremely high rate for a middle income nation.[98]

According to the Global Innovation Index 2011, Jordan is the 3rd most innovative economy in the Middle East, only behind Qatar and the United Arab Emirates. Worldwide, Jordan ranked 41st beating India, South Africa, Greece and Russia.[99]

Jordan is the top contributor among all Arab countries in terms of internet content. 75% of all Arabic online content originates from Jordan.[100]

In scientific research, Jordan is ranked number one in the Arab world and 30th worldwide. Nature Journal reported Jordan having the highest number of researchers per million people among all the 57 countries members of the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC); the average of OIC countries is 500 researchers per million people. In Jordan there are 2,000 researchers per million people, higher than Israel and the United Kingdom.[101]

The illiteracy rate in Jordan was 6.9% in 2010, one of the lowest in the region.[102] Secondary education consists of two years of school study, for students who have completed the 10-year basic cycle. It comprises two major tracks:

Academic or vocational secondary education. At the end of the two-year period, students sit for the general secondary examination (Tawjihi) in the appropriate branch and those who pass are awarded the Tawjihi (General Secondary Education Certificate). The academic stream qualifies students for university entrance, whereas the vocational or technical type qualifies for entrance to Community colleges or universities or the job market, provided they pass the two additional subjects. Vocational secondary education provides intensive vocational training and apprenticeship, and leads to the award of a Certificate. This type of education is provided by the Vocational Training Corporation, under the control of the Ministry of Labour / Technical and Vocational Education and Training Higher Council.

After completing the 8, 9 or 10 years of basic education, Jordanians are free to choose any foreign secondary education program instead of the Tawjihi examinations (8 for IGCSE, 10 for SAT and IB). Such programs are usually offered by private schools. These programs include: IGCSE, SAT and International Baccalaureate.

Private schools in Jordan also offer IGCSE examinations. About 25% of school-aged students in Jordan are enrolled in private schools. Upon graduation, the ministry of Higher Education, through a system similar to UK tariff points, transforms the grades/marks of these foreign educational programs into the same marks used in grading Tawjihi students. This system is controversial, both as to the conversion process and the number of places allocated to non-Tawjihi applicants.

Higher education

Main article: List of universities in Jordan


Medical halls of JUST as seen with KAUH.

Access to higher education is open to holders of the General Secondary Education Certificate or Tawjihi who can then apply to private community colleges, public community colleges or universities (public and private), the admission to public universities is very competitive. The kingdom has 10 public and 16 private universities, in addition to some 54 community colleges, of which 14 are public, 24 private and others affiliated with the Jordan Armed Forces, the Civil Defence Department, the ministry of health and UNRWA.[103] The first university established in the kingdom was the University of Jordan.[104] A United Nations-supported research nuclear reactor and a synchrotron-light scientific facility (SESAME) are currently being built on campus of Jordan University of Science and Technology and the Hashemite University to establish the first nuclear facilities for academic research in the kingdom.[105][106] All post-secondary education is the responsibility of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research.

Jordan is home to campuses of foreign universities such as NYIT, DePaul University, Columbia University and the American University of Madaba. George Washington University is also planning to establish a medical university in Jordan as well, with plans to make it a regional hub for the training of medical personnel in the Middle East and North Africa.[107]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Jordan

Jordan is a small country with limited natural resources. The country is exploring ways to expand its limited water supply and use its existing water resources more efficiently, including regional cooperation with Israel. The country depends on external sources for the majority of its energy requirements. In the 1990s, its crude petroleum needs were met through imports from Iraq and neighboring countries. Since early 2003, oil has been provided by some

Gulf Cooperation Council member countries. In addition, the Arab Gas Pipeline from Egypt to the southern port of Aqaba was completed in 2003. In 2005 the pipeline extended north to the Amman area, in 2008 it reached Syriya and in 2009 to Lebanon.



A graphic rendering of the planned Abdali Urban Regeneration Project in Amman



The Four Seasons hotel in Amman, Jordan's capital.

Since King Abdullah II's accession to the throne in 1999, liberal economic policies have resulted in a continuing boom. Jordan is the 4th freest economy in the Middle East and North Africa, beating traditionally free economies like Israel, the United Arab Emirates and Lebanon. Jordan's developed and modern banking sector is becoming the investment destination of choice due to its conservative bank policies that helped Jordan escape the worst of the global financial crisis of 2009. With instability across the region in Iraq and Lebanon, Jordan is emerging as the "business capital of the Levant" and "the next Beirut". Jordan's economy has been growing at an annual rate of 7% for a decade. Jordan's economy is undergoing a major shift from an aid-dependent, rentier economy to one of the most robust, open and competitive economies in the region. In recent years, there has been shift to knowledge-intensive industries, i.e ICT, and a rapidly growing trade sector benefiting from regional instability. The Jordanian market is considered the most developed Arab market outside the Gulf states. [108] Jordan has more free trade agreements than any other Arab country. It has such agreements with the United States, Canada, Singapore, Malaysia, the European Union, Tunisia, Algeria, Libya, Iraq, Turkey and Syria, with plans to include the Palestinian Authority, the GCC, Lebanon and Pakistan. Jordan is a member of the Greater Arab Free Trade Agreement, the Euro-Mediterranean free trade area agreement, and the Agadir Agreement. Increased investment and exports are the main sources of Jordan's growth. Continued close integration into the European Union and GCC markets will reap vast economic rewards for the Kingdom in the coming years. However, the main obstacles to Jordan's economy are scarce water supplies, complete reliance on oil imports for energy, and regional instability.

Rapid privatization of previously state-controlled industries and liberalization of the economy is spurring unprecedented growth in Amman and Aqaba. Jordan has six special economic zones that attract significant amount of investment amounting in the billions: Aqaba, Mafraq, Ma'an, Ajloun, the Dead Sea, and Irbid. Jordan also has a plethora of industrial zones producing goods in the textile, aerospace, defense, ICT, pharmaceutical, and cosmetic sectors.



Hamleys - Amman

The Free Trade Agreement (FTA) with the United States[109] that went into effect in December 2001 will phase out duties on nearly all goods and services by 2010. The agreement also provides for more open markets in communications, construction, finance, health, transportation, and services, as well as strict application of international standards for the protection of intellectual property. In 1996, Jordan and the United States signed a civil aviation agreement that provides for open skies between the two countries, and a U.S.-Jordan treaty for the protection and encouragement of bilateral investment entered into force in 2003. Jordan has been a member of the World Trade Organization since 2000.[110]

In the 2000 Competitive Industrial Performance (CIP) Index, Jordan ranked as the third most industrialized economy in the Middle East and North Africa, behind Turkey and Kuwait. Jordan was in the upper bracket of nations scored by the CIP index. In the 2009 Global Trade Enabling Report, Jordan ranked 4th in the Arab World behind the UAE, Bahrain, and Qatar. The report analyzes the country's market access, the country's transport and

communications infrastructure, border administration, and the business environment of the country[111] Textile and clothing exports from Jordan to the United States shot up 2,000% from 2000 to 2005, following introduction of the FTA. According to the National Labor Committee, a U.S.-based NGO (Non-Governmental Organization), Jordan has experienced sharp increases in sweatshop conditions in its export-oriented manufacturing sector.[112]



Wakalat Street

Jordan ranked as having the 35th best infrastructure in the world, one of the highest rankings in the developing world, according to the World Economic Forum's Index of Economic Competitiveness. It even beat several developed countries like Israel, Italy, Ireland, Greece and it was only two places behind the United Kingdom. [113]



Jordanian exports in 2006

The proportion of skilled workers in Jordan is among the highest in the region.[114] The services sector dominates the Jordanian economy. Tourism is a rapidly growing industry in Jordan with revenues over one billion. Industries such as pharmaceuticals are emerging as very profitable products in Jordan. The Real Estate economy and construction sectors continue to flourish with mass amounts of investments pouring in from the Persian Gulf and Europe. Foreign Direct Investment is in the billions. The stock market capitalization of Jordan is worth nearly $40 billion.

Jordan is classified by the World Bank as an "upper middle income country." [7] Per-capita GDP was approximately US$5,100 for 2007 and 14.5% of the economically active population, on average, was unemployed in 2003. Education and literacy rates and measures of social well-being are very high compared to other countries with similar incomes. Jordan's population growth rate is high, but has declined in recent years, to approximately 2.8% currently. One of the most important factors in the government's efforts to improve the well-being of its citizens is the macroeconomic stability that has been achieved since the 1990s. However, unemployment rates remain high, with the official figure standing at 12.5%, and the unofficial around 30%. The currency has been stable with an exchange rate fixed to the US dollar since 1995.

Jordan is pinning its hopes on tourism, future uranium and oil shale exports, trade, and ICT for future economic growth.

Amman was ranked as the Arab World's most expensive city in 2006 by the Economist Intelligence Unit, beating Dubai. In 2009, Amman ranked as the 4th most expensive city in the Arab World, behind Dubai, Abu Dhabi, and Beirut.

Jordan is an importer of low skilled and semi-skilled laborers from Egypt, South Asia, Indonesia, Syria, and the Philippines. There are a range of estimates of the size of the migrant workforce in Jordan from conservative estimates of 300,000 foreign workers to almost one million foreigners working in Jordan. They constitute about 20–30% of the labor force in Jordan and they are consistently cited when discussing Jordan's chronic unemployment problem.[98] These migrant workers often work in construction, the textile factories in Jordan's Qualified Industrial Zones, municipal maintenance services, and as domestic workers. Recently, these migrant workers were incorporated into the Kingdom's labor laws giving them a wide range of benefits and rights and access to legal protection, the first Arab country to do so.[115]

In relation to the population size, Jordan is also one of the largest suppliers of skilled labour and human capital in the world. An estimated 600,000 Jordanians or one fourth of the labour force are earning their living in foreign countries working primarily in high paying white-collar jobs. Between 1968 and 2003, the accumulated net number of emmigrants amounted to over 1.1 million persons. Most of the skilled labor that left Jordan emigrated on a temporary basis to the oil producing Persian Gulf states. Since the mid 1970s, migrants' remittances are Jordan's most important source of foreign exchange, and a decisive factor in the country's economic development and the rising standard of living of the population.[67]

Jordan has the headquarters of several large-scale global corporations despite its small size. Some of these include Arab Bank, Aramex, Maktoob, Rubicon Group Holding and Kurdi Group. Since 2009, there are 2 Jordanian companies listed in the Forbes Global 2000 list, Arab Bank (Rank 708) and Arab Potash (Rank 1964). In addition, Jordan has several billionaires as well like Ziad Manasir and Eyhab Jumean.

Agriculture

Main article: Agriculture in Jordan



Olive Farms in the north of Jordan (souf, Jerash)

Agriculture in Jordan contributed substantially to the economy at the time of Jordan's independence, but it subsequently suffered a decades-long steady decline. In the early 1950s, agriculture constituted almost 40 percent of GNP; on the eve of the June 1967 War, it was 17 percent.[116] By the mid-1980s, agriculture's share of GNP in Jordan was only about 6 percent.[116]

The main irrigated area in Jordan is focused in fertile lands of Jordan Valley. However, other non-irrigated lands which depends on the seasonal rain are also available. Most of these lands are in the northern region in the provinces of Jerash, Ajloun and Irbid.



A farm in the mountains of Ajloun

Yet, some other lands are also available in the mid-western regions of Karak and Madaba. Recently, some desert land in the east of Mafraq have witnessed a large scale of irrigation projects, however, the sustainability of these projects is still in doubt, due to their dependency on groundwater.

Jordan exports many fruits and vegetables to the neighbouring countries, the Gulf and Europe, including olives, citrus fruit, grapes, apples, figs, peaches, pears, plums, apricots, almonds, and cherries.

Natural resources

Although Jordan is a resource-poor country, it has significant deposits of oil shale and sources of uranium; these potential sources of indigenous energy have been the focus of renewed interest in recent years. It is one of the most water-scarce countries in the world and considerable water is required to develop its resources, particularly oil shale. There are very limited resources of timber and forestry products and timbering is strictly limited by Jordan's environmentalists. Nevertheless, the kingdom is home to several water parks for tourism purposes, and the capital alone has over 17,000 private swimming pools. [117]

Phosphate mines in the south have made Jordan to one of the largest producers and exporters of this mineral in the world.[118][119][120][121][122] Potassium, salt, natural gas and stone are the most important other substances extracted. Phosphates are carried by rail from the mines to the port of Aqaba where it is shipped via cargo ship to other ports.

Jordan has one of the largest uranium reserves in the world. Jordan's reserves account for 2% of the world's total uranium. Jordan can extract 80,000 tons of uranium from its uranic ores, and the country's phosphate reserves also contain some 100,000 tons of uranium. Jordan plans that by 2035, 60% of the country's total energy consumption will be from nuclear energy. Four nuclear power plants are planned with the first one to be operational in 2019.[123]

Since the beginning of 2010, the government of Jordan has been seeking approval from the US for producing nuclear fuel from Jordan's uranium for use in nuclear power plants that Jordan plans to build. Jordan is not required to obtain US approval since, as a signatory to the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT), Jordan has every right to produce nuclear fuel for peaceful purposes. However, in view of the U.S.-led sanctions against Iran over Iran's nuclear program, despite Iran being a signatory of the NPT, Jordan is first seeking US approval to avoid a fate similar to that of Iran. The government of Israel, not a signatory of the NPT, has made clear to Washington its objection to Jordan's nuclear energy program. According to *Haaretz*, Jordan learned that the US position is essentially the Israeli position, and the US has rejected Jordan's request for approval.[124]

Natural gas was discovered in Jordan in 1987, and the estimated size of the reserve discovered was about 230 billion cubic feet, and quantities are very modest compared with its neighbours. It was the development of the Risha field in the Eastern Desert beside the Iraqi border, and the field produces nearly 30 million cubic feet of gas a day, to be sent to a nearby power plant to produce nearly 10% of the Jordan's Electric needs.[125]

Despite the fact that reserves of crude oil are non-commercial, Jordan possesses one of the world's richest stockpiles of oil shale where there are huge quantities that could be commercially exploited in the central and northern regions west of the country. The extent the World Energy Council reserves Jordan approximately 40 billion tons, which established it as the second richest state in rock oil reserves after Canada (estimated), and first at the world's level of proven discoveries at a rate of extraction of oil up to between 8% and 12% of content, and could be the production of 4 billion tons of oil from the current reserve, which puts the quality of Jordanian oil on the one hand extraction, on an equal footing with their counterparts in western Colorado in the United States, which its estimated amount may rise to 20 billion tons. The moisture content and ash within is relatively low. And the total thermal value is 7.5 megajoules/kg, and the content of ointments reach 9% of the weight of the organic content.[126] Jordan recently signed a deal with Royal Dutch Shell to extract and exploit shale oil reserves in central Jordan. It is expected Jordan will produce its first commercial quantities of oil in the year 2020, with an estimated production of 50,000 barrels of oil a day, 35 per cent of the Kingdom's energy consumption in "less than 10 years". Previous NRA studies have revealed that 40 billion tonnes of oil shale exist in 21 sites concentrated near the Yarmouk River, Buweida, Beit Ras, Rweished, Karak, Madaba and Maan.

A switch to power plants operated by oil shale has the potential to reduce Jordan's energy bill by at least 40–50 per cent, according to the National Electric Power Company.[127]

Currency and exchange rates

The official currency in Jordan is the Jordanian dinar and divides into 100 qirsh (also called piastres) or 1000 fils. In 1949, banknotes were issued by the government in denominations of 500 fils, 1, 5,10 dinar. From 1959, the Central Bank of Jordan took over note production. 20 dinar notes were introduced in 1977, followed by 50 dinar in 1999. ½ dinar notes were replaced by coins in 1999. Coins were introduced in 1949 in denominations of 1, 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 fils. The first issue of 1 fils were mistakenly minted with the denomination given as "1 fil". 20 fils coins were minted until 1965, with 25 fils introduced in 1968 and ¼ dinar coins in 1970. The 1 fils coin was last minted in 1985. In 1996, smaller ¼ dinar coins were introduced alongside ½ and 1 dinar coins. Since October 23, 1995, the dinar has been officially pegged to the IMF's special drawing rights (SDRs). In practice, it is fixed at 1 US dollar = 0.709 dinar, which translates to approximately 1 dinar = 1.41044 dollars.[128][129] The Central Bank buys US dollars at 0.708 dinar, and sell US dollars at 0.7125 dinar,Exchangers buys US dollars at 0.708 and sell US dollars at 0.709.[130]

Tourism

Main article: Tourism in Jordan

Tourism accounted for 10%-12% of the country's Gross National Product in 2006. In 2010, there were 8 million visitors to Jordan. The result was $3.4 billion in tourism revenues, $4.4 billion if medical tourists are included.[131] Jordan offers nightclubs, discothèques and bars in Amman, Irbid, Aqaba, and many 4 and 5-star hotels. Furthermore, beach clubs are also offered at the Dead Sea and Aqaba. Jordan played host to the Petra Prana Festival in 2007 which celebrated Petra's win as one of the New Seven Wonders of the World with world-renowned DJ's like Tiesto and Sarah Main. The annual Distant Heat festival in Wadi Rum and Aqaba ranked as one of the world's top 10 raves.



Roman ruins at Umm Qais



Traditional Jordanian costumes

Amman, Jordan's capital, contains a Roman theater and a museum housing some of the Dead Sea Scrolls. The city is considered to be the most Westernized and cosmopolitan in the Arab World. [132] The city's rapidly growing culinary scene offers a plethora of local and international dishes ranging from French to Japanese and everything in between. The city has become a favourite destination among affluent Arab vacationers due to its temperate climate, lavish shopping, fine dining and bustling nightlife.[133][134]

Amman has developed quite a flourishing nightlife scene over the past 10 years with a plethora of new nightclubs and bars primarily in the city's western districts which has brought in a steady flow of Eastern European, Asian, and North African females to be employed in the emerging nightlife scene. Furthermore, the capital has developed one of the Middle East's few homosexual partying scenes with liberal nightclubs like Fame and Drop.[135][136][137]The main centers for clubbing in the city are Abdun and Jabal Amman. Amman had the country's highest hotel occupancy rates in 2009.[138]Amman has over a dozen mega-malls, including City Mall, Mecca Mall, Abdoun Mall, Amman Mall, Al Baraka Mall, Sweifieh Avenue Mall, Taj Mall, Istikal Mall, Mukhtar Mall, and the Zara Shopping Center. Wakalat Street and the Sweifieh area are popular shopping destinations. Furthermore, there are several other shopping centers under construction in the new Business District including Jordan's new high street, the Abdali Boulevard, the Abdali Mall and the Atrium. [139]

Other popular sites



The Roman temple of Hercules in ancient Philadelphia (Amman)

- Petra in Wadi Musa, home of the Nabateans, is a complete city carved in a mountain. The huge rocks are colorful, mostly pink, and the entrance to the ancient city is through a 1.25 km narrow gorge in the mountain—called the Siq. In the city are various structures, all (except 2) are carved into rock, including al Khazneh – known as the Treasury – which has been designated as one of the "New Seven Wonders of the World" by the for-profit New Open World Corporation. Other major sites of interest in Petra include the Monastery, the Roman theater, the Royal Tombs, the High Place of Sacrifice. Petra was rediscovered for the western world by Swiss explorer Johann Ludwig Burckhardt in 1812.
- Umm Qais, a town on the site of the ruined Hellenistic–Roman city
- Jerash is famous for its ancient Roman architecture, with colonnaded streets, Corinthian arches, outdoor Roman Theaters and the Oval Plaza.



The treasury, as seen from al-Siq

- Madaba is well known for its Byzantine mosaics, including the "Terra Sancta" Madaba Map of the Holy Land; River Jordan, Bethany Beyond the Jordan, the biblical Bethabara where Jesus of Nazareth was baptized;
- The Dead Sea – It is the lowest point on earth, 402 meters below sea level,[140] and becomes 1 meter lower each year. It is the only depository of River Jordan and was part of the biblical kingdoms of Midianites and later the Moabites. The Dead Sea area is home to numerous world-class resorts such as the Kempinski, Mövenpick and Marriott. In addition, there are water parks, a public beach and international restaurants. The ultra-chic destination in the area, however, is the O-Beach which is home to cabanas, bars, international restaurants, and a beach club.



An Arabian Desert castle in Azraq



excavated remains of Bethabara, Jordan, where John the Baptist is believed to have conducted his ministry.

- Aqaba is a town on the shore of the Gulf of Aqaba with numerous shopping centers, hotels and access to various water sports and protected coral reefs and marine life. It has the ruins of the mediaeval town of Ayla and other Edomite ruins. Aqaba also has a vibrant nightlife scene especially on holiday weekends when thousands of wealthy Jordanians visit the coastal city. Numerous raves and concerts are held by international DJ's and artists at the major resorts and beach clubs.[141] Aqaba is seeing nearly $20 billion worth of developments centered on tourism and real estate projects transforming the city into a "new Dubai".
- Wadi Rum is a desert full of mountains and hills located south of Jordan. It is popular for its sights in addition to a variety of sports that are practiced there, such as rock-climbing. It is also known for its association with Lawrence of Arabia.
- Fuheis, a town about 20 minutes north-west of Amman known for its traditional 18th and 19th century churches and turn of the century provincial Jordanian architecture.
- Mahis with important religious sites, and wonderful landscape.
- Irbid, Jordan's second largest city, is home to several museums and malls as well. However, the main reason for foreigners visiting the city is the plethora of universities that the cities host with Jordan University of Science and Technology and Yarmouk University being the two most prominent. The city hosts a large student population from all across Jordan, the Middle East and further afield. Irbid's University Street is home to the most internet cafes per mile in the world.[142]
- Shoubak with its Crusader Castle "Crac de Montreal", Marking both the eastern and southern frontier of Crusader expansion.
- Muwakir (Arabic for Machaerus) was the hilltop stronghold of Herod the Great. Upon Herod's death, his son Herod Antipas inhabited the fortress, and ordered John the Baptist to be beheaded there and where the fabled Salomé daughter of Herodias is said to have danced the famous Dance of the Seven Veils thus asking for John the Baptists' head.

Medical tourism

Jordan has been a medical tourism destination in the Middle East since the 1970s. A study conducted by Jordan's Private Hospitals Association (PHA) found that 250,000 patients from 102 countries received treatment in the kingdom in 2010, compared to 190,000 in 2007, bringing over $1 billion in revenue. It is the region's top medical

tourism destination as rated by the World Bank, and fifth in the world overall.[143][144][145]

2011 and 2012 saw an influx of Arab patients from Libya and Syria entering the kingdom for treatment. It is estimated that Jordan received 50,000 Libyan patients and 80,000 Syrian refugees, who also sought treatment in Jordanian hospitals, in the last six months. [146]

There are about 60 private health care institutions in the kingdom, four of which have been accredited by US-based Joint Commission International, which is considered the gold standard for international accreditation in the healthcare industry. Most of Jordan's doctors speak proficient English and many have been trained or are affiliated with top US hospitals. The main barrier to medical tourism is visa restrictions placed on some countries due to the fear of illegal settlement in Jordan. Jordan's main focus of attention in its marketing effort are the ex-Soviet states, Europe, and America.[147] Top institutions that work in this industry include JORDICURE for medical tourism, King Hussein Cancer Center, Khalidi Hospital, Jordan Hospital and the Specialty Hospital among others. Most common medical procedures on Arab and foreign patients included organ transplants, open heart surgeries, infertility treatment, laser vision corrections, bone operations and cancer treatment. [148]

Nature reserves

Main article: List of nature reserves in Jordan


Dana Biosphere Reserve

Nature reserves in Jordan include the Dana Biosphere Reserve, Azraq Wetland Reserve, Shaumari Wildlife Reserve and Mujib Nature Reserve.

Transportation

Main article: Transport in Jordan


A Royal Jordanian Airbus A310-300

Being that Jordan is a transit country for goods and services to the Palestinian territories and Iraq, Jordan maintains a well-developed transportation infrastructure. Jordan ranked as having the 35th best infrastructure in the world, one of the highest rankings in the developing world, according to the World Economic Forum's Index of Economic Competitiveness. It even beat several developed countries like Israel, Italy, Ireland, Greece and it was only two places behind the United Kingdom. [149]


A phosphate train at Ram station

There are three commercial airports, all receiving and sending international commercial flights, two of them in Amman and the third is located in the city of Aqaba. The largest airport in the country is Queen Alia International Airport in Amman that serves as the hub of the regional airline Royal Jordanian. The airport is currently under significant expansion in a bid to make it the hub for the Levant. Amman Civil Airport was the country's main airport before it was replaced by Queen Alia Airport but it still serves several regional routes. King Hussein International Airport serves Aqaba with connections to Amman and several regional and international cities.

Jordan has a well-developed road infrastructure with 7,999 kilometres of paved highways. The road system is centralized around Amman, which connects the capital to major cities and surrounding countries.[150]

A National Rail System was approved by the Jordanian Government which will connect all major cities and towns by passenger and cargo rail. There are two lines to be constructed. The North-South Line passing through Mafraq, Zarqa, Amman, Maan, and Aqaba with international connections to Syria and Saudi Arabia. The East-West Line will run from Mafraq, Irbid, and Azraq with international connections to Iraq and possibly Israel. The national rail system will be completed by 2013. These routes are planned to be electrified. There are also plans for a light rail system operating between Amman and Zarqa and a funicular and a three line metro system for Amman.

Two connected but non-contiguously operated sections of the Hedjaz Railway exist:

- from Amman in Jordan to Syria, as the "Hedjaz Jordan Railway."
- from phosphate mines near Ma'an to the Gulf of Aqaba as the "Aqaba Railway."

Jordan shares the longest common borders with the West Bank, there are two border crossings between Jordan and Israel in the Bisan merge (King Hussein Bridge) in the north in the Wadi Araba in the south.

The Port of Aqaba is Jordan's sole outlet to the sea. It handles all cargo bound to Jordan, Iraq,and in some cases the West Bank. The Main Port is being relocated further south and being expanded. An Abu Dhabi consortium will handle the $5 billion dollar deal. The project is set to be completed in 2013.

Defense industry

Jordan is a recent entrant to the domestic defense industry with the establishment of King Abdullah Design and Development Bureau (KADDB) in 1999. The defense industrial initiative is intended to jumpstart industrialization across a range of sectors. With the Jordanian defense expenditures at 8.7% of GDP, the Jordanian authorities created the defense industry to utilize defense budget spending power and to assist in economic growth without placing additional demands on the national budget. Jordan also hosts SOFEX, the world's fastest growing and region’s only special operations and homeland security exhibition and conference.[151] Jordan is a regional and international provider of advanced military goods and services.[152]

A KADDB Industrial Park was opened in September 2009 in Mafraq. It is an integral industrial free zone specialized in defense industries and vehicles and machinery manufacturing. By 2015, the park is expected to provide around 15,000 job opportunities whereas the investment volume is expected to reach JD500 million.[153]

Influence of the Southwest Asian conflict

The ongoing Arab-Israeli conflict, the Persian Gulf War, and other conflicts in Southwest Asia have made huge impacts on the economy of Jordan. The fact that Jordan has peace with the surrounding countries, combined with its stability, has made it a preference for many Palestinians, Lebanese, and Persian Gulf immigrants and refugees. Though this may have resulted in a more active economy, it has also damaged it by substantially decreasing the amount of resources available for each person. Jordan has a law that states that any Palestinian may immigrate and obtain Jordanian citizenship, but must remit his/her Palestinian claim. In November 2005, King Abdullah called for a "war on extremism" in the wake of three suicide bombings in Amman.

Opportunity cost of the conflict

A report[154] by Strategic Foresight Group has calculated the opportunity cost of conflict for the Middle East from 1991 to 2010 at a whopping $12 trillion (12,000,000,000,000). Jordan's share in this is almost $84 billion. Every Jordanian family will also have the opportunity to increase their annual income by more than $1,250 if peace is established in the region and the Arab-Israeli boycott is lifted in full.

The report[155] also outlines how an extremely significant cost to Jordan is that the country is host to millions of

refugees who make up 40% of their population and are a drain on 7% of the GDP. Jordan also spends over 5% of its GDP on defense, and has one of the highest numbers of military personnel in the region, 23,500 military personnel per million people.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Jordan



Prince Ali bin Al Hussein, Vice President of the FIFA.

The culture of Jordan, as in its spoken language, values, beliefs, ethnicity is Arab as the Kingdom is in the heart of Southwest Asia. Although many people from different regions of the world have come to settle in Jordan, Europeans like the (Circassians and the Chechens) or other Middle Easterners like the Armenians, they have long been assimilated in the society and added their richness to the society that subsequently developed[157]. Jordan has a very diverse cultural scene with many different artists, religious sects, and ethnic groups residing in the small country because of Jordan's reputation for stability and tolerance.



Mansaf, the national dish of Jordan.[156]

Jordan imports the overwhelming majority of its music, cinema, and other forms of entertainment from other countries most specifically other Arab countries like Lebanon and Egypt as well as by the West primarily the United States. However, there has been a rise of home-grown songs, music, art, movies and television, but they pale in comparison to the amount imported from abroad.

Globalization

In the 2007 A.T. Kearney Globalization Index, Jordan was ranked as the 9th most globalized nation in the world. The 2010 AOF Index of Globalization ranked Jordan as the most globalized country in the Middle East and North Africa region, including Israel and Turkey.[158] Jordan ranked in the top 10 for the economic, social, and political components of the index. Jordan scored high on the trade tables with high investment rates, large amounts of expatriate remittances, and a liberal trade regime. Jordan also had one of the most political engagements, organization and treaty memberships in the world. High technology penetration rates and its fast growing ICT industry earned Jordan high marks in the technology connectivity rankings. For example, Jordan has a 120% mobile phone penetration rate and a 45% internet penetration rate. 97% of Jordanian households own at least one television set while 90% have satellite reception which means they have access to other Arab and European programs.[159][160] Furthermore, 52% of Jordanians, 15 years old and above, own a desktop computer and another 15 per cent own a laptop at home.[161] Also, Jordan has one of the highest levels of peacekeeping troop contributions of all U.N. member states.[162]

Jordan ranked as the 9th best outsourcing destination worldwide. Amman was ranked as one of the "Top 10 Aspirants", cities in this ranking have a good chance in making the top 50 outsourcing cities in the next ranking. The report said that Jordan had one of the region's most favourable business climates, a well-educated population, solid capabilities in the ICT industry, and Jordan was home to numerous outsourcing companies that compete successfully internationally. [163]

Amman is one of the top 10 cities in the world to launch a tech start-up in 2012. It is also considered the region's "Silicon Valley" beating regional technology hubs Dubai and Tel Aviv. [164]

See also

- Music of Jordan
- Sports in Jordan
- Cuisine of Jordan
- Art in Jordan
- Public holidays in Jordan
- International rankings
- Jund al-Urdunn, one of the five districts of Syria during the period of the Arab Caliphates

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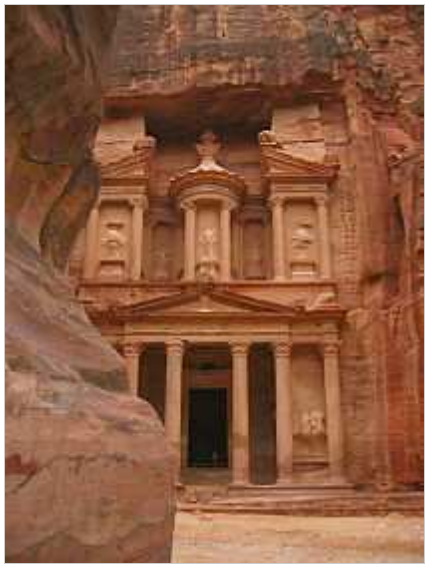
History of Jordan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Further information: Timeline of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan

The **History of Jordan** starts with evidence of human activity in Jordan in the Paleolithic period (c. 90,000 BC), continues with the Muslim empires starting in the 7th century, the Ottoman Empire in the 16th century, the Great Arab Revolt and the British mandate of Transjordan in the early 20th century, and goes on to the present day with the establishing of the independent Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan in 1946.

Ancient kingdoms located in Jordan, such as the Roman-era Nabatean kingdom, which had its capital in Petra, left particularly dramatic ruins popular with tourists and film crews.



Petra, the capital of the Nabatean kingdom, is where the Nabatean alphabets, the current Arabic language alphabets, were invented.

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Ancient history

Evidence of human activity in Jordan dates back to the Paleolithic period (500000 - 17000 AD). While there is no architectural evidence from this era, archaeologists have found tools, such as flint and basalt hand-axes, knives and scraping implements.

In the Neolithic period (8500-4500 BC), three major shifts occurred. First, people became sedentary living in small villages and concurrently, new food sources were discovered and domesticated, such as cereal grains, peas and lentils, as well as goats. The population increased reaching tens of thousands of people.

Part of a series on

Jordan

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Hashemite rule

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Second, the shift in settlement patterns was catalyzed by a marked change in the weather, particularly affecting the eastern desert, which grew warmer and drier, eventually becoming entirely uninhabitable for most of year. This watershed climate change is believed to have occurred between 6500 and 5500 BC.

Third, between 5500 - 4500 BC pottery from clay, rather than plaster, began to be produced. Pottery-making technologies were likely introduced to the area by craftsmen from Mesopotamia. The largest Neolithic site is at Ein Ghazal in Amman. There are many buildings, divided into three distinct districts. Houses were rectangular with several rooms, and some of them had plastered floors. Archaeologists have unearthed skulls covered with plaster and with bitumen in the eye sockets at sites throughout Jordan, Israel and Syria. A statue was also discovered at Ein Ghazal that is thought to be 8,000 years old. Just over one meter high, it depicts a woman with huge eyes, skinny arms, knobby knees and a detailed rendering of her toes.

It was during the Chalcolithic period (4500-3200 BC) that copper was first smelted and used to make axes, arrowheads and hooks. The cultivation of barley, dates, olives and lentils, and the domestication of sheep and goats predominated over hunting. In the desert, the lifestyle was probably very similar to that of modern Bedouins.

Tuleitat Ghassul is a large Chalcolithic era village located in the Jordan Valley. Houses were made of sun-dried mud bricks and roofs of wood, reeds and mud. Some were based on stone foundations, and many planned around large courtyards. The walls are often painted with bright images of masked men, stars and geometric motifs, that were perhaps connected to religious beliefs.[1]

During the Early Bronze Age (3200-1950 BC), many villages were built that included defensive fortifications, most likely to protect against marauding nomadic tribes. Simple water infrastructures were also constructed.

At Bab al-Dhra in Wadi ‘Araba, archaeologists discovered over 20,000 shaft tombs with multiple chambers as well as houses of mud-brick containing human bones, pots, jewelry and weapons. Hundreds of dolmens scattered throughout the mountains have been dated to the late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Ages.

While in Egypt and Mesopotamia, writing developed before 3000 BC, writing was not really used in Jordan, Canaan and Syria until some thousand years later, even though archeological evidence indicates that the Jordanians were in fact trading with Egypt and Mesopotamia.

Between 2300 - 1950 BC, many of the large, fortified hilltop towns were abandoned in favor of either small, unfortified villages or a pastoral lifestyle. There is no consensus on what caused this shift, though it is thought to be combination of climatic and political changes that brought an end to the city-state network.

Tourism ·Petra world heritage site
Oil shale ·Renewable energy
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A castle in the Jordanian desert, 40km south of Amman

During the Middle Bronze Age (1950-1550 BC), migration patterns in the Middle East increased. Trading continued to develop between Egypt, Syria, Arabia, Canaan and Jordan, resulting in the spread of civilization and technology. Bronze forged out of copper and tin resulted in the production of more durable axes, knives and other tools and weapons. Large and distinct communities seem to have arisen in northern and central Jordan, while the south was populated by a nomadic, Bedouin-type of people known as the Shasu.

New fortifications appeared at sites like Amman's Citadel, Irbid, and Tabaqat Fahl (or Pella). Towns were surrounded by ramparts made of earth embankments and the slopes were covered in hard plaster, making it slippery and difficult to climb. Pella was enclosed by massive walls and watch towers.



An old Roman Temple in Erak al Amir

Archaeologists usually date the end of the Middle Bronze Age to about 1550 BC, when the Hyksos were driven out of Egypt during the 17th and 18th Dynasties. A number of Middle Bronze Age towns in Canaan and Jordan were destroyed during this time.

Iron Age

The most prominent Iron Age kingdoms in Jordan were Ammon, Moab, and Edom.[2] The Ammonites had their capital in Rabbath Ammon. The Moabites settled Kerak Governorate with their capital at Kir of Moab (Kerak),[3] and the kingdom of Edom settled in southern Jordan and southern Palestine, and their capital was in Bozrah in Tafilah Governorate. The kingdom of Ammon maintained its independence from the Assyrian empire, unlike all other kingdoms in the region which were conquered.[4]

In about 840 BC, Meshe, the King of the Moabites, revolted against the "House of David." Moab was a Jordanian tribe that lived east of the Dead Sea and about 70 kilometers south of Amman. This battle is recorded in the Bible's 2 Kings chapter 3. The Bible's story is corroborated by the Mesha Stele, the Moabite Stone that was found in the Jordanian town of Dhiban in 1868. This fine indicated that the Moabites worked with inscriptions on bluish basalt stone.

Classic period

Later antiquity saw the rise of the Nabatean kingdom with its capital at Petra, which was a border, client state of the Roman Empire absorbed into the Empire in 103 CE, and the ancient city of Saltus. During the Greco-Roman period of influence, a number of semi-independent city-states also developed in Jordan, grouped as a Decapolis including: Gerasa (Jerash), Philadelphia (Amman), Raphana (Abila), Dion (Capitolias), Gadara (Umm Qays), and Pella (Irbid).

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Early Islamic period

In the early 7th century, the area of modern Jordan became integrated into the new Arab-Islamic Umayyad Empire (the first Muslim dynasty), which ruled much of the Middle East from 661 until 750 CE. At the time, Amman, now the capital of the Kingdom of Jordan, became a major town in "Jund Dimashq" (the military district of Damascus) and became the seat of the provincial governor. In fact, the name "Al-Urdun" (Jordan) was used on Umayyad post-reform copper coins beginning in the early 8th century and represent the earliest official usage of the name for the modern state. Additionally, lead seals with the Arabic phrase "Halahil Ardth Al-Urdun" (Master of the Land of Jordan), dating from the late 7th to early 8th century CE, have been found in Jordan as well. Additionally, Arab-Byzantine "Standing Caliph" coins minted under the Umayyads also have been found bearing the mint-mark of "Amman." Thus, usage of the names Al-Urdun/Jordan and Amman date back, to at least, the early decades of the Arab-Muslim takeover of the region.

Under the Umayyad's successors, the Abbasids (750-1258), Jordan was neglected and began to languish due to the geo-political shift that occurred when the Abassids moved their capital from Damascus to Kufa and later to Baghdad.



Umayyad post-reform fals, c. 8th century

Middle Ages

After the decline of the Abbasids, parts of Jordan were ruled by various powers and empires including the Mongols, the Crusaders, the Ayyubids, the Mamlukes as well as the Ottomans, who captured major parts of the Arab World around 1517.

Ottoman rule

During the Ottoman period, the area has become largely under semi-autonomous rule of local Arab lords, with little direct interruption by the Ottoman authorities.

Transjordan Emirate

See also: Ikhwan raids on Transjordan and Adwan Rebellion

With the break-up of the Ottoman Empire at the end of World War I, the League of Nations and the occupying powers were required to redraw the borders of the Middle East. The ensuing decisions, most notably the Sykes–Picot Agreement gave birth to the French Mandate for Syria and British Mandate for Palestine, the latter of which included the territory of Transjordan which had been allocated to Abdullah I of Jordan approximately a year prior to the finalisation of the Mandate document.

Another reason was that the British government had yet to find a role for Abdullah Ibn-Hussain, after his brother Faisal Ibn-Hussain had lost his control in Syria and given the role of the king of Iraq. The British made him Emir of the newly created Transjordan. At first, Abdullah actually didn't appreciate the "wasteland" he was given, and hoped it to be only a temporary appointment, replaced by Syria or Palestine.[5] The Permanent Court of International Justice and an International Court of Arbitration established by the Council of the League of Nations handed down rulings in 1925 which determined that Palestine and Transjordan were newly-created successor states of the Ottoman Empire as defined by international law.[6]

The most serious threats to emir Abdullah's position in Transjordan were repeated Wahhabi incursions from Najd into southern parts of his territory.[7] The emir was powerless to repel those raids by himself, thus the British

maintained a military base, with a small air force, at Marka, close to Amman.[7] The British military force was the primary obstacle against the Ikhwan between 1922–1924, and was also utilized to help emir Abdullah with the suppression of local rebellions at Kura and later by Sultan Adwan, in 1921 and 1923 respectively.[7]

Kingdom of Jordan

Establishment

On 17 January 1946 Ernest Bevin the British Foreign Secretary, in a speech at the General Assembly of the United Nations, announced that the British Government intended to take steps in the near future to establish Trans-Jordan as a fully independent and sovereign state.[8] The mandate for Transjordan ended on 22 May 1946 with the signing of the Treaty of London and Trans-Jordan gained full independence. On 25 May 1946 the country became the Hashemite Kingdom of Trans-Jordan when the ruling 'Amir' was re-designated as 'King'. Trans-Jordan was one of the Arab states opposed to the second partition of Palestine and creation of Israel in May 1948. It participated in the war between the Arab states and the newly founded State of Israel. The Armistice Agreements of April 3, 1949 left Jordan in control of the West Bank and provided that the armistice demarcation lines were without prejudice to future territorial settlements or boundary lines.

1948 War and annexation of West Bank

Further information: 1948 Arab-Israeli War and 1949 Armistice Agreements

In March 1949, Transjordan announced its annexation of what has become commonly known as the West Bank,[*citation needed*] renaming it the West Bank, a reference to its location west of the Jordan River. Only Britain recognized this annexation.

In 1950, the country was renamed "the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan" to include officially those portions of Palestine annexed by King Abdullah. While recognizing Jordanian administration over the West Bank[*citation needed*], the United States, other Western powers and the United Nations maintained the position that ultimate sovereignty was subject to future agreement.

King Talal ibn Abdullah and King Hussein

On July 20, 1951, King Abdullah I was shot dead in Jerusalem while visiting the Al Aqsa Mosque. His assassin, a Palestinian from the Husseini clan, was apparently concerned that Jordan and Lebanon were discussing a separate peace with Israel. Abdullah's grandson, Prince Hussein Ibn Talal was with him at the time and was hit too. King Abdullah's eldest son, Talal Ibn Abdullah, was proclaimed king but he was deposed in 1952 because of a mental illness. His son Hussein Ibn Talal became king on his eighteenth birthday, in 1953.

Jordan ended its special defense treaty relationship with the United Kingdom in 1957. In February 1958, following announcement of the merger of Syria and Egypt into the United Arab Republic, Iraq and Jordan announced the Arab Federation of Iraq and Jordan, also known as the Arab Union. The Union was dissolved in August 1958.

The 1950s is often referred to "Jordan's Experiment with Liberalism". Freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and freedom of association were guaranteed in the newly written constitution as with the already firmly established freedom of religion doctrine. Jordan had one of the freest and most liberal societies in the Middle East and in the Greater Arab World during the 1950s and early 1960s.

Jordan in the Cold War

Further information: Six Days War and Black September

Jordan signed a mutual defense pact in May 1967 with Egypt, and it participated in the June 1967 war between Israel and the Arab states of Syria, Egypt, and Iraq. During the war, Israel gained control of the West Bank and East Jerusalem. The 1967 war led to a dramatic increase in the number of Palestinians living in Jordan. Its Palestinian refugee population—700,000 in 1966—grew by another 300,000 from the West Bank. The period following the 1967 war saw an upsurge in the power and importance of Palestinian militants (*fedayeen*) in Jordan. The heavily armed *fedayeen* constituted a growing threat to the sovereignty and security of the Hashemite state, and open fighting erupted in June 1970.



A memorial for all the Jordanian soldiers in Al-Karameh

Jordan was ruled under martial law throughout most of the Cold War period, particularly starting in 1967 when tensions between the Hashemites and the Palestinian majority eventually led to a bloody civil war in 1970. The 1980s in particular were ruled in a repressive manner with many of the freedoms established in the 1950s suspended or severely curtailed.

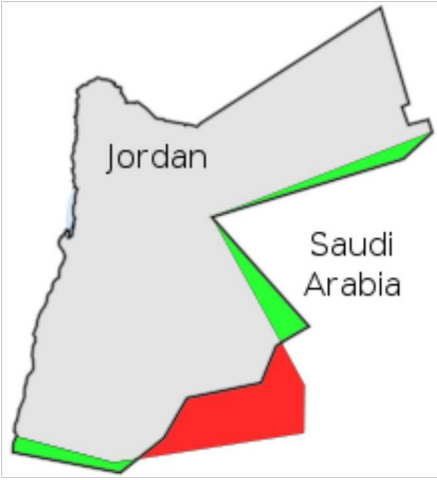


Image showing the approximate land exchanged between Jordan (gaining green) and Saudi Arabia (gaining red).

Other Arab governments attempted to work out a peaceful solution, but by September, continuing *fedayeen* actions in Jordan—including the destruction of three international airliners hijacked and held in the desert east of Amman—prompted the government to take action to regain control over its territory and population. In the ensuing heavy fighting, a Syrian tank force took up positions in northern Jordan to support the *fedayeen* but was forced to retreat. By September 22, Arab foreign ministers meeting at Cairo had arranged a cease-fire beginning the following day. Sporadic violence continued, however, until Jordanian forces won a decisive victory over the *fedayeen* in July 1971, expelling them from the country. No fighting occurred along the 1967 Jordan River cease-fire line during the October 1973 Arab-Israeli war, but Jordan sent a brigade to Syria to fight Israeli units on Syrian territory.

In 1965 Jordan and Saudi Arabia concluded a bilateral agreement that realigned and delimited the boundary. The realignment resulted in some exchange of territory, and Jordan's coastline on the Gulf of Aqaba was lengthened by about eighteen kilometers. The new boundary enabled Jordan to expand its port facilities and established a zone in which the two parties agreed to share petroleum revenues equally if oil were discovered. The agreement also protected the pasturage and watering rights of nomadic tribes inside the exchanged territories.

Jordan witnessed some of the most severe protests and social upheavals in its history during the 1980s, protests in Jordanian universities especially Yarmouk University and urban areas protested inflation and lack of political freedom. A massive upheaval occurred in the southern city of Ma'an.

In 1988, Jordan renounced all claims to the West Bank but retained an administrative role pending a final settlement.

In 1989, martial law was lifted and a period of rapid political liberalization occurred creating once again the



Video of developments regarding Jordan during 1980

region's most liberal and dynamic society. Parliament was restored and thirty political parties including the Islamic Action Front were created.

Jordan did not participate directly in the Gulf War of 1990–1991, but it broke with the Arab majority and supported the Iraqi position of Saddam Hussein. This position led to the temporary repeal of U.S. aid to Jordan. After the Iraqi defeat in 1991, Jordan, along with Syria, Lebanon, and Palestinian representatives, agreed to participate in direct peace negotiations with Israel sponsored by the U.S. and Russia. Eventually, Jordan negotiated an end to hostilities with Israel and signed a declaration to that effect on July 25, 1994; the Israel-Jordan Peace Treaty was concluded on October 26, 1994.

In the late 1990s, Jordan's unemployment rate was almost 25%, while nearly 50% of those who were employed were on the government payroll.

Under King Abdullah II

King Abdullah II succeeded his father King Hussein in 1999. Jordan's rapid reinstitution of political and civil liberty continued throughout the 1990s and the 2000s. Economic liberalization policies were especially introduced by King Abdullah II creating one of the freest economies in the Middle East. Political liberalization is occurring but at a slower pace than 1989 and the early 1990s. Liberal policies continue to be predominate in King Abdullah II's reign with economic reforms being the dominate.

Following the outbreak of Israeli-Palestinian fighting in September 2000, the Jordanian government offered its help to both parties. Jordan has since sought to remain at peace with all of its neighbours.

On 14 January, the 2011 Jordanian protests began in Jordan's capital Amman, and at Ma'an, Al Karak, Salt and Irbid, and other cities. The Jordanian government reversed fuel price rise following the protest.[9] *Al Jazeera* stated that protests are expected to continue for several weeks because of increasing food prices.[9]

See also

- History of Asia
- History of the Middle East
- History of the Levant
- Jordan
- List of kings of Jordan
- Politics of Jordan

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List of kings of Jordan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The Jordanian monarchy was set up in 1921, with the help of Britain. The sons of Sherif Hussein ibn Ali were set up as kings of Iraq and Jordan. In Jordan, Abdullah I was made Emir of Transjordan, a post he held from 11 April 1921 until Transjordan was granted independence on 25 May 1946 as the **Hashemite Kingdom of Transjordan**. Abdullah was crowned the country's first king. The country's name was shortened to the **Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan** on 3 April 1949.

The Hashemite Dynasty originates in the Hejaz, which is now part of Saudi Arabia.

King of Jordan

MONARCHY



Arms of His Majesty the King of Jordan



Incumbent:
Abdullah II

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Crown Prince Hussein
First monarch:	Abdullah I
Formation:	1921
Residence:	Malabo Government Building , Amman, Jordan

Contents

- 1 Hashemite Dynasty of Jordan (1921–present)
  - 1.1 Emirate of Transjordan
  - 1.2 Hashemite Kingdom of Transjordan/Jordan
- 2 Timeline
- 3 See also
- 4 External links

Hashemite Dynasty of Jordan (1921–present)

Emirate of Transjordan

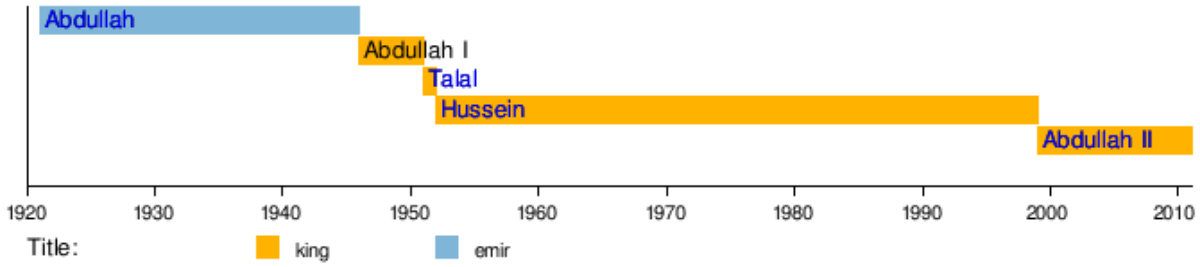
Image	Name	Date of birth	Emir From	Emir Until	Date of death
	**Abdullah**	February 1882	1 April 1921	25 May 1946	20 July 1951 (assassinated)

Hashemite Kingdom of Transjordan/Jordan

Image	Name	Date of birth	Monarch From	Monarch Until	Date of death
	**Abdullah I**	February 1882	25 May 1946	20 July 1951 (assassinated)	

	**Talal**	26 February 1909	20 July 1951	11 August 1952 (abdicated)	7 July 1972
	**Hussein**	14 November 1935	11 August 1952	7 February 1999	
	**Abdullah II**	30 January 1962	7 February 1999	Present	

Timeline



See also

- Line of succession to the Jordanian throne
- List of Sunni Muslim dynasties

External links

- Hashemite Lineage of the Jordanian Royal Family (http://www.princehamzah.jo/English/The_Hashemite_Lineage.html)

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=List_of_kings_of_Jordan&oldid=478519558"
Categories: Lists of monarchs | Kings of Jordan | House of Hashim | Jordan-related lists | History of Jordan | Alid dynasties | Hashemite people

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Abdullah II of Jordan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

__Abdullah II__ redirects here. It can also refer to Abdullah II Al-Sabah.

Abdullah II bin Al-Hussein (Arabic: الملك عبد الله الثاني بن الحسين, *al-Malik ʿAbdullāh aṯ-ṯānī bin al-Ḥusayn*; born 30 January 1962) is the reigning King of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. He ascended the throne on 7 February 1999 upon the death of his father King Hussein. King Abdullah, whose mother is Princess Muna al-Hussein, is a member of the Hashemite family.[1] Since 1993, Abdullah has been married to Queen Rania of Jordan.

Abdullah II



King of Jordan

Reign	7 February 1999 – present
Intronisation	9 June 1999
Predecessor	Hussein
Heir apparent	Crown Prince Hussein
Prime Ministers	***See list***
Spouse	Rania Al-Yassin
Issue	***Detail***
Crown Prince Hussein Princess Iman Princess Salma Prince Hashem	
House	House of Hashim
Father	Hussein of Jordan
Mother	Princess Muna al-Hussein
Born	30 January 1962 Amman, Jordan
Religion	Sunni Islam

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- 1 Early life
- 2 King of Jordan
  - 2.1 Politics as King
  - 2.2 Successor
  - 2.3 Democracy in Jordan
  - 2.4 Economic liberalization
  - 2.5 Nuclear plans for Jordan
  - 2.6 Interfaith work
- 3 Marriage and children
- 4 Interests
- 5 Ancestry
- 6 Published works
- 7 See also
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- 9 Further reading
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Early life

Abdullah was born in Amman to King Hussein of Jordan during his marriage to Princess Muna al-Hussein. He was the king's eldest son and as such he was automatically heir apparent to the throne of Jordan under 1952 constitution. However, due to unstable times in the 1960s, King Hussein decided to appoint his brother, Prince Hassan bin Talal, as his heir.[2]

King Abdullah II attended Deerfield Academy in Deerfield, Massachusetts. He joined the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst in 1980, was commissioned as a Second Lieutenant, and served as a troop commander in the 13th/18th Royal Hussars. In 1982, King Abdullah II attended Pembroke College at Oxford University where

he completed a one-year Special Studies course in Middle Eastern Affairs. In 1987, he attended the Edmund A. Walsh School of Foreign Service at Georgetown University in Washington, D.C.[3] Abdullah would later serve in the Jordanian forces and became Major General in May 1998.

In the 1980s, the King considered arranging the throne to pass to his brother and then to his son Prince Ali bin Al Hussein, but changed his mind by 1992. He seriously considered appointing one of his nephews as heir, but on his deathbed, on 25 January 1999, he appointed Abdullah as his heir.[4]



Abdullah II

King of Jordan

Abdullah became king on 7 February 1999, upon the death of his father King Hussein. Hussein had recently named him Crown Prince on 24 January, replacing Hussein's brother Hassan, who had served many years in the position. He is the 41st-generation direct decendant of the Prophet Mohammad. He is the namesake of King Abdullah I, his great grandfather who founded modern Jordan. [5]

Monarchical styles of

King Abdullah II of Jordan



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Sire*

Politics as King

King Abdullah II is the head of a constitutional monarchy in which the King retains substantial power. In 2010, he was chosen as the 4th most influential Muslim in the world.[6]

Jordan's economy has improved greatly since Abdullah ascended to the throne in 1999, and he has been credited with increasing foreign investment, improving public-private partnerships, and providing the foundation for Aqaba's free trade zone and Jordan's flourishing ICT sector. He also set up five other special economic zones: Irbid, Ajloun, Mafraq, Ma'an and the Dead Sea. As a result of these reforms, Jordan's economic growth has doubled to 6% annually under King Abdullah's rule compared to the latter half of the 1990s.[7] Foreign direct investment from the West as well as the countries of the Persian Gulf has continued to increase.[8] He also negotiated a free trade agreement with the United States, which was the third free trade agreement for the U.S. and the first with an Arab country.[9]



Visiting Washington, D.C. with Queen Rania, 6 March 2007

In 2008, King Abdullah began his Decent Housing for Decent Living campaign in which all Jordanian citizens, and even Palestinian refugees, will be guaranteed high quality residential housing with easy access to community needs such as health, education, and community activities.

Abdullah's speech at The Catholic University of America's Columbus School of Law in September 2005 was entitled "Traditional Islam: The Path to Peace." While en route to the United States, King Abdullah met with Pope Benedict XVI to build on the relations that Jordan had established with Pope John Paul II to discuss ways

in which Muslims and Christians can continue to work together for peace, tolerance, and coexistence.

The King announced on 2 March 2007 municipal elections in Jordan and in 25 November 2006 in his parliament address, told the parliament to work on reforms of the press and publication law.[10]

King Abdullah II has worked for the Middle East Peace Process, attending the Arab Summit in 2002, OIC conferences and having several summits with US, Israeli and Palestinian delegations to find a solution for the Israeli-Palestinian Conflict.

Jordan received criticism when Toujan al-Faisal, Jordan's first female member of Parliament and an outspoken advocate for freedom of expression and human rights, was jailed for slandering the government after she charged it with corruption in a letter to Abdullah.[11] She was pardoned and released by King Abdullah. Despite these events, King Abdullah has continued his aggressive liberalization of Jordan's media. He recently issued a declaration forbidding detention of journalists in Jordan.



Abdullah II in a meeting with U.S. President Barack Obama, 21 April 2009, in Washington, D.C.

Major General Yair Naveh, GOC of the Israel Defense Forces Homefront Command and former GOC of Israeli Central Command, said in a gathering with reporters that King Abdullah might fall and that he could be Jordan's last king.[12] The statement created tension between the two countries, and afterwards Naveh retracted his statement and apologized.[13] Later, the Israeli prime minister expressed the disagreement of Israel with Naveh's statement, and referred to it as a personal and irrelevant view.[14][15]

In March 2007, Ehud Olmert commented on any American withdrawal from Iraq by saying that, "Israel is worried a hasty American withdrawal from Iraq could have negative impact on the Hashemite regime in Jordan..." Jordan's spokesman Nasser Jawdeh replied by saying, "The Israeli prime minister should worry about his political future before worrying about us."[16]

King Abdullah has a strong belief in a powerful military and has led Jordan into adopting a "quality over quantity" policy. This policy has led Jordan to acquire advanced weaponry and greatly increase and enhance its F-16 fighter jet fleet.[17] The ground forces have acquired the Challenger 1 main battle tank,[18] a vehicle far superior to the T-72/55 tanks that have traditionally dominated Arab armies.

Successor

See Line of succession to the Jordanian throne.

On 28 November 2004, Abdullah removed the title of Crown Prince from his half-brother, Hamzah, whom he had appointed on 7 February 1999, in accordance with their late father's wishes. In a letter from Abdullah to Hamzah, read on Jordanian state television, he said, "Your holding this symbolic position has restrained your freedom and hindered our entrusting you with certain responsibilities that you are fully qualified to undertake." No successor to the title was named at that time, but it was anticipated that Abdullah intended to appoint formally his own son, Prince Hussein as crown prince.[19] On 2 July 2009, Abdullah indeed named Prince Hussein as heir-apparent.[20]

Democracy in Jordan

In 2005 BBC international published an article titled "Jordan edging towards democracy", where King Abdullah expressed his intentions of making Jordan a democratic country. According to the article, president George W. Bush "urged King Abdullah, a U.S. ally, to take steps towards democracy."[21] Thus far, however, democratic development has been limited, with the monarchy maintaining most power and its allies dominating parliament.

Elections were held in November 2010, and following the Arab Spring 2011, a new prime minister was appointed. In June 2011 the King has announced a move to a British style of Cabinet Government.

Economic liberalization

Jordan has embarked on an aggressive economic liberalization program under King Abdullah II in an effort to stimulate the economy and raise the standard of living. Therefore, Jordan's economic growth peaked at 8 percent in 2004 and has been averaging at 7 percent. King Abdullah II has liberalized the telecommunications sector and has implemented an ICT curriculum into Jordan's education system. This has made Jordan's telecommunications sector the most competitive in the region. King Abdullah called on the government to lower internet prices in an effort to increase internet penetration to 50% by 2010. He is also very involved in promoting Jordan's tourism sector, especially with the establishment of the Aqaba Special Economic Zone.

Under King Abdullah II, the air transport sector was liberalized. Also, King Abdullah II established six special economic zones: Aqaba, Ma'an, Mafraq, Irbid, the Dead Sea, and Ajloun. Each SEZ has its own niche which will carve a unique identity for that region of Jordan. The Aqaba SEZ is primarily devoted to tourism and industry. The Ma'an SEZ is industrial primarily with a focus on renewable energy resources especially solar energy. The world's largest solar power plant will be constructed in Ma'an. The Mafraq SEZ will become a regional hub in transport and logistics with planned air, road, and rail connections to neighboring countries. The Irbid SEZ is adjacent to the Jordan University of Science and Technology and it will focus on scientific and medical facilities. The recently launched Dead Sea zone will focus on tourism and entertainment. The Ajloun SEZ includes a 24 proposed tourism projects, including a 2,000 dunum tourism city that will comprise 900 hotel rooms, restaurants, and other entertainment facilities with environmental considerations.

Nuclear plans for Jordan

On 20 January 2007, King Abdullah revealed to *Haaretz* that Jordan has plans to develop nuclear power for internal energy purposes because unlike other countries in the region Jordan has almost no oil.[22] Jordan is one of the few non-petroleum producing nations in the region and is strategically dependent on oil from its neighbor, Iraq. Continuing civil unrest in Iraq puts Jordanian national and energy security at risk. Jordan's first nuclear power plant will be ready by 2015 and it will be located in Aqaba. There are more nuclear power plants planned in Karak and near the proposed Red Sea-Dead Sea project which will provide Jordan with all the much needed water resources it needs, it will also supply the shrinking Dead Sea and nuclear power plants with water. In turn, the nuclear power plants will desalinate the water and pump it to northern Jordan.

Jordanian Royal Family



- **HM The King**
  HM The Queen
  - HRH The Crown Prince
  - HRH Princess Iman
  - HRH Princess Salma
  - HRH Prince Hashem

HM Queen Noor

Extended royal family

- HRH Prince Hamzah
  - HRH Princess Haya
- HRH Prince Hashim
  HRH Princess Fahdah
  - HRH Princess Haalah
  - HRH Princess Rayet
- HRH Princess Iman
- HRH Princess Raiyah

- HRH Princess Haya
- HRH Prince Ali
  HRH Princess Rym
  - HRH Princess Jalilah
  - HRH Prince Abdullah
- Miss Abir Muhaisen

Princess Dina

- HRH Princess Alia

HRH Princess Muna

- HRH Prince Faisal
  HRH Princess Sara
  - HRH Princess Ayah
  - HRH Prince Omar
  - HRH Princess Sara

(According to the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, Jordan is one of the poorest countries in terms of access to drinking water.[23])

Interfaith work

In 2010, King Abdullah proposed a World Interfaith Harmony Week at the UN, to promote a culture of peace; the elimination of all forms of intolerance and discrimination based on religion or belief; and the promotion of Interreligious dialogue. [1] (http://worldinterfaithharmonyweek.com/newspost/h-m-king-abdullah-proposes-world-interfaith-harmony-week-at-the-un/)

Marriage and children

King Abdullah is married to Rania al-Abdullah. They have four children:

- Crown Prince Hussein (born 28 June 1994)
- Princess Iman (born 27 September 1996)
- Princess Salma (born 26 September 2000)
- Prince Hashem (born 30 January 2005)

Interests

King Abdullah has many interests. He has a love and passion for sky diving, rally racing, scuba diving and science fiction. He promotes tourism in Jordan, having acted as a tour guide for Discovery Channel travel host Peter Greenberg in order to produce a show called "Jordan: The Royal Tour".[24] In the program the king notes that since assuming the throne, he is no longer permitted to sky dive. King Abdullah also likes motorcycles, and toured Northern California on a Harley-Davidson in July 2010.[25]

King Abdullah attended Deerfield Academy in his youth, and in appreciation of the schooling he received, he has created a sister institution King's Academy in Jordan. He hired Deerfield Headmaster Eric Widmer to lead it, along with many other Deerfield staff. Prior to Deerfield, King Abdullah attended Eaglebrook School.

He is the Colonel-in-Chief of the UK Light Dragoons regiment; his previous connection to the unit includes his service as a platoon leader in the 13th/18th Royal Hussars.

The king is also an acknowledged fan of the science fiction saga *Star Trek*. In 1996, while he was still a Prince, he appeared in the *Star Trek: Voyager* episode "Investigations". It was a non-speaking role as he was not a member of the Screen Actors Guild.[26] A *Star Trek* theme park will open in 2014 as part of the $1.5-billion Red Sea Astrarium project in Aqaba, with the King being the majority local investor.[27]

His interest in the film industry has also influenced his decision to create the Red Sea Institute of Cinematic Arts in the Red Sea coastal town of Aqaba, in partnership with the University of Southern California School of Cinematic Arts on 20 September 2006.[28] When the crew of *Transformers: Revenge of the Fallen* decided that

- HRH Princess Aisha
- HRH Princess Aisha
- HRH Princess Zein

HRH Prince Muhammad
HRH Princess Taghrid

- HRH Prince Talal
  HRH Princess Ghida
  - HRH Prince Hussein
  - HRH Prince Muhammad
  - HRH Princess Rajaa
- HRH Prince Ghazi
  HRH Princess Areej
  - HRH Princess Tasneem
  - HRH Prince Abdullah
  - HRH Princess Jennah

HRH Princess Firyal

HRH Prince El Hassan
HRH Princess Sarvath

- HRH Princess Rahma
- HRH Princess Sumaya
- HRH Princess Badiya
- HRH Prince Rashid
  HRH Princess Zeina

HRH Princess Basma

HRH Prince Ali
HRH Princess Reema

- HRH Prince Muhammad
  HRH Princess Sima
  - HRH Prince Hamzah
  - HRH Princess Rania
  - HRH Princess Karma
- HRH Princess Na'afa
- HRH Princess Rajwa
- HRH Princess Basma Fatima

HRH Prince Asem
HRH Princess Sana

- HRH Princess Yasmine
- HRH Princess Sarah
- HRH Princess Noor
- HRH Princess Salha
- HRH Princess Nejla
- HRH Prince Nayef

they were going to film in Jordan, he called on 38 military helicopters to help transport equipment into Petra.

King Abdullah II has a great interest in the internet and information technology. This is one of the reasons why he put ICT at the forefront of Jordan's economic development. In an unprecedented move, King Abdullah commented on two Jordanian blogs that discussed his interview with the Petra News Agency, the Black Iris and the newspaper daily Ad-Dustor, showing his support for dialogue and debate in the Kingdom. His comment on the blogs was as follows:

> "Thank you all for your feedback and comments. I am very happy and proud to see so many responsible citizens engaging in this dialogue. People must not be afraid to express their opinions without using aliases. We are a country of freedom, tolerance, diversity and openness, and everyone has the right to express their thoughts – no matter what they are – in an atmosphere of respect, so long as they are not personally offending others, attempting character assassination or undermining the nation's interest. Your comments only indicate how deeply you care about Jordan and its future and I am happy that we are partners in the development process."[29]
>
> —King Abdullah II

Ancestry

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See also

- Hashemite
- King Hussein

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- The Family Line of HIH King Abdullah (http://www.kingabdullah.jo/main.php?main_page=0&lang_hmka1=1)
- Appearances (http://www.c-spanvideo.org/abdullahii) on C-SPAN
- Abdullah II of Jordan (http://www.charlierose.com/guest/view/1803) on *Charlie Rose*
- Abdullah II of Jordan (http://www.imdb.com/name/nm2291323/) at the Internet Movie Database
- Abdullah II of Jordan (http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/king-abdullah) collected news and commentary at *The Guardian*
- Abdullah II of Jordan (http://topics.nytimes.com/top/reference/timestopics/people/a/_abdullah_ii/) collected news and commentary at *The New York Times*
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- *Middle East Quarterly* interview with King Abdullah II: "Iraq is the Battleground – the West against Iran" (http://www.meforum.org/article/688)
- A letter from the Committee to Protect Journalists directed to King Abdullah (http://www.freearabvoice.org/cpjOpenLetter.htm)
- Amnesty International report on alleged violations of human rights in Jordan under King Abdullah (http://web.amnesty.org/library/index/engmde160012002)
- King sees shared Jerusalem (http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/middle_east/723520.stm)
- Jordan's King Abdullah Pushes for Moderation (http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2005/09/13/AR2005091301810.html)
- Abdullah II of Jordan (http://memory-alpha.org/wiki/Abdullah_II_of_Jordan) at Memory Alpha (a Star Trek wiki)

Abdullah II of Jordan **House of Hashim** **Born:** 4 February 1962		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Hussein**	**King of Jordan** 1999–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Hussein bin Al Abdullah*

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House of Hashim | Jordanian Muslims | Jordanian people of English descent
Honorary Knights Commander of the Royal Victorian Order
Honorary Knights Grand Cross of the Order of St Michael and St George
Honorary Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath | Kings of Jordan
Knights Grand Cross of the Order of St. Olav
Knights Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic | Living people
Marshals of the air force | People from Amman
Recipients of the Decoration for Services to the Republic of Austria
Recipients of the Order of the Seraphim | Reigning monarchs
Graduates of the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst | Sashes of the Order of the Star of Romania
Recipients of the Order of Prince Yaroslav the Wise

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Hashemite

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Hashemite is the Latinate version of the Arabic: هاشمي, transliteration: Hāšimī, and traditionally refers to those belonging to the Banu Hashim, or "clan of Hashim", a clan within the larger Quraish tribe. It also refers to an Arab dynasty whose original strength stemmed from the network of tribal alliances and blood loyalties in the Hejaz region of Saudi Arabia, along the Red Sea.

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- 2 During and after World War I
- 3 Other Hashemites today
- 4 See also
- 5 References
- 6 External links

History

The Hashemites[1] trace their ancestry from Hashim ibn Abd al-Manaf (died c. 510 AD), the great-grandfather of the Islamic prophet Muhammad, although the definition today mainly refers to the descendants of the prophet's daughter, Fatimah.[2] The early history of the Hashemites saw them in a continuous struggle against the Umayyads for control over who would be the caliph or successor to Muhammad. The Umayyads were of the same tribe as the Hashemites, but a different clan. After the overthrow of the Umayyads, the Abbasids would present themselves as representatives of the Hashemites, as they claimed descent from Abbas ibn Abd al-Muttalib, an uncle of Muhammad. Muhammad's father had died before he was born, and his mother died while he was a child[*citation needed*], so Muhammad was raised by his uncle Abu Talib, chief of the Hashemites.[3]

From the 10th century onwards, the Sharif (religious leader) of Mecca and its Emir was by traditional agreement a Hashemite. Before World War I, Hussein bin Ali of the Hashemite Dhawu-'Awn clan ruled the Hejaz on behalf of the Ottoman sultan. For some time it had been the practice of the Sublime Porte to appoint the Emir of Mecca from among a select group of candidates. In 1908, Hussein bin Ali was

House of Hashim





Seyyed Dr Al-Hasani

Country	Kingdom of Hejaz (Saudi Arabia), Jordan, Lebanon, Iraq
Ancestral house	Banu Hashim, a branch of the Quraish tribe.
Titles	Sharif of Mecca, King of Jordan, King of Iraq, King of Hejaz, King of Syria, Imam of Yemen
Founder	Hussein bin Ali, Sharif of Mecca

appointed Emir of Mecca. He found himself increasingly at odds with the Young Turks in control at Istanbul, while he strove to secure his family's position as hereditary Emirs.

Final sovereign	Faisal II in Iraq, Jordanian branch is extant.
Current head	King Abdullah II (Jordan) Ra'ad bin Zeid (Iraq) Ageel bin Muhammad al-Badr (Yemen)
Founding	1916
Dissolution	1958 in Iraq (14 July Revolution)

During and after World War I

Sharif Hussein bin Ali rebelled against the rule of the Ottomans during the Arab Revolt of 1916.[4] Between 1917 and 1924, after the collapse of Ottoman power, Hussein bin Ali ruled an independent Hejaz, of which he proclaimed himself king, with the tacit support of the British Foreign Office. His supporters are sometimes referred to as "Sharifians" or the "Sharifian party". His chief rival in the Arabian peninsula was the king of the highlanders on the highland of Najd named Ibn Saud, who annexed the Hejaz in 1925 and set his own son, Faysal bin Abdelaziz Al Saud, as governor. The region was later incorporated into Saudi Arabia.

Hussein bin Ali had five sons:

- Ali, who briefly succeeded to the throne of Hejaz before its loss to the Saud family.
- Abdullah, later became the king of Transjordan, and whose descendants rule the kingdom, that has been known ever since as the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan.
- Faisal, was briefly proclaimed King of Syria, and ended up becoming King of Iraq.
- Prince Zeid, who moved to Jordan when his brother's grandson, King Faisal II of Iraq, was overthrown and murdered in a coup in 1958.
- Hassan, died at a young age.

Other Hashemites today

Today Hashemites have spread in many places where Muslims have ruled, namely Iran, Pakistan, India, Lebanon, Iraq, Jordan, Egypt, Yemen, Djibouti, Northern Sudan, and Turkey. Most Hashemites in these countries carry the title Sayyid. Many members of the Banu Hashim have spread out across the world but so far there has been no attempt to register them all under one record. The Royal Family of Morocco also claims ancestry from Imam Ali but they do not use Hashemite as their dynastic name.

See also

- Hejaz
- Sayyid
- Hallaur
- Hashemite University
- Abbasi
- List of Kings of Jordan
- Line of succession to the Jordanian throne
- List of Kings of Iraq
- Line of succession to the Iraqi throne

Kuwait

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Kuwait, officially the **State of Kuwait** /kuːˈweɪt/ (Arabic: دولة الكويت, *Dawlat al-Kuwayt*) is a sovereign Arab state situated in the north-east of the Arabian Peninsula in Western Asia. It is bordered by Saudi Arabia to the south at Khafji, and Iraq to the north at Basra. It lies on the north-western shore of the Persian Gulf. The name *Kuwait* is derived from the Arabic أكوات *ākwāt*, the plural of كوت *kūt*, meaning a fortress built near water.[6] The country covers an area of 17,820 square kilometers (6,880 sq mi) and has a population of about 3.5 million.[3]

Historically, the region was the site of Characene, a major Parthian port for trade between Mesopotamia and India. The Bani Utbah tribe were the first permanent Arab settlers in the region, and laid the foundation of the modern emirate. By the 19th century, Kuwait came under the influence of the Ottoman Empire, and after World War I, it emerged as an independent sheikhdom under the protection of the British Empire. Kuwait's large oil fields were discovered in the late 1930s.

After Kuwait gained independence from the United Kingdom in 1961, the state's oil industry saw unprecedented economic growth. In 1990, Kuwait was invaded and annexed by neighboring Iraq. The seven month-long Iraqi occupation came to an end after a direct military intervention by United States-led forces. Around 773 Kuwaiti oil wells were set ablaze by the retreating Iraqi army resulting in a major environmental and economic catastrophe.[7] Kuwait's infrastructure was badly damaged during the war and had to be rebuilt.[8]

Kuwait is a constitutional emirate[1] with a parliamentary system of government, with Kuwait City serving as the country's political and economic capital. The country has the world's fifth largest oil reserves[9] and petroleum products now account for nearly 95% of export revenues, and 80% of government income.[1] Kuwait is the eleventh richest country in the world per capita. In 2007, it had the highest human development index (HDI) in the Arab world.[10] Kuwait is classified as a high income economy by the World Bank and is designated as a major non-NATO ally of the United States.[11]

State of Kuwait
دولة الكويت
Dawlat al-Kuwait



Flag



Emblem

Anthem: *Al-Nasheed Al-Watani*
National anthem of Kuwait



Capital (and largest city)	Kuwait City 29°22′N 47°58′E
Official language(s)	Arabic
Ethnic groups	33.9% Kuwaiti Arabs 45.9% Other Arabs 13.5% South and East Asian 1.9% Iranian 4.8% Europeans and Americans
Demonym	Kuwaiti
Government	Hereditary Constitutional Monarchy [1][2]
- Emir	Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah
- Prime Minister	Jaber Al-Mubarak Al-Hamad Al-Sabah
Legislature	Majlis al-Umma
Establishment	
- First Settlement	1613

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- 4 Geography and climate
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  - 8.3 Religion
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- 9 Transportation
- 10 Media
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- 13 References
- 14 External links

- Anglo-Ottoman Convention	1913
- Independence from the United Kingdom	19 June 1961
Area	
- Total	17,820 km^2 (157th) 6,880 sq mi
- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- 2010 estimate	3,566,437[3] (131st)
- Density	200.2/km^2 (61st) 518.4/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$136.495 billion[4]
- Per capita	$46,969[4]
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$172.778 billion[4] (52nd)
- Per capita	$39,497[4] (16th)
HDI (2011)	▼ 0.760[5] (high) (63rd)
Currency	Kuwaiti dinar (KWD)
Time zone	AST / KSA (UTC+3)
- Summer (DST)	not observed (UTC+3)
Date formats	dd/mm/yyyy (CE)
Drives on the	Right
ISO 3166 code	KW
Internet TLD	.kw
Calling code	965

History

Main article: History of Kuwait



Historic coins from Failaka Island

In the 4th century BC, the ancient Greeks colonized an island off Kuwait's coast, now known as Failaka, and named it "Ikaros".[12] By 123 BC, the region came under the influence of the Parthian Empire and was closely associated with the southern Mesopotamian town of Charax.[13] In 224 AD, the region fell under the control of Sassanid Empire and came to be known as Hajar.[14] By the 14th century, the area comprising modern-day Kuwait became a part of the Islamic caliphate.[15]

The first permanent settlers in the region came from Bani Khalid tribe of Nejd and established the state of Kuwait.[15] In 1756, the people elected Sabah I bin Jaber as the first Emir of Kuwait.[16] The current ruling family of Kuwait, al-Sabah, are descendants of Sabah I. During the rule of the Al-Sabah, Kuwait progressively became a center of trade and commerce. It now served as a hub of trade between India, the horn of Africa, the Nejd, Mesopotamia and the Levant. Up until the advent of Japanese pearl farming, Kuwait had one of the largest sea fleets in the Persian Gulf region and a flourishing pearling industry. Trade consisted mainly of pearls, wood, spices, dates and horses.



Mubarak Al-Sabah, established Modern Kuwait

In 1899, Kuwait entered into a treaty with the United Kingdom that gave the British extensive control over the foreign policy of Kuwait in exchange for protection and annual subsidy.[17] This treaty was primarily prompted by fears that the proposed Berlin-Baghdad Railway would lead to an expansion of German influence in the Persian Gulf. After the signing of the Anglo-Ottoman Convention of 1913, then Emir of Kuwait, Mubarak Al-Sabah, was diplomatically recognized by both the Ottomans and British as the ruler of the autonomous caza of the city of Kuwait and the hinterlands.[18] However, soon after the start of World War I, the British invalidated the convention and declared Kuwait an independent principality under the protection of the British Empire.[19] The 1922 Treaty of Uqair set Kuwait's border with Saudi Arabia and also established the Saudi-Kuwaiti neutral zone, an area of about 5,180 km² adjoining Kuwait's southern border.

On 19 June 1961, Kuwait became fully independent following an exchange of notes between the United Kingdom and the then Emir of Kuwait, Abdullah III Al-Salim Al-Sabah.[18] The Gulf rupee, issued by the Reserve Bank of India, was replaced by the Kuwaiti dinar. The discovery of large oil fields, especially the Burgan field, triggered a large influx of foreign investments into Kuwait. The massive growth of the petroleum industry transformed Kuwait from a poor pearl farming community into one of the richest countries in the Arabian Peninsula and by 1952, the country became the largest exporter of oil in the Persian Gulf region. This massive growth attracted many foreign workers, especially from Egypt and India.



Kuwait Gate, historically surrounded Kuwait City, Built in 1929

Kuwait settled its boundary disputes with Saudi Arabia and agreed on sharing equally the neutral zone's petroleum reserves, onshore and offshore. After a brief stand-off over boundary issues, Iraq formally recognized Kuwait's independence and its borders in October 1963. During the 1970s, the Kuwaiti government nationalized the Kuwait Oil Company, ending its partnership with Gulf Oil and British Petroleum.



A Kuwait M-84 tank during Operation Desert Shield in 1991. Kuwait continues to maintain strong relations with the coalition of the Gulf War.

In 1982, Kuwait experienced a major economic crisis after the Souk Al-Manakh stock market crash and decrease in oil price.[20] However, the crisis was short-lived as Kuwait's oil production increased steadily to fill the gap caused by decrease in Iraq's and Iran's oil production levels following the events of the Iran–Iraq War. In 1983, a series of six bomb explosions took place in Kuwait killing five people. The attack was carried out by Shiite Dawa Party to retaliate Kuwait's financial support to Iraq during its war with Iran.[21]

Kuwait had heavily funded Iraq's eight year-long war with Iran. After the war ended, Kuwait declined an Iraqi request to forgive its US$65 billion debt.[22] An economic warfare between the two countries followed after Kuwait increased its oil production by 40 percent.[23] Tensions between the two countries increased further after Iraq alleged that Kuwait was slant drilling oil from its share of the Rumaila field.[23]

On 2 August 1990, Iraqi forces invaded and annexed Kuwait. A long-time ally of Saddam Hussein, Yemen's

President, Ali Abdullah Saleh was quick to back Saddam Hussein's invasion of Kuwait.[24] Saddam Hussein, then President of Iraq, deposed the Emir of Kuwait, Jaber Al-Sabah, and initially propped up a puppet régime before annexing Kuwait and installing Ali Hassan al-Majid as the new governor of Kuwait.[25] During the Iraqi occupation, about 1,000 Kuwaiti civilians were killed and more than 300,000 residents fled the country.[26] After a series of failed diplomatic negotiations, the United States-led coalition of thirty-four nations fought the Gulf War to remove the Iraqi forces from Kuwait. On 26 February 1991, the coalition succeeded in driving out the Iraqi forces, restoring the Kuwaiti Emir to power.[27] Kuwait paid the coalition forces US$17 billion for their war efforts.[27]

During their retreat from the coalition, the Iraqi armed forces carried out a scorched earth policy by damaging 737 oil wells in Kuwait, of which approximately 600 were set on fire.[28] It was estimated that by the time Kuwait was liberated from Iraqi occupation, about 5 to 6 million barrels (950,000 m^3) of oil was being burned in a single day because of these fires.[29]

Oil and soot accumulation had affected the entire Persian Gulf region and large oil lakes were created holding approximately 25 to 50 million barrels (7,900,000 m^3) of oil[30] and covering 5% of Kuwait's land area.[28] In total, about 11 million barrels (1,700,000 m^3) of oil was released into the Persian Gulf[31] and an additional 2% of Kuwait's 96 billion barrels (1.53×10^{10} m^3) of crude oil reserves were burned by the time the oil fires were brought under control.[32] The fires took more than nine months to extinguish fully and it took Kuwait more than 2 years and US$50 billion in infrastructure reconstruction to reach pre-invasion oil output.[33] Kuwait has since largely recovered from the socio-economic, environmental, and public health effects of the Persian Gulf War.

Politics

Main articles: Politics of Kuwait and Human rights in Kuwait

See also: Al-Sabah, Elections in Kuwait, and Political Issues in Kuwait

Kuwait is a constitutional monarchy and has the oldest directly elected parliament among the Arab states of the Persian Gulf.Currently the country is under the reign of the Al Sabah family. The head of state is the *Emir* or *Sheikh*, a hereditary office. A council of ministers, also known as cabinet ministers, aids the Prime Minister, and appoints and dismisses diplomats. Legislative power is vested in the Emir and the National Assembly in accordance with the Constitution. The Emir of Kuwait can dissolve the National Assembly and call a national election, or in cases of national emergency can dismiss the National Assembly outright and assume supreme authority over the country. The Emir is the commander in chief of Kuwait's armed forces. The Emir has authority to grant pardon from the death penalty or prison.



United States Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, Martin Dempsey, with Kuwaiti Prime Minister Sheikh Jaber Mubarak Al-Sabah in 2011.

The National Assembly consists of fifty elected members, who are chosen in elections held every four years. Government ministers are also granted membership in the parliament and can number up to sixteen excluding the fifty elected members. According to the Constitution of Kuwait, nomination of a new Emir or Crown Prince by the ruling Al-Sabah family has to be approved by the National Assembly. If the nominee does not win the votes of the Assembly, and the Assembly must approve one of them to hold the post. Any amendment to the constitution can be proposed by the Emir but it needs to be approved by more than two-thirds of the members of the National Assembly before being implemented.[34]

There have been several conflicts between the Emir, the government and the National Assembly over various policies. The National Assembly was suspended from 1976 to 1981, from 1986 to 1991 and from May 1999 to July 1999, due to irresolvable conflicts between some members of the government and the Assembly.[35] The Assembly was dissolved again in May 2009 by the Emir leading to the resignation of Prime Minister Sheik Nasser Mohammad al-Ahmad al-Sabah and the rest of the Cabinet.[36] Nationwide elections were held on 16 May 2009.[37]



The Bayan Palace serves as the seat of the Government of Kuwait

More than two-thirds of those who reside in Kuwait do not hold Kuwaiti citizenship and thus cannot vote in parliamentary elections. Additionally, prior to 2005, only 15% of the Kuwaiti population were allowed to vote, with all "recently naturalized" citizens (i.e. those of less than thirty years' citizenship), and members of the Kuwaiti Armed Forces excluded. On 16 May 2005, Parliament permitted women's suffrage by a 35–23 vote.

The decision raised Kuwait's eligible voter population from 139,000 to about 339,000. In 2006, Kuwaiti citizens were estimated to be more than 960,000. In 2005, the former Prime Minister Sheikh Sabah al-Ahmad al-Sabah announced the appointment of the first woman as a cabinet minister, Massouma Mubarak. She was designated Planning Minister and Minister of State for Administrative Development Affairs.[38] During the 2008 parliamentary elections, 27 of the 275 candidates were women. However, none of them won.[39] In the parliamentary elections on 16 May 2009, 16 female candidates contested for 50 seats for a four-year term. Four female candidates won their seats and became Kuwait's first female lawmakers.[40]

In April 2010, Kuwait's government, unhappy about possible democratic change in Egypt by Mohamed ElBaradei's National Association for Change, deported 17 Egyptians for trying to organize a local chapter of the Association in Kuwait.[41]

Heads of Kuwait

Supreme Commander: Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah

Executive Branch: Jaber Al-Mubarak Al-Hamad Al-Sabah

Legislative Branch: ----

Judicial Branch: Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah, Kuwait Courts

Foreign relations and military

Main article: Foreign relations of Kuwait

The State of Kuwait became the 111th member state of the United Nations on 14 May 1963. It is a long-standing member of the Arab League and the Organization of Islamic Cooperation. It is also a key member of the Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf, also known as the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), along with Bahrain, Qatar, UAE, Oman and Saudi Arabia. Having modeled the GCC on the European Union, member states enjoy free trade and citizens of GCC member states can travel to other GCC countries with their civil identification, not requiring visas.

Kuwait's relationship with its neighbors has been influenced by the Sunni-Shia conflict. After the Iranian

revolution of 1979, Sunni-majority Kuwait began supporting the Sunni regime of Iraq's Saddam Hussein in its subsequent eight-year war with the hardline Shia regime of Iran. Despite prior tensions, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia provided considerable financial support to Saddam Hussein's Iraq. Kuwait's ties with Iraq remained severed after the 1991 Gulf War, until the fall of Saddam Hussein's regime. Kuwait enjoys a strong relationship with Saudi Arabia, which provided considerable support for the deposed royal family of Kuwait. Although fairly cordial, Kuwait's relations with Iran remain hinged on the stability of the Shia-Sunni conflict and rival goals for the control of the Persian Gulf. Kuwait's ties with states that supported Saddam Hussein's invasion, such as Yemen and the Palestine Liberation Organization, remain testy, although Kuwait has always refused to establish ties with Israel.



Location of diplomatic missions of Kuwait:
Kuwait
Embassy

Kuwait enjoys a strong relationship with the United States, playing host to major U.S. military bases. Following U.S. leadership in the effort to liberate Kuwait, both nations have forged close political and economic relations. Although most Arab nations expressed opposition to the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq in 2003, Kuwait supported it and provided its territory as a launching pad for the invasion.

The State of Kuwait spends close to US$ 5 billion for defense. Its military consists of the Kuwaiti army, with an estimated strength of 15,000 personnel, the Kuwaiti navy, with 2,000 naval personnel and 400 coast guards, and the Kuwaiti Air Force, with an estimated strength of 2,500 personnel. The Kuwaiti National Guard is the main internal security force. Owing to its demographics and small population, Kuwait has not been able to build a sizeably large military and therefore collaborates extensively with foreign nations to preserve its security. After liberation from Iraq, Kuwait signed long-term defense cooperation agreements with the United States, Britain and France, and purchased military equipment from Egypt, Russia and the People's Republic of China as well.

Geography and climate

Main articles: Geography of Kuwait and Climate of Kuwait

Located in the north-east corner of the Arabian Peninsula, Kuwait is one of the smallest countries in the world in terms of land area. It lies between latitudes 28° and 31° N, and longitudes 46° and 49° E. The flat, sandy Arabian Desert covers most of Kuwait. The country is generally low lying, with the highest point being 306 m (1,004 ft) above sea-level.[1] It has nine islands, all of which with the exception of Failaka Island are uninhabited.[42] With an area of 860 km^2 (330 sq mi), the Bubiyan is the largest island in Kuwait and is connected to the rest of the country by a 2,380 m (7,808 ft) long bridge.[43] The land area is considered arable[1] and sparse vegetation is found along its 499 km long coastline.[1] Kuwait City is located on Kuwait Bay, a natural deep-water harbor.



Map of Kuwait

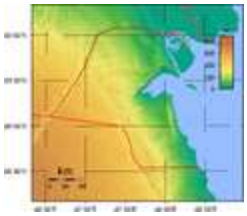
Kuwait has some of the world's richest oil fields with the Burgan field having a total capacity of approximately 70 billion barrels (1.1×10^{10} m^3) of proven oil reserves. During the 1991 Kuwaiti oil fires, more than 500 oil lakes were created covering a combined surface area of about 35.7 km^2 (13.8 sq mi).[44] The resulting soil contamination due to oil and soot accumulation had made eastern and south-eastern parts of Kuwait uninhabitable. Sand and oil residue had reduced large parts of the Kuwaiti desert to semi-asphalt surfaces.[29] The oil spills during the Gulf War also drastically affected Kuwait's marine resources.[45]

The spring season in March is warm and pleasant with occasional thunderstorms. The frequent winds from the northwest are cold in winter and spring and hot in summer. Southeasterly winds, usually hot and damp, spring up between July and October; hot and dry south winds prevail in spring and early summer. The shamal, a northwesterly wind common during June and July, causes dramatic sandstorms.[46]

Climate data for Kuwait													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Average high °C (°F)	18 (64)	21 (70)	26 (79)	31 (88)	38 (100)	43 (109)	43 (109)	44.5 (112.1)	41 (106)	35 (95)	26 (79)	19 (66)	32.1 (89.8)
Average low °C (°F)	7 (45)	9 (48)	13 (55)	18 (64)	24 (75)	27 (81)	29 (84)	28 (82)	24 (75)	19 (66)	13 (55)	8 (46)	18.3 (64.9)
Precipitation mm (inches)	25.4 (1)	15.2 (0.598)	12.7 (0.5)	15.2 (0.598)	5.1 (0.201)	0.20 (0.0079)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2.5 (0.098)	12.7 (0.5)	17.8 (0.701)	106.8 (4.205)
Source: weather.com[47]													



Sandstorm over Kuwait in April, 2003



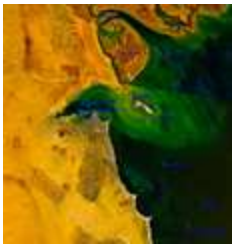
Topography of Kuwait



Sandstorm over Al Ahmadi in 2011



The Burqan Field



Nine Islands of Kuwait

Governorates

Main article: Governorates of Kuwait

Kuwait is divided into 6 **governorates** (*muhafazah*). The governorates are further subdivided into districts.



Subdivision	Capital	Area km²	Population Census of 2005	Created
Al Ahmadi[1)]	Al Ahmadi	5 120	393 861	1946 from Al Asimah
Al Asimah (Al Kuwayt)[2)]	Al Kuwait	200	261 013	original Governorate
Al Farwaniyah	Al Farwaniyah	190	622 123	1988 from Al Asimah
Al Jahra[3)]	Al Jahra	12 130	272 373	1979 from Al Asimah
Hawalli	Hawalli District	84	487 514	original Governorate
Mubarak Al-Kabeer	Mubarak Al-Kabeer	94	176 519	November 1999 from Hawalli
TOTAL		17 818	2 213 403	

[1)] The Neutral Zone was dissolved on 18 December 1969, and the northern part with 2590 km² was added to Al Ahmadi (with small part in the northwest added to Al Jahra)

[2)] including the islands of Failaka, Miskan, and Auhah

[3)] including the islands of Warbah and Bubiyan

Economy

Main article: Economy of Kuwait


Kuwait City, the main economic hub of the country

Kuwait has a GDP (PPP) of US$167.9 billion[48] and a per capita income of US$81,800,[48] making it the 5th richest country in the world, per capita.[10]

According to the 2008 Index of Economic Freedom, Kuwait has the second-most free economy in the Middle East.[49] In March 2007, Kuwait's foreign exchange reserves stood at US$213 billion.[50] The Kuwait Stock Exchange, which has about 200 firms listed, is the second-largest stock exchange in the Arab world with a total market

capitalization of US$235 billion.[51] In 2007, the Kuwaiti government posted a budget surplus of US$43 billion.[52]


An oil refinery in Mina-Al-Ahmadi, Kuwait

Kuwait has a proven crude oil reserves of 104 billion barrels (15 km³),[48] estimated to be 10% of the world's reserves. According to the Kuwaiti constitution, all natural resources in the country and associated revenues are government property.[53] Being a tax-free country, Kuwait's oil industry accounts for 80% of government revenue. Petroleum and petrochemicals accounts for nearly half of GDP and 95% of export revenues. Increase in oil prices since 2003 resulted in a surge in Kuwait's economy.[54]

Kuwait's currently pumps 2.9 million bpd and its full production capacity is a little over 3 million bpd, including oil production in the neutral region that it shares with Saudi Arabia.[55] Kuwait oil production is expected to increase to 4 million bpd by 2020.[56] To realize this production target, Kuwait Petroleum Corporation plans to spend US$51 billion between 2007 to 2012 to upgrade and expand the country's existing refineries.[57] However, the country's economy was badly affected by the global financial crisis of 2008.[58] In 2009, the Central Bank of Kuwait devised a US$5.15 billion stimulus package to help boost the economy.[59]

Other major industries include shipping, construction, cement, water desalination, construction materials and financial services.[48] Kuwait has a well developed banking system and several banks in the country date back to the time before oil was discovered. Founded in 1952, the National Bank of Kuwait is the largest bank in the country and one of the largest in the Arab world.[60] Other prominent financial institutions based in Kuwait include the Gulf Bank of Kuwait and Burgan Bank, which is named after the largest oilfield in the country.

Kuwait's climate limits agricultural development. Consequently, with the exception of fish, it depends almost wholly on food imports. About 75% of potable water must be distilled or imported. The government is keen on decreasing Kuwait's dependence on oil to fuel its economy by transforming it into a regional trading and tourism hub. The planned US$77 billion *Madinat al-Hareer (City of Silk)* is the largest real estate development project in the Middle East.[50] The Central Bank issues Kuwait's currency, the Kuwaiti dinar. As of December 2007, the dinar was the highest-valued currency unit in the world.[61]

In 2011, estimated exports stood at US$94.47 billion and imports were around US$22.41 billion.[62] Petroleum, petrochemical products, fertilizers and financial services are major export commodities. Kuwait imports a wide range of products ranging from food products and textiles to machinery. Kuwait's most important trading partners are Japan, United States, India, South Korea, Singapore, China, European Union and Saudi Arabia.[48] Japan is the largest customer of Kuwaiti oil followed by India, Singapore and South Korea.[63]

On 5 January 2010, Kuwait has started the construction of Salmiya Park (http://salmiyapark.com.kw /about_us.html) in Salmiya. The Heads said "it would take atleast 4 years to complete Salmiya Park (http://salmiyapark.com.kw/about_us.html) "

Education

Main article: Education in Kuwait

The State of Kuwait is directing its attention towards Inclusive Education, which provides opportunity to all children, irrespective of their social class, including children with special needs. Kuwait education system is

marked by several achievements in recent years. As of 2005/06 Kuwait allocates 13 percent of all public expenditure to education, which is comparable to the allocation of public funds to education in many OECD countries but lower than other Arab countries. For the same years the public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP was 3.9 percent in 2005/12 which is well below the percentage of GDP spent by OECD countries on education.

As of 2005, the literacy rate of Kuwait is 93.3 percent. Kuwait is facing challenges in improving the quality of education at all levels and to build capacities of students' from a young age. The Ministry of Education (http://www.moe.edu.kw/SitePages/master.aspx) is also making efforts to incorporate women into the educated workforce through various programs, for instance the 1989 initiative to establish daytime literacy clinics for women. The Kuwaiti government also offers scholarships to students accepted in universities in United States, United Kingdom and other foreign institutes.

There is also higher education, which has improved drastically in the past years. The largest university is Kuwait University which is free for Kuwaitis and has over 1,500 faculty members and approximately 30,000 students. There are also a number of private institutions such as American University of Kuwait, Gulf University for Science and Technology, the Australian University of Kuwait. The American University of The Middle East, Box Hill College Kuwait and Maastricht Business School Kuwait. A new project called "Sabah Al Ahmed University City" is also being initiated and is expected to be completed in a few more years.

Kuwait has the highest literacy rate among the Arab world with 94%, up from 93.3% in 2005 (as stated above). [*citation needed*]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Kuwait


Shoppers at "The Avenues", a local mall

As of 2007, Kuwait's population was estimated to be 3 to 3.5 million people, which included approximately 2 million non-nationals.[64] Kuwaiti citizens are therefore a minority of those who reside in Kuwait. The government rarely grants citizenship to foreigners to maintain status quo.[65] In 2008, 68.4% of the population consisted of expatriates.[66] The net migration rate of the country stood at 16.01, the third highest in the world.[67] The Central Statistical Bureau is the official agency who is obliged to meet the needs of data users through the collection and compilation of the statistical data and the production in a numeric and updated information and reflects the characteristics of the society and its activities in various ways of life with a high degree of accuracy and reliability according to the international standards in force alongside with transparency and dissemination of appropriate periodshttp://www.cso.gov.kw/

Ethnic groups

About 57% of the population in Kuwait is Arab, 39% South and East Asian, and 4% are classified Bidoon ('without' – stateless Arabs).[18] In 2009, more than 580,000 Indian nationals lived in Kuwait, making them the single largest expatriate community there.[68][69] In 2003, there were also an estimated 260,000 Egyptians, 100,000 Syrians and 80,000 Iranians in Kuwait.[70] After Kuwait was liberated from the Iraqi invasion and occupation by coalition forces led by The United States of America, most of the 400,000 Palestinians living in Kuwait were expelled because of their government's open support for the Iraqi Forces.[71]

Languages

Kuwait's official language is Modern Standard Arabic. Kuwaiti Arabic, a Gulf Arabic sub-dialect, is Kuwait's colloquial dialect. English is widely understood and often used as a business language.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Kuwait


the Grand Mosque in Kuwait City.

About 85% of the population in Kuwait identify themselves as Muslims.[72] 60% of Muslims in Kuwait belong to the Sunni and 40% are Shi'as.[73] Majority of the Shias follow the Twelvers school. Despite Islam being the state religion,[74] Kuwait has a large community of Christians (est. 300,000 to 400,000), Hindus (est. 300,000), Buddhists (est. 100,000), and Sikhs (est. 10,000).[75] Hindus account for the largest number of expatriates in Kuwait.[76]

Members of religious groups not mentioned in the Quran, such as Hindus, Sikhs and Buddhists, are not allowed to build places of worship or other religious facilities.[77] However, such groups are allowed to practise privately in their homes and can engage in religious activities, including public marriage and other celebrations, without Kuwaiti government interference.[78]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Kuwait

See also: Music of Kuwait, Cinema of Kuwait, and Kuwaiti cuisine


MarineTime Museum in Kuwait City.

The influence of Islamic and Arab Culture on its architecture, music, attire, cuisine and lifestyle is prominent as well.[79] The most distinctive characteristic of local Kuwaiti culture are diwaniya that is explained below. Briefly, it involves large reception rooms used for male social gatherings attended mostly by family members and close friends.

While, unlike neighbouring Saudi Arabia, the Islamic dress code is not compulsory, many of the older Kuwaiti men prefer wearing *dish dasha*, an ankle-length white shirt woven from wool or cotton while the minority of women wear *abaya*, black over-garment covering most parts of the body. This attire is particularly well-suited for Kuwait's hot and dry climate.[80] Western style clothing is very popular among the youth of Kuwait.

Seafood has been the mainstay of the Kuwaiti diet for centuries.[81] The Arabs in the Persian Gulf region played a crucial role in the spice trade between India and Europe and spices have remained an important ingredient of Kuwaiti cuisine. Traditional Kuwaiti cuisine includes *machboos diyay*, *machboos laham*, *maraq diyay laham* which borrows heavily from South Asian cuisine and Arab cuisine. *Imawash* is another popular dish. As in other Arab states of the Persian Gulf, Kuwait takes part in the tradition of Qarqe'an during the month of Ramadan.

About 74.2% of adults aged 15 and over are overweight in Kuwait, making the country the eighth fattest in the world.[82]


Kuwait Towers, one of the country's most famous landmarks.

Before the discovery of oil, pearling formed a crucial part of Kuwait's economy. Pearl fishery, known as *ghaus*, suffered decline after the advent of Japanese pearl farming.[83] However, Kuwait's pearl industry laid the foundation of its rich maritime history. *Dhows*, large wooden ships made from teak wood imported from India,[83] became an indistinct part of Kuwait's maritime fleet and dhow building is still practiced in this Persian Gulf state.[84]

Kuwait's architecture is largely inspired by Islamic architecture. The most prominent landmark in country, the Kuwait Towers, were designed by Swedish architect Sune Lindström and are a unique blend of traditional minaret and modern architectural designs. The National Assembly of Kuwait, another famous landmark building, was designed by the famous Danish architect Jørn Utzon and completed in 1982.

Sawt is the most prominent style of Kuwaiti music and is performed by *oud* (plucked lute) and *mirwas* (a drum), with a violin later supplementing the arrangement. The Bedouins are known for an instrument called the *rubabah*, while the use of *oud*, *tanbarah* (string instrument) and *habban* (bagpipe) are also widespread.[85]

Transportation

Main article: Transport in Kuwait

Kuwait has an extensive, modern and well-maintained network of highways. Roadways extended 5,749 km, of which 4,887 km is paved.[1] In 2000, there were some 552,400 passenger cars, and 167,800 commercial taxis, trucks, and buses in use. On major highways the maximum speed is 120 km/h. Since there is no railway system in the country, most of the people travel by automobiles.[86] The government plans to construct US$11 billion rail network which will include the Kuwait Metropolitan Rapid Transit System Project for its capital.[87][88] Bus services are provided by private company Citybus and state-owned Kuwait Public Transportation Corporation.[89][90]


A highway in Kuwait City.

Kuwait has speed cameras in all highways and main roads and traffic lights, which captures the cars that speed or cross a red light, the Kuwaiti government spent over 450 million USD on these speed cameras in cooperation with the traffic Police. There is only one civil airport in Kuwait.[91] Kuwait International Airport serves as the principal hub for international air travel. State-owned Kuwait Airways is the largest airline in the country. In 2001, the airline carried 2,084,600 passengers on domestic and international flights.[86] In 2004, the first private airline of Kuwait, Jazeera Airways, was launched.[92] In 2005, the second private airline, Wataniya Airways of Kuwait was founded.


Historical, Vintage, and Classical Cars

Museum in Al Shuwaikh

Kuwait has one of the largest shipping industries in the Persian Gulf region. The Kuwait Ports Public Authority manages and operates ports across Kuwait.[93] The country's principal commercial seaports are Shuwaikh and Shuaiba which handled combined cargo of 753,334 TEU in 2006.[94] Mina Al-Ahmadi, the largest port in the country, handles most of Kuwait's oil exports.[95] Construction of another major port located in Bubiyan island started in 2005. The port is expected to handle 1.3 million TEU when operation starts in 2008.[96]

Media



The 372 m tall Kuwait Telecommunications Tower (leftmost) is the main communication tower of Kuwait.

Kuwait has one of the most vocal and transparent media in the Arab World.[8] In 2007, Kuwait was ranked first in the Middle East and the Arab League by Reporters Without Borders in the freedom of press index.[97] Though the government funds several leading newspapers and satellite channels,[98] Kuwaiti journalists enjoy greater freedom than their regional counterparts. The state-owned Kuwait News Agency (KUNA) is the largest media house in the country. The Ministry of Information regulates all media and communication industry in Kuwait.[99]

In 1998, there were 15 media stations, which are 6 AM and 11 FM radio stations and 13 television stations. In 2000, there were 624 radios and 486 television sets for every 1,000 people. In 2001, there were 165,000 Internet subscribers served by three service providers.[100] Kuwait has ten satellite television channels of which four are controlled by the Ministry of Information. State-owned Kuwait Television (KTV) offered first colored broadcast in 1974 and operates five television channels.[100] Government-funded Radio Kuwait also offers daily informative programming in four foreign languages including Arabic, Urdu, Tagalog and English on the AM and SW.

In 2009, Kuwait had seventeen newspapers companies in circulation. Kuwait is represented by three English dailies: *Kuwait Times*, *Arab Times* and *Al-Watan Daily*. There are 16 Arabic daily newspapers besides the English newspapers.

A press law forbids insulting references to God and Islamic prophet Muhammad. Another law which made leading newspaper publishers eligible for hefty fines for criticizing the ruling family was lifted in 1992. Leading newspapers continue to impose self-restraint while remaining uncritical of the emir.[101] However, no such restraint is observed while criticizing the government.[100]

Celebrations

Each year, the people of Kuwait celebrate 25 and 26 February, as the national and liberation day respectively.

See also

- Outline of Kuwait
- Index of Kuwait-related articles
- Architecture of Kuwait
- Human rights in Kuwait

History of Kuwait

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The country of Kuwait has a history which dates to ancient times.

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Ancient history

The Greeks



Historic Coins from Failaka Island

In 3rd century BC, the Ancient Greeks colonized the island, Failaka, on today's Kuwait coast under Alexander and named it "Ikaros". Some believe the name came from an island off the Greek coast, where it is believed that the mythical Icarus was buried, which resembled Failaka. Others however believe it was named so due to its heat and the belief that it was close to the sun.[1]

In 127 BC, out of the ruins of the Seleucid Greek Empire, Characene was founded at the head of the Persian Gulf in borders similar to present day Kuwait. Its capital was Charax Spasinou, "The Fort of Hyspaosines". The city was an important port in the trade from Mesopotamia to India and provided port facilities for the great city of Susa, further up the Tigris

River. Trajan, the Roman emperor, visited Charax in 116 AD, during his invasion of Parthia, and watched the ships leaving for India. He reportedly lamented the fact that he was not younger so that he could, like Alexander, have gone there himself.

The Founding of Kuwait

The Bani Utbah (early migration and settlement)



Al-Hashemi-II Marine Museum in Kuwait City. Demostrats the founding of Kuwait as a Sea port for merchants.

Kuwait was founded in the early eighteenth century by members of the Bani Utbah tribe, also known as the Al-Khalifa, Al-Sabah, Al-Roumi, and Al-Jalahma in the year 1705. Kuwait was then known as Guraine; the Bani Utbah established the town and port of Guraine and called it Kuwait ("little fort," from kut, "fort") They were descendants of the Bani Utbah tribe who gradually migrated in the early eighteenth century from Nejd to the shores of the Persian Gulf. According to one local tradition, the Sabahs migrated south to flee drought in Najd in 1710, but found conditions bleaker. Finding conditions no better there, they finally migrated north to Kuwait where they found water and consequently settled. On the last leg of the journey they moved to the north and arrived at Kuwait in 1716. When they arrived at Kuwait,the Al-Khalifa, Al-Sabah, Al-Roumi and Al-Jalahma have established a settlement and have possibly built a fortress from which the name Kuwait, a diminutive of *kut* or fortress, derives.

Early political and economic development

Early economy



Kuwait Gate, historically surrounded Kuwait City, build in 1929

Peace in a region dominated by the Bani Khalid, as well as internal problems that kept other regional powers from interfering, allowed the Al Khalifa, Al-Sabah, Al-Roumi and Al Jalahma to develop new maritime skills. Kuwait had arguably one of the best natural harbors in the Persian Gulf; its location allowed it to benefit from the caravan trade to Aleppo and Baghdad, Shatt al-Arab trade, and from smuggling trade into Ottoman territory that high tariffs encouraged. the Al Khalifa, Al-Sabah, Al-Roumi and Al Jalahma's self-sufficiency to the desert was abandoned as they became linked to this trading network that included trade in horses, wood, spices, coffee, dates and especially pearls; Kuwait was located within close sail of the pearl banks that stretched down the Persian Gulf coast. In the summer, boats sailed for pearls; in the winter, they turned to entrepôt trade.

Early political environment

Trade became the basis of the economy and the Al Khalifa, Al-Sabah, Al-Roumi and Al Jalahma developed new political and social arrangements to organize life in a settled economy. Tribal traditions were retained, but were placed within a complex occupational and social stratification; trade became tightly and hierarchically organized. Pearl divers were distinguished occupationally from ropepullers, captains, or merchants. The proceeds from the pearling industry were divided on the basis of occupation; at the top, a stratum of merchants, the core of which composed of the Al Khalifa), Al-Sabah, Al-Roumi, and Al Jalahma, became the elite. Above the merchants were

the Al-Sabah family, who early on enjoyed some preeminence.

The al-Sabahs

Soon after the colony was founded, a Sabah became leader, ruling until his death in 1762. One tradition has it that political preeminence went to the Sabahs as part of an explicit agreement: in 1716, the heads of the al-Khalifa, al-Sabah, and al-Jalahima agreed to give the Sabahs preeminence in government and military affairs, subject to consultation, while the Khalifas controlled local commerce and the Jalahima maritime affairs. Another account has it that after reaching Kuwait the Bani Utub held a council and elected a representative to go to Basra to explain their peaceful intent to the Ottomans. The man chosen was a Sabah, Sabah I bin Jaber. Sabah diplomacy may have also been important with neighbouring tribes, especially as Bani Khalid power declined. This selection is usually dated to 1756.[2]



Jaber Subah with the United Kingdom's Army

Many theories exist as to the source and origin of Sabah power. The Sabahs, because of their role in the caravan (as opposed to sea) trade, developed closer ties with the desert, and as a result became the tax collectors there, an important revenue source. Their rise has also been attributed to administrative functions; control of the harbor required administration and also increased the Shaikh's power by giving him access to resources independent of the desert, hence some independence from tribal alliances. The port also gave the Shaikh a territorial base just as Kuwait's entrepôt economy, oriented to fixed land and sea routes, caused the nomads to become sedentary and desert grazing for shipbuilding, pearling, and long-distance trade. As the people became more linked to the land, the settled became ascendent over the bedu, and the stakes of politics changed. As the political unit was slowly tied to the land, the idea of a people to a place emerged and enhanced the Shaikh's power.

In 1762, Sabah I died and was succeeded by his youngest son, Abdullah. Shortly after Sabah's death, in 1766, the al-Khalifa and, soon after, the al-Jalahima, left Kuwait en masse for Zubara in Qatar. Domestically, the al-Khalifa and al-Jalahima had been among the top contenders for power. Their emigration left the Sabahs in undisputed control, and by the end of Abdullah I's long rule (1762–1812), Sabah rule was secure, and the political hierarchy in Kuwait was well established, the merchants deferring to direct orders from the Shaikh. By the 19th century, not only was the ruling Sabah much stronger than a desert Shaikh but also capable of naming his son successor. This influence was not just internal but enabled the al-Sabah to conduct foreign diplomacy. They soon established good relations with the British East India Company in 1775.[2]

The merchants

Sabah family rule, though well established, remained limited until well into the 20th century. This is because the merchants, owing to their financial power, could still check Sabah designs. One of the well known merchants, Hussain Ali Bin Saif Al-Roumi, was known as the leader in pearl trade throughout the region, sustaining the economy for decades before the discovery of oil. The financial influence of the merchants came from their control of trade and imports, duties on which sustained the Shaikh. Because wealth was imbedded in movable property, refuge was tolerated by neighbouring Shaikhs, and Britain intervened only when important interests were at stake, secession was an effective merchant tactic. A large secession could reduce the shaikhdom's economic and military power and create a refuge of future dissidents.

The assassination of Muhammad bin Sabah

Although Kuwait was nominally governed from Basra, the Kuwaitis had traditionally maintained a relative degree of autonomous status; their cultural integration with the emirates of the Persian Gulf formed a network of tribal and trade relationships stronger than the tie to Ottoman Iraq.[3] In the 1870s, Ottoman officials were reasserting their presence in the Persian Gulf, with a military intervention in 1871—which was not effectively pursued—where family rivalries in Kuwait and Qatar were breeding chaos. The Ottomans were bankrupt, and when the European banks took control of the Ottoman budget in 1881, additional income was required from Kuwait and the Arabian peninsula. Midhat Pasha, the governor of Iraq, demanded that Kuwait submit to Ottoman rule. The al-Sabah found diplomatic allies in the British Foreign Office. However, under Abdullah II Al-Sabah, Kuwait pursued a general pro-Ottoman foreign policy, formally taking the title of Ottoman provincial governor, however this relationship with the Ottoman Empire did result in Ottoman interference with Kuwaiti laws or selection or rulers.[2]



A piece of clothing used by Kuwaiti divers searching for pearls. In Al-Hashemi-II Marine Museum in Kuwait City.

In May 1896, Shaikh Muhammad Al-Sabah was assassinated by his half-brother, Mubarak, who, in early 1897, was recognized, by the Ottoman sultan, as the *qaimmaqam* (provincial sub-governor) of Kuwait.[3]

Mubarak the Great

Main article: Mubarak al-Sabah

Mubarak's seizure of the throne via murder left his brother's former allies as a threat to his rule, especially as his opponents gained the backing of the Ottomans.[2] In July, Mubarak invited the British to deploy gunboats along the Kuwaiti coast. Britain saw Mubarak's desire for an alliance as an opportunity to counteract German influence in the region and so agreed.[2] This led to what is known as the First Kuwaiti Crisis, in which the Ottomans demanded that the British stop interfering with their empire. In the end, the Ottoman Empire backed down, rather than go to war.

In January 1899, Mubarak signed an agreement with the British which pledged that Kuwait would never cede any territory nor receive agents or representatives of any foreign power without the British Government's consent. In essence, this policy gave Britain control of Kuwait's foreign policy.[2] The treaty also gave Britain responsibility for Kuwait's national security. In return, Britain agreed to grant an annual subsidy of 15,000 Indian rupees (£1,500) to the ruling family. In 1911, Mubarak raised taxes; therefore, three wealthy business men "Ibrahim Al-Mudhaf, Helal Al-Mutairi, and Shamlan Ali bin Saif Al-Roumi" (brother of Hussain Ali bin Saif Al-Roumi), led a protest against Mubarak by making Bahrain their main trade point, which negatively affected the Kuwaiti economy. However, Mubarak went to Bahrain and apologized for raising taxes and the three business men returned to Kuwait. In 1915, Mubarak the Great died and was succeeded by his son Jaber II Al-Sabah, who reigned for just over one year until his death in early 1917. His brother Sheikh Salim Al-Mubarak Al-Sabah succeeded him.

The Anglo-Ottoman Convention

Despite the Kuwaiti government's desire to either be independent or under British rule, in the Anglo-Ottoman

Convention of 1913, the British concurred with the Ottoman Empire in defining Kuwait as an "*autonomous caza*" of the Ottoman Empire and that the Shaikhs of Kuwait were not independent leaders, but rather *qaimmaqam*s (provincial sub-governors) of the Ottoman government.

The convention ruled that Shaikh Mubarak had authority over an area extending out to a radius of 80 km, from the capital. This region was marked by a red circle and included the islands of Auhah, Bubiyan, Failaka, Kubbar, Mashian, and Warba. A green circle designated an area extending out an additional 100 km, in radius, within which the *qaimmaqam* was authorized to collect tribute and taxes from the natives



The Red Fort in Al Jahra

Post-Ottoman history

The Border War with Najd

Main article: Kuwait-Najd Border War

After World War I, the Ottoman Empire was defeated and the British invalidated the Anglo-Ottoman Convention, declaring Kuwait to be an "independent sheikhdom under British protectorate." The power vacuum left by the fall of the Ottomans sharpened conflict between Kuwait and Najd. Shaikh Salim Al-Mubarak Al-Sabah insisted that Kuwait was in full control of all territory out to a radius of 140 km from the capital; however, the ruler of Najd, Abdul Aziz ibn Abdul Rahman ibn Saud, argued, in September 1920, that the borders of Kuwait did not extend past the walls of the capital. ibn Saud noted that the Convention had never been ratified and that Kuwait was not effectively in control of the disputed territory.

In May 1921 ibn Saud's Wahhabi Bedouins of Nejd attacked a Kuwaiti detachment in southern Kuwait, forcing its retreat. In October they raided Jahra, 40 km from the capital battles occurred in which the Kuwaitis were mostly victorious. In response, the British deployed gunboats, armored cars and aircraft. The Bedouins withdrew.

The Uqair Protocol

In response to the various Bedouin raids, the British High Commissioner in Baghdad, Sir Percy Cox, imposed the Uqair Protocol of 1922 which defined the boundaries between Iraq and Nejd; and between Kuwait and Nejd.

On April 1, 1923, Shaikh Ahmad al-Sabah wrote the British Political Agent in Kuwait, Major John More, "I still do not know what the border between Iraq and Kuwait is, I shall be glad if you will kindly give me this information." More, upon learning that al-Sabah claimed the outer green line of the Anglo-Ottoman Convention (April 4), would relay the information to Sir Percy.

On April 19, Sir Percy stated that the British government recognized the outer line of the Convention as the border between Iraq and Kuwait. This decision limited Iraq's access to the Persian Gulf at 58 km of mostly marshy and swampy coastline. As this would make it difficult for Iraq to become a naval power (the territory did not include any deepwater harbours), the Iraqi King Faisal I (whom the British installed as a puppet king in Iraq) did not agree to the plan. However, as his country was under British mandate, he had little say in the matter. Iraq and Kuwait would formally ratify the border in August. The border was re-recognized in 1932.

1920s–1940s

Kuwait was recognized as a separate province from Iraq and given autonomy under Ottoman suzerainty in the draft Anglo-Ottoman Convention, however this was not signed before the outbreak of the first World War. The border was revisited by a memorandum sent by the British high commissioner for Iraq in 1923, which became the basis for Kuwait's northern border. In Iraq's 1932 application to the League of Nations it included information about its borders, including its border with Kuwait, where it accepted the boundary established in 1923.[4]

The 1920s and 30s saw the collapse of the pearl fishery and with it Kuwait's economy. This is attributed to the invention of the artificial cultivation of pearls.

The discovery of oil in Kuwait, in 1938, revolutionized the sheikdom's economy and made it a valuable asset to Britain. In 1941 on the same day as the German invasion of Russia (June 22) the British took total control over Iraq and Kuwait. (The British and Russians would invade the neighboring Iran in September of that year).

Independence

By early 1961, the British had withdrawn their special court system, which handled the cases of foreigners resident in Kuwait, and the Kuwaiti Government began to exercise legal jurisdiction under new laws drawn up by an Egyptian jurist. On June 19, 1961, Kuwait became fully independent following an exchange of notes with the United Kingdom.

When Kuwait became independent in 1961, Iraq claimed Kuwait, under the rationale that Kuwait had been part of the Ottoman Empire subject to Iraqi suzerainty. Iraq appeared to be mobilizing for a military invasion and on the June 27, 1961 the emir of Kuwait requested assistance from the Saudi Arabian and British Governments. Britain rapidly deployed troops, aircraft and ships to the area (Operation Vantage).[5] In 1963, after Iraqi prime minister Abd al-Karim Qasim had been killed in a coup, Iraq reaffirmed its acceptance of Kuwaiti sovereignty and the boundary it had agreed to in 1913 and 1932, in the "Agreed Minutes between the State of Kuwait and the Republic of Iraq Regarding the Restoration of Friendly Relations, Recognition, and Related Matters." In the 1960s and 1970s however there still periodic border clashes.[4]

In December 1969, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia signed an agreement dividing the Neutral Zone (now called the Divided Zone) and demarcating a new international boundary. Both countries share equally the Divided Zone's petroleum, onshore and offshore.

The Invasion and Rebuilding of Kuwait

In the 1980s Kuwait, fearful of Iran after the Islamic Revolution in Iran, supported Iraq in the Iran–Iraq War. Kuwait sent large sums of money $5 bn to Iraq. As a consequence of this Iran attacked Kuwait's oil tankers, and Kuwait was forced to seek protection from the United States, which sent warships to the Persian Gulf.

The Invasion of Kuwait and annexation by Iraq took place on August 2, 1990. Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein's primary justifications included a charge that Kuwaiti territory was in fact an Iraqi province, and that annexation was retaliation for "economic warfare" Kuwait had waged through slant drilling into Iraq's oil supplies. However, the initial casus belli was claimed to be support for a Kuwaiti rebellion.[4] The monarchy was deposed and an Iraqi-backed puppet leader named Alaa Hussein Ali was installed as head of the "Provisional Government of Free Kuwait." Iraq annexed Kuwait on August 8.

The war was traumatic to the Kuwaiti population. The underground resistance was punished by summary executions and torture. Due to large family groups, almost all Kuwaitis at the time lost some family member. In addition, more than half the population, both native and foreign-born fled.[6]

U.S. President George H.W. Bush condemned the invasion, and led efforts to drive out the Iraqi forces. Authorized by the United Nations Security Council, an American-led coalition of 34 nations fought the First Persian Gulf War to reinstate the Kuwaiti Emir. Following several weeks of aerial bombardment, a U.S.-led United Nations (UN) coalition began a ground assault on February 23, 1991 that completely removed Iraqi forces from Kuwait in four days. After liberation, the UN, under Security Council Resolution 687, demarcated the Iraq-Kuwait boundary on the basis of the 1932 and the 1963 agreements between the two states. In November 1994, Iraq formally accepted the UN-demarcated border with Kuwait, which had been further spelled out in Security Council Resolutions 773 (1992) and 833 (1993).[7]

In the wake of the war, Kuwait expelled most of the 400,000-500,000 Palestinians, who had been living there, because of PLO support for Iraq.[6][8] Several Palestinians were killed by vigilante groups including some with links to the royal family.[6] Before the expulsion, Palestinians accounted for a large portion of the people living in Kuwait.[6] Even today, about two-thirds of the more than 3 million people in Kuwait are not Kuwaiti citizens.

Kuwait has spent more than five billion dollars to repair oil infrastructure damaged during 1990–1991 (see Kuwaiti oil fires).

After 1992

In 2003, Kuwait served as the major staging base for the coalition forces in the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq.

Sabah Al Ahmed Al Jaber Al Sabah became the Emir of Kuwait on January 18, 2006

See also

- History of Asia
- History of the Middle East
- Kuwait
- List of emirs of Kuwait
- Politics of Kuwait

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List of emirs of Kuwait

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

This is a **list of the emirs of Kuwait**. Emirs (also transliterated as amir, aamir or ameer) are the rulers of Kuwait. The House of Al-Sabah dynasty came to power in 1718, before which date the Bani Khalid tribe ruled the region. The Emir is the head of state and is above the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government.

Contents

- 1 List of monarchs of Kuwait (1718–Present)
  - 1.1 Sheiks of Kuwait (1718–1961)
  - 1.2 Emirs of Kuwait (1961–Present)
- 2 See also
- 3 External links

Emir of Kuwait

MONARCHY



Arms of His Highness the Emir of Kuwait



Incumbent:
Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah

Style:	His Highness
Heir apparent:	Nawaf Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah
First monarch:	Sabah I bin Jaber
Formation:	1718

List of monarchs of Kuwait (1718–Present)

Sheiks of Kuwait (1718–1961)

Name	Reign		Remarks
	From	Until	
Sheikh Sabah I bin Jaber	1718	1762	
Sheikh Abdullah I Al-Sabah	1762	3 May 1814	
Sheikh Jaber I Al-Sabah	1814	1859	
Sheikh Sabah II Al-Sabah	1859	November 1866	
Sheikh Abdullah II Al-Sabah	November 1866	May 1892	
Sheikh Muhammad I Al-Sabah	May 1892	17 May 1896	Assassinated

Sheikh Mubarak Al-Sabah, "the Great"	18 May 1896	28 November 1915	
Sheikh Jaber II Al-Sabah	28 November 1915	5 February 1917	
Sheikh Salim I Al-Mubarak Al-Sabah	5 February 1917	22 February 1921	
Sheikh Ahmad I Al-Jaber Al-Sabah	22 February 1921	29 January 1950	
Sheikh Abdullah III Al-Salim Al-Sabah	29 January 1950	19 June 1961	Proclaimed himself Emir

Emirs of Kuwait (1961–Present)

Name	Image	Reign		Remarks
		From	Until	
Emir Abdullah III Al-Salim Al-Sabah		19 June 1961	24 November 1965	Previously ruled as Sheikh
Emir Sabah III Al-Salim Al-Sabah		24 November 1965	31 December 1977	
Emir Jaber III Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah		31 December 1977	15 January 2006	In exile in Dhahran, Saudi Arabia between August 2, 1990, and March 15, 1991 due to the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait.
Emir Saad I Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah		15 January 2006	24 January 2006	Deposed by the National Assembly and abdicated simultaneously due to illness; died on 13 May 2008

Emir Sabah IV Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah		29 January 2006	Present	

See also

- House of Al-Sabah
- Line of succession to the Kuwaiti throne

External links

- List of Kuwait Rulers & Amirs at Amiri Diwan of Kuwait website (http://www.da.gov.kw /eng/picsandevents/rulers.php)

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=List_of_emirs_of_Kuwait&oldid=478085575"
Categories: Emirs | Lists of monarchs | Rulers of Kuwait

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Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Sheikh Sabah IV Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah (Arabic: صباح الأحمد الجابر الصباح *Sabāh al-Ahmad al-Jābir as-Sabāh;* born June 16, 1929) is the Emir of Kuwait. Sheikh Sabah was sworn in on January 29, 2006 after confirmation by the National Assembly of Kuwait. He is the fourth son of Emir Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah. Sheikh Sabah is the head of the ruling Al-Sabah family. Currently, he is introducing many new projects in Kuwait to increase the tourism industry. He is also a strong advocate for women's rights in the Middle East.

Contents

- 1 Early life
- 2 Dynastic crisis of January 2006
- 3 Government crisis of March 2008
- 4 Significant laws that have been passed during his reign
- 5 Foreign Minister of Kuwait
- 6 Other positions held
- 7 Titles, styles and honours
  - 7.1 Titles and styles
  - 7.2 Honours and awards
- 8 Hobbies
- 9 See also
- 10 References
- 11 External links

Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah
صباح الأحمد الجابر الصباح



Emir of Kuwait

Reign	29 January 2006 – present
Predecessor	Saad Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah
Heir apparent	Nawaf Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah
Prime Ministers	***See list***

Prime Minister of Kuwait

Reign	13 July 2003 – 29 January 2006
Predecessor	Saad Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah
Successor	Nasser Al-Mohammed Al-Ahmed Al-Sabah
Monarch	***See list***
Spouse	Fatuwah bint Salman (d. 1990)
House	House of Al-Sabah
Father	Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah
Mother	Munira Al-Ayyar
Born	16 June 1929 Kuwait City, Kuwait
Religion	Sunni Islam

Early life

Sheikh Sabah received his primary education at Al Mubarakya School during the 1930s and then completed his education under tutors. He is the half-brother of the previous Emir of Kuwait, H.H. Sheikh Jaber III al-Ahmad al-Jaber al-Sabah, who appointed Sabah as Prime Minister in July 2003, replacing the then Crown Prince of Kuwait, H.H. Sheikh Saad Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah. He had previously been Foreign Minister for 40 years, from 1963 to 2003, making him one of the longest-serving foreign ministers in the world.

Sheikh Sabah is a widower. His wife, Sheikha Fitooh, died before the Iraqi invasion of August 1990. He has two sons,

Sheikh Nasser (Minister of the Ruler's Court "Diwan Amiri"), and Sheikh Hamed. Sheikh Sabah also had two other children who died. His daughter, Sheikha Salwa, died from breast cancer in July 2002. In her honor, the Emir named his palace "Dar Salwa", which means "The House of Salwa". His third son, Sheikh Ahmed, died in a car accident in 1969.

Dynastic crisis of January 2006



U.S. Vice President Dick Cheney meets with Prime Minister Sheikh Sabah to deliver condolences on the death of the Emir in 2006.

On 15 January 2006 the then Emir, Sheikh Jaber, died, which placed Sheikh Saad, who was then the Crown Prince of Kuwait, into the position of Emir. With the accession of Sheikh Saad, Sabah was likely to become the new Crown Prince, retaining his function of Prime Minister. However, the Constitution requires that the Emir be sworn in before Parliament, and the oath of office is complex; soon the word began to spread that Sheikh Saad was unable to take the oath in full. Some reports suggested that he suffered from Alzheimers or some other debilitating disease; it was generally agreed that he was unable to speak, at least at any length.[1] However, after a power struggle within the ruling family, Sheikh Saad agreed to abdicate as the Emir of Kuwait on 23 January 2006 due to his illness. The ruling family then chose Sheikh Sabah as the new Emir of Kuwait. On January 24, 2006, Kuwait's parliament voted Emir Saad out of office, moments before an official letter of abdication was received.[2] The Kuwaiti Cabinet nominated Sheikh Sabah to take over as emir. He swore himself in on January 29, 2006 with the National Assembly's approval, ending that crisis.

Government crisis of March 2008

Sheikh Sabah dissolved the National Assembly of Kuwait on March 19, 2008 and called for early elections on May 17, 2008, after the cabinet resigned in the week of March 17, 2008 following a power struggle with the government.[3]

Significant laws that have been passed during his reign

- Repeal of law against public gatherings.
- A law increasing the amount of licenses available for privately held newspapers and television stations.
- An increase of his stipend from 8 million KD (approximately $25 million) to 50 million KD (approximately $188 million) annually.
- A new media law that is one of the strongest press freedom laws in the Arab world.[4][5]

Foreign Minister of Kuwait

Prior to being the Emir of Kuwait, Sheikh Sabah was the Foreign Minister of Kuwait between 1963 and 2003. Sheikh Sabah is the longest serving foreign minister in the world, making him known to be adept in foreign relations and diplomacy. During Sabah's time as foreign minister he had to restore Kuwaiti international relations after the Gulf War. Sabah played a big role in the efforts of liberating the country after the Iraqi invasion. HH joined the former emir of Kuwait Sheikh Jaber Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah in the United Nations in a meeting with the U.S. President George H. W. Bush and other allies to help in liberating Kuwait.

Other positions held

- Member of the Central Committee Municipality Council from 1954 to 1955.
- Member of the Building and Construction council.
- Chairman of the Social Affairs and Labour Authority in 1955.
- Member of the Higher Council of Country Affairs in 1956.
- Chairman of the Printing and Publishing Authority from 1956-09-09 to 1962-01-17.
- Minister of Information - in the first cabinet that took power after independence in the period of Sheikh Abdullah Salim Al-Sabah, on January 17, 1962.
- Foreign Minister since 28 January 1963.
- Deputy Prime Minister on February 16, 1978 in addition to his post of Foreign Minister.
- First Deputy Prime Minister and Foreign Minister on October 18, 1992.
- Member of the Supreme Council of Planning in 1996, headed by the Crown Prince Sheikh Saad Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah.
- Chairman of the Cabinet's Joint Ministerial Committee on Priorities of Governmental Work.
- Prime Minister from July 13, 2003 to January 29, 2006.
- Honorary Trustee of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York

Titles, styles and honours

Titles and styles

- *His Excellency* Sheikh Sabah bin Ahmad Al-Sabah (1929–2003)
- *His Highness* Sheikh Sabah bin Ahmad Al-Sabah, Prime Minister of the State of Kuwait (2003–2006)
- *His Highness* Sheikh Sabah IV bin Ahmad Al-Sabah, Emir of the State of Kuwait (2006 – present)[6]

Monarchical styles of

The Emir of Kuwait



Reference style	His Highness
Spoken style	Your Highness
Alternative style	Sheikh

Honours and awards

- Distinguished First Class of the Order of Abdulaziz al Saud (2 July 2000)
- First Class of the Order of Merit (10 July 2002)
- Collar of Abdulaziz al Saud (11 March 2006)
- Collar of the Order of Khalifa (12 March 2006)
- Collar of Independence (13 March 2006)
- Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour (1 December 2006)
- Extraordinary Grade of the Lebanese Order of Merit (20 January 2009)
- Order of Heydar Aliyev (2009)[7]
- First Class of the Order of Merit, (24 June 2009)
- First Class the Civil Order of Oman (28 December 2009)
- Grand Cordon of the Order of Merit (16 May 2010)
- Grand Cordon of the Order of the Star of Jordan (17 May 2010)
- Grand Cordon of the National Order Of The Cedar (18 May 2010)

- Honorary doctorate in Law from the George Washington University (30 June 2005)
- Honorary Citizen of Tirana, Albania (12 April 2008)[8]

Hobbies

The Emir enjoys fishing and going to Oman frequently (Salalah in the Dhofar Governorate to be exact)[9] where he owns a small island[*citation needed*] and goes fishing for leisure. HH shies away from areas where there is a lot of glamour preferring instead areas where he can keep a low profile. Al-Sabah also used to go to Somalia to hunt, but after the political turmoil, he stopped visiting.[10]

See also

- List of Prime ministers of Kuwait
- List of national leaders

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9. ^ http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jvk5zxBH5Bk - (Arabic) Sabah reveals he enjoys going to Salalah
10. ^ http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jvk5zxBH5Bk - (Arabic) Sabah says he used to go to Somalia before political turmoil

'

External links

- Al-Diwan Al-Amiri (http://www.da.gov.kw/eng/) - the official website of the office of the Emir

Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah **House of Al-Sabah** **Born:** 16 June 1929		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Saad Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah**	**Emir of Kuwait** 2006–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Nawaf Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah*
Political offices		

Preceded by **Saad Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah**	**Prime Minister of Kuwait** 2003–2006	Succeeded by **Nasser Mohammed Al-Ahmed Al-Sabah**

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Categories: 1929 births | Current national leaders | Foreign Ministers of Kuwait | House of Al-Sabah | Reigning monarchs | Rulers of Kuwait | Living people | Prime Ministers of Kuwait

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House of Sabah

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Sabah** (Arabic: آل صباح *Al Sabah*) is the ruling family of Kuwait. They are a clan from the `Anizzah tribe which migrated to Kuwait in the early 18th century from Najd (current day Saudi Arabia). They are also from the Utub tribe. After reaching Kuwait, they entered in an alliance with the other families of the Utub such as Al-Khalifa and Al Jalahma. They have ruled Kuwait since 1718 when Sabah I became Sheikh (chief) of Kuwait[1]. Subsequent sheikhs are the descendants of Sabah I. The sons of Sabah I were Salman, Mohammad, Mubarak, Malik and Abdullah.

The Emir of Kuwait is the head of the executive branch. He is nominated by a family council headed by the most senior and prominent members of the Al-Sabah. The leadership is not strictly hereditary and although many Emirs have succeeded their fathers, the family chooses the leader from each succeeding generation. For example, the late Sheikh Jaber Al-Sabah appointed his cousin, Sheikh Sheikh Saad, as heir apparent.

The Kuwaiti parliament has a say in the appointment of the emir. Although customs prohibit the use of such measures, the parliament (per article 3 of the constitution) has a constitutional right to approve or disapprove of an emir's appointment. The parliament effectively removed then crown prince Sheikh Saad after the death of Sheikh Jaber Al-Sabah in early 2006 due to Saad's inability to rule because of illness.

Members of the ruling family receive a monthly stipend from the Amiri Diwan and a year-end bonus. The prime minister is selected by the emir of the state of Kuwait and he could be any Kuwaiti citizen. But historically all prime ministers have been appointed are from Al-Sabah family , Precedents dictate that the Al-Sabahs hold key cabinet posts such as the ministry of defense, the foreign ministry, the ministry of interior, the oil ministry and, most importantly, the office of prime minister. With an estimated multi-billion dollar fortune, mainly from oil revenues, the Al-Sabahs are known for aiding other royal houses in the region who have little or no natural resources like oil for nothing in return. In 1991, right after the Gulf War, a *Time* magazine article stated that the Al-Sabah family have an estimated wealth of $90 billion, with investments mostly in the United States. "The al-Sabah family by now was unimaginably rich, with an estimated wealth of some 90 billion dollars. They had invested about 50 billion dollars in the stocks of US companies."[*citation needed*] By 2010, almost 20 years later, the estimated wealth of the Al-Sabah family is unknown, but many observers predict that it has tripled, or even quadrupled over the years, as the Al-Sabah's have the largest shares in almost all the blue chip corporations in the Western world, with tens of billions of dollars invested in companies from Citibank to Daimler AG to Merrill Lynch.

Contents

- 1 The two main branches
- 2 Family tree
- 3 Titles
- 4 Other notable members of Al-Sabah
- 5 Family meetings
- 6 Current events
- 7 See also
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The two main branches

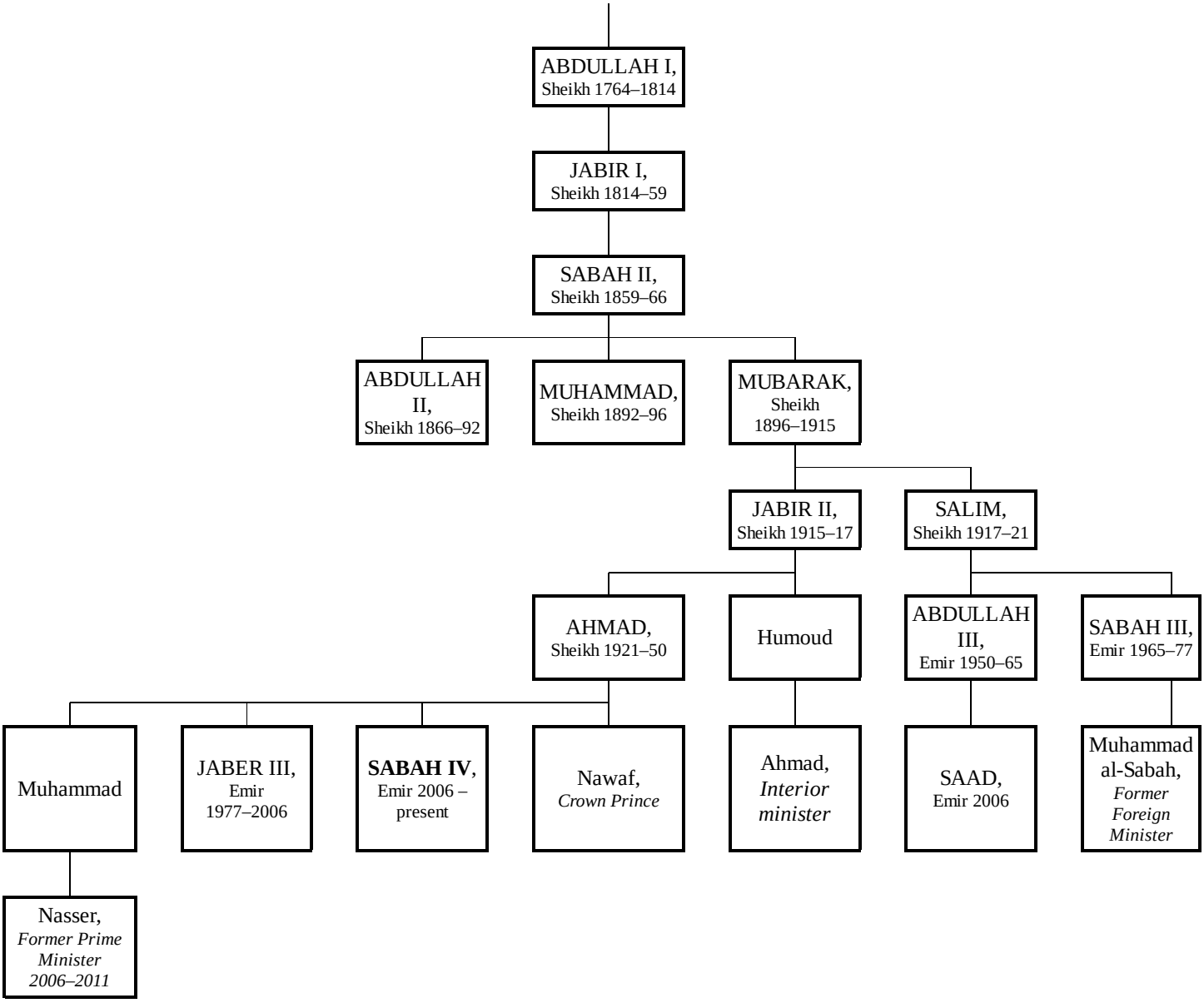
Mubarak Al Sabah had fourteen children, eight sons and seven daughters.

Sons of Mubarak Al Sabah:

Jaber Sheikh of Kuwait (1915–17), Salim Sheikh of Kuwait (1917–21), Nasser, Fahad, Saud, Hamad, Sabah and Abdullah the offspring of two of them however - Jaber and Salem - rotate the Emirship of Kuwait, in the meantime the situation have been changed because other offspring have been appointed to the most important ministries which will lead them to succeed the throne of the state of kuwait.

Family tree

SABAH I,
Sheikh 1718–64



Titles

The Emir: His Highness The Amir Sheikh Sabah Al Sabah

The Crown Prince: His Highness Sheikh Nawaf Al Sabah

The Prime Minister: His Highness Sheikh Jaber Al Sabah

Other notable members of Al-Sabah

- Salem Al Homoud Al Jaber Al-Sabah, Amiri Guards creator
- Nasser Mohammed Al-Ahmed Al-Sabah, Former Prime Minister of Kuwait
- Salem Al-Ali A-Sabah, chief of the National Guard
- Mesha'al Al-Ahmad Al-Sabah, deputy chief of National Guard
- Muhammad Sabah Al-Salem Al-Sabah, Deputy Prime Minister and Foreign Minister
- Jaber Al-Mubarak Al-Hamad Al-Sabah, current Prime Minister of Kuwait, former Minister of Defense
- Ahmed Al-Fahad Al-Ahmed Al-Sabah, Deputy Prime Minister for Economic Affairs and Minister of State for Development Affairs and Minister of State for Housing Affairs
- Hussa Al-Sabah Al-Salim Al-Sabah, Director of Dar Al-Athar Al-Islamiya (Kuwait Museum of Islamic Art)
- Saud Nasser Al-Saud Al-Sabah, former Kuwait ambassador to the United States , former Oil Minister.
- Nayirah al-Sabah, daughter of Saud Nasser Al-Saud Al-Sabah, provided testimony as "Nurse Nayirah" to the US Congressional

Human Rights Caucus before the Gulf War
- Prince Khalid Al-Sabah Royal Majestic Charity Foundation
- Salem Sabah Al-Salem Al-Sabah (1938-2007), former Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Defense, Interior, Social Affairs and Foreign Minister
- Jaber Al-Khaled Al-Sabah former Minister of the Interior
- Sheikh Faisal H. M Al Sabah

Family meetings

The emir of Kuwait holds family meetings and gatherings every year during which they discuss many important issues. The emir holds meetings with the head people of the Al Sabah family who are 40 years old or older.

Current events

Sheikh Saad Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah was removed by parliamentary action after a prolonged stalemate following the death of the previous emir, Jaber, on 15 January 2006. He was earlier offered the chance to abdicate after taking power provisionally as stipulated by the constitution, but his inability to recite the oath of office prevented his ratification by parliament.

The then prime minister, Sheikh Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah, was nominated for the post of emir by invoking Article 3 of the Kuwaiti constitution. He was sworn in on 29 January 2006 and is the current ruler.

The emir appointed his brother, Sheikh Nawaf Al-Ahmad Al-Jaber Al-Sabah, as crown prince. The emir also appointed his nephew, Sheikh Nasser Al-Sabah, as prime minister.

On 13 May 2008 the former emir, Sheikh Saad Al-Abdullah Al-Salim Al-Sabah, died after battling health problems for years. He was buried the following day in accordance with Muslim tradition. He was 78 years old.

See also

- Bani Utbah
- History of Kuwait
- Utub
- List of Sunni Muslim dynasties

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  - Detailed Genealogy of the Sabah family (http://www.4dw.net/royalark/Kuwait/kuwait.htm)
  - Former emir dies in Kuwait (http://ap.google.com/article/ALeqM5grrPycI_N5iKWOXV0i52XfGK8VlgD90KUGD00)

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Malaysia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Malaysia (/məˈleɪʒə/ *mə-LAY-zhə* or /məˈleɪsiə/ *mə-LAY-see-ə*) is a federal constitutional monarchy in Southeast Asia. It consists of thirteen states and three federal territories and has a total landmass of 329,847 square kilometres (127,350 sq mi) separated by the South China Sea into two similarly sized regions, Peninsular Malaysia and Malaysian Borneo. Land borders are shared with Thailand, Indonesia, and Brunei, and maritime borders exist with Singapore, Vietnam, and the Philippines. The capital city is Kuala Lumpur, while Putrajaya is the seat of the federal government. In 2010 the population exceeded 27.5 million, with over 20 million living on the Peninsula.

Malaysia has its origins in the Malay Kingdoms present in the area which, from the 18th century, became subject to the British Empire. The first British territories were known as the Straits Settlements, whose establishment was followed by the Malay kingdoms becoming British protectorates. The territories on Peninsular Malaysia were first unified as the Malayan Union in 1946. Malaya was restructured as the Federation of Malaya in 1948, and achieved independence on 31 August 1957. Malaya united with Sabah, Sarawak, and Singapore on 16 September 1963, with *si* being added to give the new country the name Malaysia. However, less than two years later in 1965, Singapore was expelled from the federation. Since independence, Malaysia has had one of the best economic records in Asia, with GDP growing an average 6.5% for almost 50 years. The economy has traditionally been fuelled by its natural resources, but is expanding in the sectors of science, tourism, commerce and medical tourism.

The country is multi-ethnic and multi-cultural, which plays a large role in politics. The government system is closely modelled on the Westminster parliamentary system and the legal system is based on English Common Law. The constitution declares Islam the state religion while protecting freedom of religion. The head of state is the King, known as the Yang di-Pertuan Agong. He is an elected monarch chosen from the hereditary rulers of the nine Malay states every five years. The head of government is the Prime Minister.

Malaysia contains the southernmost point of continental Eurasia, Tanjung Piai. Located in the tropics, it is a megadiverse country, with large numbers of endemic flora and fauna. It is a founding member of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations and the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation,

Malaysia



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: *"Bersekutu Bertambah Mutu"*
"Unity Is Strength"[1]

Anthem: *Negaraku* (My Country)



Capital (and largest city)	Kuala Lumpur[a] Putrajaya (administrative centre) 3°08′N 101°42′E
Official language(s)	Bahasa Malaysia[b]
Official script	Latin alphabet[c]
Used for some purposes	English[d]
Ethnic groups	50.4% Malay 23.7% Chinese 11.0% Indigenous 7.1% Indian 7.8% Other[2]
Demonym	Malaysian[3]
Government	Federal constitutional elective monarchy and Federal parliamentary democracy

and a member of Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, the Commonwealth of Nations, and the Non-Aligned Movement.

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Etymology



"Malaysia" used as a label for the Malay Archipelago on a 1914 map from a United States atlas

The word *Melayu* is thought to derive from the Sanskrit term *Malaiur* or *Malayadvipa*, which can be translated as "land of mountains", the word used by ancient Indian traders when referring to the Malay Peninsula.[11][12][13][14][15] Other theories propose it originates from the Tamil word *Malai*, meaning "mountain".[16] The term was later used as the name of the Melayu Kingdom, which existed between the 7th and 13th centuries on Sumatra.[17]

Following his 1826 expedition in Oceania, French navigator

- King	Abdul Halim
- Prime Minister	Najib Tun Razak (BN)
- Deputy Prime Minister	Muhyiddin Yassin (BN)
Independence	
- From the United Kingdom (Malaya only)	31 August 1957
- Federation of Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak, and Singapore[e]	16 September 1963
Area	
- Total	329,847 km^2 (67th) 127,355 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.3
Population	
- 2010[4] census	28,334,135
- Density	86/km^2 (114th) 216.45/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$442.010 billion[5] (29th)
- Per capita	$15,385[5] (47th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$247.781 billion[5] (38th)
- Per capita	$8,624[5] (58th)
Gini (2002[2])	46.1 (36th)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.781[6] (high) (61th)
Currency	Ringgit (RM) (MYR)
Time zone	MST (UTC+8)
- Summer (DST)	Not observed (UTC+8)
Date formats	dd-mm-yyyy
Drives on the	Left
ISO 3166 code	MY
Internet TLD	.my
Calling code	+60

^ a. Kuala Lumpur is the capital city and is home to the legislative branch of the Federal government. Putrajaya is the primary seat of the federal government where the executive and judicial branches are located.

Jules Dumont d'Urville invented the terms *Malaysia*, *Micronesia* and *Melanesia*, distinguishing these Pacific cultures and island groups from the existing term Polynesia. In 1831, he proposed these terms to the Société de Géographie. Dumont d'Urville described Malaysia as "an area commonly known as the East Indies".[18] In 1850, the English ethnologist George Samuel Windsor Earl, writing in the *Journal of the Indian Archipelago and Eastern Asia*, proposed naming the islands of Southeast Asia as *Melayunesia* or *Indunesia*, favouring the former.[19]

^ b. The terminology as per government policy is *Bahasa Malaysia* (literally Malaysian language)[7] but legislation continues to refer to the official language as *Bahasa Melayu* (literally Malay language).[8]

^ c. Under the National Language Act 1967: "The script of the national language shall be the Rumi [Latin] script: provided that this shall not prohibit the use of the Malay script, more commonly known as the Jawi script, of the national language."[9]

^ d. English may be used for some purposes under the National Language Act 1967.

^ e. Singapore became an independent country on 9 August 1965.[10]

In 1957, the Federation of Malaya was declared as an independent federation of the Malay states on the Malay Peninsula.[20] The name "Malaysia" was adopted in 1963 when the existing states of the Federation of Malaya, plus Singapore, North Borneo and Sarawak formed a new federation, with "si" being added to Malaya in honour of the three joining states.[21] Prior to that, the name itself had been used to refer to the whole Malay Archipelago.[22] Politicians in the Philippines contemplated renaming their state "Malaysia" before the modern country took the name.[23] At the time of federation, other names were considered: among them was Langkasuka, after the historic kingdom located at the upper section of the Malay Peninsula in the 1st millennium CE.[24]

History

Main article: History of Malaysia

Evidence of modern human habitation in Malaysia dates back 40,000 years.[25] The first inhabitants are thought to be Negritos.[26] Traders and settlers from India and China arrived as early as the 1st century AD, establishing trading ports and coastal towns in the 2nd and 3rd centuries. Their presence resulted in strong Indian and Chinese influence on the local cultures, and the people of the Malay Peninsula adopted the religions of Hinduism and Buddhism. Sanskrit inscriptions appear as early as the 4th or 5th century.[27] The Kingdom of Langkasuka arose around the 2nd century in the northern area of the Malay Peninsula, lasting until about the 15th century.[24] Between the 7th and 13th centuries, much of the southern Malay Peninsula was part of the maritime Srivijaya empire. After the fall of Srivijaya, the Majapahit empire had influence over most of Peninsular Malaysia and the Malay Archipelago.[28] Islam began to spread among Malays in the 14th century.[3] In the early 15th century, Parameswara, a prince of the former Srivijayan empire, founded the Malacca Sultanate, commonly considered the first independent state in the peninsula.[29] Malacca was an important commercial centre during this time, attracting trade from around the region. Parameswara became a Muslim, accelerating the spread of Islam.[3]

In 1511 Malacca was conquered by Portugal,[3] after which it was taken by the Dutch in 1641. In 1786 the British Empire established a presence in Malaya, when the Sultan of Kedah leased Penang to the British East India Company. The British obtained the town of Singapore in 1819,[30] and in 1824 took control of Malacca following the Anglo-Dutch Treaty. By 1826 the British directly controlled Penang, Malacca, Singapore, and the island of Labuan, which they established as the crown colony of the Straits Settlements. By the 20th century, the states of Pahang, Selangor, Perak, and Negeri Sembilan, known together as the Federated Malay States, had British Residents appointed to advise the Malay rulers, to whom the rulers were bound to defer by treaty.[31] The



A Famosa fortress in Malacca was built by the Portuguese in the 16th century.

remaining five states in the peninsula, known as the Unfederated Malay States, while not directly under British rule, also accepted British advisers around the turn of the 20th century. Development on the Peninsula and Borneo were generally separate until the 19th century. Under British rule the immigration of Chinese and Indians to serve as labourers was encouraged.[32] Sabah was governed as the crown colony of British North Borneo after it was leased from the Sultanate of Sulu in 1878.[33] In 1842, Sarawak was ceded by the Sultan of Brunei to James Brooke, whose successors ruled as the White Rajahs over an independent kingdom until 1946, when it became a British colony.[34]

In the Second World War the Japanese army invaded and subsequently occupied Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak, and Singapore for over three years. During this time, ethnic tensions were raised and nationalism grew.[35] Popular support for independence increased after Malaya was reconquered by Allied Forces.[36] Post-war British plans to unite the administration of Malaya under a single crown colony called the Malayan Union met with strong opposition from the Malays, who opposed the weakening of the Malay rulers and the granting of citizenship to the ethnic Chinese. The Malayan Union, established in 1946 and consisting of all the British possessions in the Malay Peninsula with the exception of Singapore, was quickly dissolved and replaced by the Federation of Malaya, which restored the autonomy of the rulers of the Malay states under British protection.[37] During this time, mostly Chinese rebels under the leadership of the Malayan Communist Party launched guerrilla operations designed to force the British out of Malaya. The Malayan Emergency lasted from 1948 to 1960, and involved a long anti-insurgency campaign by Commonwealth troops in Malaya.[38] After this a plan was put in place to federate Malaya with the British crown colonies of Sabah, Sarawak, and Singapore. The proposed date of federation was 31 August 1963, however, the date was delayed until 16 September 1963 due to opposition from Indonesia's Sukarno and the Sarawak United Peoples' Party.[39]

Federation brought heightened tensions including a conflict with Indonesia, Singapore's eventual exit in 1965,[40][41] and racial strife. This strife culminated in the 13 May race riots in 1969.[42] After the riots, the controversial New Economic Policy was launched by Prime Minister Tun Abdul Razak, trying to increase the share of the economy held by the *bumiputra*.[43] Under Prime Minister Mahathir Mohamad there was a period of rapid economic growth and urbanisation beginning in the 1980s. The economy shifted from being agriculturally-based to one based on manufacturing and industry. Numerous mega-projects were completed, such as the Petronas Towers, the North-South Expressway, the Multimedia Super Corridor, and the new federal administrative capital of Putrajaya.[21] However, in the late 1990s the Asian financial crisis almost caused the collapse of the currency and the stock and property markets.[44]



Merdeka Square in Kuala Lumpur, where Independence Day is celebrated on 31 August each year.

Governance

Main article: Politics of Malaysia

Malaysia is a federal constitutional elective monarchy. The system of government is closely modelled on that of



The Malaysian Houses of Parliament is the building where the Malaysian Parliament assembles.

the Westminster parliamentary system, a legacy of British colonial rule.[45] The head of state is the Yang di-Pertuan Agong, commonly referred to as the king. The King is elected to a five-year term by and from among the nine hereditary rulers of the Malay states; the other four states, which have titular Governors, do not participate in the selection. By informal agreement the position is systematically rotated among the nine,[45] and has been held by Abdul Halim of Kedah since December 2011.[46] The King's role has been largely ceremonial since changes to the constitution in 1994, picking ministers and members of the upper house.[47]

Legislative power is divided between federal and state legislatures. The bicameral federal parliament consists of the lower house, the House of Representatives and the upper house, the Senate.[48] The 222-member House of Representatives is elected for a maximum term of five years from single-member constituencies. All 70 senators sit for three-year terms; 26 are elected by the 13 state assemblies, and the remaining 44 are appointed by the King upon the Prime Minister's recommendation.[3] The parliament follows a multi-party system and the government is elected through a first-past-the-post system. Since independence Malaysia has been governed by a multi-party coalition known as the Barisan Nasional.[3]

Each state has a unicameral State Legislative Assembly whose members are elected from single-member constituencies. State governments are led by Chief Ministers,[3] who are state assembly members from the majority party in the assembly. In each of the states with a hereditary ruler, the Chief Minister is required to be a Malay, appointed by the ruler upon the recommendation of the Prime Minister.[49] Parliamentary elections are held at least once every five years, the most recent of which took place in March 2008.[3] Registered voters of age 21 and above may vote for the members of the House of Representatives and, in most of the states, for the state legislative chamber. Voting is not mandatory.[50] Except for elections in Sarawak, all state elections are held concurrently with the federal election.[47]

Executive power is vested in the Cabinet, led by the Prime Minister. The prime minister must be a member of the house of representatives, who in the opinion of the King, commands a majority in parliament. The cabinet is chosen from members of both houses of Parliament.[3] The Prime Minister is both the head of cabinet and the head of government.[47] The incumbent, Najib Razak, appointed in 2009, is the sixth prime minister.[51]



Najib Razak, Prime Minister since 2009.

Malaysia's legal system is based on English Common Law.[3] Although the judiciary is theoretically independent, its independence has been called into question and the appointment of judges lacks accountability and transparency.[52] The highest court in the judicial system is the Federal Court, followed by the Court of Appeal and two high courts, one for Peninsular Malaysia and one for East Malaysia. Malaysia also has a special court to hear cases brought by or against Royalty.[53] Separate from the civil courts are the Syariah Courts, which apply Shariah law to cases which involve Malaysian Muslims[54] and run parallel to the secular court system.[55] The Internal Security Act allows detention without trial, and the death penalty is in use for crimes such as drug trafficking.[56]

Race is a significant force in politics, and many political parties are ethnically based.[3] Actions such as the New

Economic Policy[43] and the National Development Policy which superseded it, were implemented to advance the standing of the *bumiputra*, consisting of Malays and the indigenous tribes who are considered the original inhabitants of Malaysia, over non-bumiputra such as Malaysian Chinese and Malaysian Indians.[57] These policies provide preferential treatment to bumiputra in employment, education, scholarships, business, and access to cheaper housing and assisted savings. However, it has generated greater interethnic resentment.[58] There is ongoing debate over whether the laws and society of Malaysia should reflect secular or Islamic principles.[59] Islamic laws passed by the Pan-Malaysian Islamic Party in state legislative assemblies have been blocked by the federal government.[60]

Foreign relations and military

Main articles: Foreign relations of Malaysia and Malaysian Armed Forces



The RMAF MiG-29N/UB & Aermacchi MB-339

A founding member of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)[61] and the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC),[62] the country participates in many international organisations such as the United Nations,[63] the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation,[64] the Developing 8 Countries,[65] and the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM).[66] It has chaired ASEAN, the OIC, and the NAM in the past.[3] A former British colony, it is also a member of the Commonwealth of Nations.[67] Kuala Lumpur was the site of the first East Asia Summit in 2005.[68]

Malaysia's foreign policy is officially based on the principle of neutrality and maintaining peaceful relations with all countries, regardless of their political system.[69] The government attaches a high priority to the security and stability of Southeast Asia,[68] and seeks to further develop relations with other countries in the region. Historically the government has tried to portray Malaysia as a progressive Islamic nation[69] while strengthening relations with other Islamic states.[68] A strong tenet of Malaysia's policy is national sovereignty and the right of a country to control its domestic affairs.[47]

The policy towards territorial disputes by the government is one of pragmatism, with the government solving disputes in a number of ways, such as bringing the case to the International Court of Justice.[70] The Spratly Islands are disputed by many states in the area, although tensions have eased since the 2002 Declaration on the Conduct of Parties in the South China Sea. Brunei and Malaysia in 2008 announced an end to claims of each other's land, and to resolve issues related to their maritime borders. The Philippines has a dormant claim to Sabah. Singapore's land reclamation has caused tensions, and maritime border disputes exist with Indonesia.[71]

Malaysia has never recognised Israel and has no diplomatic ties with it.[72] It has remained a strong supporter of the State of Palestine,[73] and has called for Israel to be taken to the International Criminal Court over the Gaza flotilla raid.[74] Malaysian peacekeeping forces are present in Lebanon[75] and have contributed to many other UN peacekeeping missions.[3]



Royal Malaysian Navy's first Scorpène class submarine

Malaysian defence requirements are assigned to the Malaysian Armed Forces. The armed forces has three branches, the Royal Malaysian Navy, the Malaysian Army, and the Royal Malaysian Air Force. There is no conscription, and the required age for voluntary military service is 18.

The military uses 1.9 per cent of the country's GDP, and employs 1.23 per cent of Malaysia's manpower.[76]

The Five Power Defence Arrangements is a regional security initiative which has been in place for almost 40 years. It involves joint military exercises held among Malaysia, Singapore, Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom.[77] Joint exercises and war games have been held with Indonesia for years.[78] Malaysia and the Philippines have agreed to host joint security force exercises in order to secure their maritime border and tackle issues such as illegal immigration.[79] There are fears that unrest in the Muslim areas of the southern Philippines[80] and southern Thailand[81] could spill over into Malaysia.

Subdivisions

Main articles: States and federal territories of Malaysia and Districts of Malaysia



Malaysia is a federation of 13 states and three federal territories. These are divided between two regions, with 11 states and two federal territories on Peninsular Malaysia and the other two states and one federal territory in East Malaysia. Governance of the states is divided between the federal and the state governments, and the Federal government has direct administration of the federal territories.[82]

The 13 states are based on historical Malay Kingdoms, and 9 of the 11 Peninsular states, known as the Malay states, retain their royal families. The King is elected by and from the nine rulers to serve a five-year term.[3] Each state has a unicameral legislature known as the State Legislative Assembly. The states of East Malaysia (Sabah and Sarawak) have separate immigration policies and controls, and a unique residency status.[83] For citizens of one of these states or Peninsular Malaysia, the other areas of Malaysia are considered foreign countries under immigration laws.[84] Each state is further divided into districts, which are then divided into mukim. In Sabah and Sarawak districts are grouped into divisions.[85]

The federal parliament is permitted to legislate on issues of land, the Islamic religion and local government, in order to provide for a uniform law among all states. It may also intervene at the request of the state assembly concerned. Except for some land related laws, the in question must also be passed by the state assembly. Non-Islamic issues that fall under the purview of the state may also be legislated at the federal level for the purpose of conforming with Malaysian treaty obligations.[86]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Malaysia


A view from Low's peak, the highest peak of Mount Kinabalu

Malaysia is the 66th largest country by total land area, with a land area of 329,847 square kilometres (127,355 sq mi). It has land borders with Thailand in West Malaysia, and Indonesia and Brunei in East Malaysia.[2] It is linked to Singapore by a narrow causeway, and also has maritime boundaries with Vietnam[87] and the Philippines.[88] The land borders are defined in large part by geological features such as the Perlis River, the Golok River and the Pagalayan Canal, whilst some of the maritime boundaries are the subject of ongoing contention.[2] Brunei forms what is almost an enclave in Malaysia,[89] with the state of Sarawak dividing it into two parts. Malaysia is the only country with territory on both the Asian mainland and the Malay archipelago.[90] Tanjung Piai, located in the southern state of Johor, is the southernmost tip of continental Asia.[91] The Strait of Malacca, lying between Sumatra and Peninsular Malaysia, is one of the most important thoroughfares in global commerce, carrying 40 per cent of the world's trade.[92]

The two parts of Malaysia, separated from each other by the South China Sea, share a largely similar landscape in that both Peninsular and East Malaysia feature coastal plains rising to hills and mountains.[2] Peninsular Malaysia, containing 40 per cent of Malaysia's land area,[90] extends 740 kilometres (460 mi) from north to south, and its maximum width is 322 kilometres (200 mi).[93] It is divided between its east and west coasts by the Titiwangsa Mountains,[94] part of a series of mountain ranges running down the centre of the peninsula.[90] These mountains are heavily forested,[95] and mainly composed of granite and other igneous rocks. Much of it has been eroded, creating a karst landscape.[90] The range is the origin of some of Peninsular Malaysia's river systems.[95] The coastal plains surrounding the peninsula reach a maximum width of 50 kilometres (31 mi), and the peninsula's coastline is nearly 1,931 kilometres (1,200 mi) long, although harbours are only available on the western side.[93]


National Park, Pahang

East Malaysia, on the island of Borneo, has a coastline of 2,607 kilometres (1,620 mi).[2] It is divided between coastal regions, hills and valleys, and a mountainous interior.[90] The Crocker Range extends northwards from Sarawak,[90] dividing the state of Sabah. It is the location of the 4,095.2 metres (13,436 ft) high Mount Kinabalu,[96] the tallest mountain in Malaysia. Mount Kinabalu is protected as the Kinabalu National Park, a UNESCO World Heritage Site.[97] The highest mountain ranges form the border between Malaysia and Indonesia. Sarawak contains the Mulu Caves, the largest cave system in the world.[90]

Around these two halves of Malaysia are numerous islands, the largest of which is Banggi.[98] The local climate is equatorial and characterised by the annual southwest (April to October) and northeast (October to February) monsoons.[93] The temperature is moderated by the presence of the surrounding oceans.[90] Humidity is usually high, and the average annual rainfall is 250 centimetres (98 in).[93] The climates of the Peninsula and the East differ, as the climate on the peninsula is directly affected by wind from the mainland, as opposed to the more maritime weather of the East. Local climates can be divided into three regions, highland, lowland, and coastal. Climate change is likely to affect sea levels and rainfall, increasing flood risks and leading to droughts.[90]

Biodiversity

Main article: Wildlife of Malaysia


Proboscis monkey in Borneo

Malaysia is a megadiverse country with a high number of species and high levels of endemism.[99] It is estimated to contain 20 per cent of the world's animal species.[100] High levels of endemism are found on the diverse forests of Borneo's mountains, as species are isolated from each other by lowland forest.[90] There are about 210 mammal species in the country.[101] Over 620 species of birds have been recorded in Peninsular Malaysia,[100] with many endemic to the mountains there. A high number of endemic bird species are also found in Malaysian Borneo.[90] 250 reptile species have been recorded in the country, with about 150 species of snakes[102] and 80 species of lizards.[101] There are about 150 species of frogs,[101] and thousands of insect species.[101] Malaysia's exclusive economic zone is 1.5 times larger than its land area,[103] and some of its waters are in the Coral Triangle, a biodiversity hotspot.[104] The waters around Sipadan island are the most biodiverse in the world.[100] Bordering East Malaysia, the Sulu Sea is a biodiversity hotspot, with around 600 coral species and 1200 fish species.[105]

About two thirds of Malaysia is covered in forest,[93] with some forests believed to be 130 million years old.[101] The forests are dominated by dipterocarps.[106] Lowland forest occurs below 760 metres (2,493 ft),[93] and formerly East Malaysia was covered in such rainforest,[106] which is supported by its hot wet climate.[90] There are around 14,500 species of flowering plants and trees.[101] Besides rainforests, there are over 1,425 square kilometres (550 sq mi) of mangroves in Malaysia,[93] and a large amount of peat forest. At higher altitudes, oaks, chestnuts, and rhododendrons replace dipterocarps.[90] There are an estimated 8,500 species of vascular plants in Peninsular Malaysia, with another 15,000 in the East.[107] The forests of East Malaysia are estimated to be the habitat of around 2,000 tree species, and are one of the most biodiverse areas in the world, with 240 different species of trees every hectare.[90] These forests host many members of the Rafflesia genus, the largest flowers in the world,[106] with a maximum diameter of 1 metre (3 ft).[101]


Some species of *Rafflesia* can grow up to 1 metre (3 ft) in diameter, making them the largest flowers in the world.

Logging, along with cultivation practices has devastated tree cover, causing severe environmental degradation in the country. Over 80 per cent of Sarawak's rainforest has been cleared.[90] Floods in East Malaysia have been worsened by the loss of trees, and over 60 per cent of the Peninsular's forest have been cleared.[101] With current rates of deforestation, the forests are predicted to be extinct by 2020.[90] Deforestation is a major problem for fauna, as the forest is cut to make room for plantations.[108] Most remaining forest is found inside national parks.[101] Habitat destruction has proved a threat for marine life.[105] Illegal fishing is another major threat,[105] with fishing methods such as dynamite fishing and poisoning depleting marine ecosystems.[109] Leatherback turtle numbers have dropped 98 per cent since the 1950s.[102] Hunting has also been an issue for some animals,[101] with overconsumption and the use of animal parts for profit endangering many animals, from marine life[105] to tigers.[108] Marine life is also detrimentally affected by uncontrolled tourism.[110]

The Malaysian government aims to balance economic growth with environmental protection, but has been

accused of favouring big business over the environment.[101] Some state governments are now trying to counter the environmental impact and pollution created by deforestation;[106] and the federal government is trying to cut logging by 10 per cent each year. 28 national parks have been established; 23 in East Malaysia and seven in the Peninsular.[101] Tourism has been limited in biodiverse areas such as Sipadan island.[110] Animal trafficking is a large issue, and the Malaysian government is holding talks with the governments of Brunei and Indonesia to standardise anti-trafficking laws.[111]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Malaysia

Malaysia is a relatively open state-oriented and newly industrialised market economy.[112][113] The state plays a significant but declining role in guiding economic activity through macroeconomic plans. Malaysia has had one of the best economic records in Asia, with GDP growing an average 6.5 per cent annually from 1957 to 2005.[3] In 2010 the GDP (PPP) was $414,400 billion, the 3rd largest economy in ASEAN and 29th largest in the world.[114]

In the 1970s, the predominantly mining and agricultural-based economy began a transition towards a more multi-sector economy. Since the 1980s the industrial sector has led Malaysia's growth.[115] High levels of investment played a significant role in this.[3] The economy recovered from the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis sooner than neighbouring countries, and has since recovered to the levels of the pre-crisis era with a GDP per capita of $14,800.[116][117] Inequalities exist between different ethnic groups. The Chinese make up about one-third of the population but accounts for 70 per cent of the country's market capitalisation.[118]



An oil palm plantation, from which palm oil is extracted.

International trade, facilitated by the adjacent Strait of Malacca shipping route, and manufacturing are key sectors of the country's economy.[119][120][121] Malaysia is an exporter of natural and agricultural resources, the most valuable exported resource being petroleum.[3] At one time, it was the largest producer of tin,[122] rubber and palm oil in the world. Manufacturing has a large influence in the country's economy,[123] although Malaysia's economic structure has been moving away from it.[124] Malaysia remains one of the worlds largest producers of palm oil.[125]

In an effort to diversify the economy and make it less dependent on exported goods, the government has pushed to increase tourism to Malaysia. As a result, tourism has become Malaysia's third largest source of income from foreign exchange, although it is threatened by the negative effects of the growing industrial economy, with large amounts of air and water pollution along with deforestation affecting tourism.[126] The country has developed into a centre of Islamic banking, and is the country with the highest numbers of female workers in that industry.[127] Knowledge-based services are also expanding.[124]

Science policies in Malaysia are regulated by the Ministry of Science, Technology, and Innovation. The country is one of the world's largest exporters of semiconductor devices, electrical goods, and information and communication technology products.[3] Malaysia began developing its own space programme in 2002,[128][129] and in 2006 Russia agreed to transport one Malaysian to the International Space Station as part of a multi-billion dollar purchase of 18 Russian Sukhoi Su-30MKM fighter jets by the Royal Malaysian Air Force.[130] In an effort to create a self-reliant defensive ability and support national development, Malaysia privatised some of its

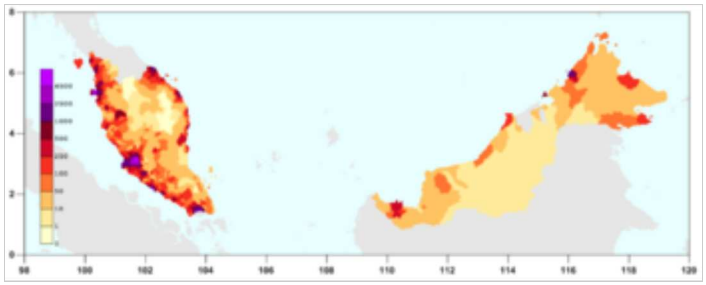
military facilities in the 1970s. This has created a defence industry, which in 1999 was brought under the Malaysia Defence Industry Council. The government continues to try and promote this sector and its competitiveness, actively marketing the defence industry.[131]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Malaysia

As of the 2010 census, the population of Malaysia was 28,334,135,[4] making it the 43rd most populated country. The population of Malaysia consists of many ethnic groups. Malays make up 50.4 per cent of the population, while other *bumiputra* make up another 11 per cent.[2] According to constitutional definition, Malays are Muslims who practice Malay customs and culture. They play a dominant role politically. *Bumiputra* status is also accorded to certain non-Malay indigenous peoples, including ethnic Thais, Khmers, Chams and the natives of Sabah and Sarawak. Non-Malay bumiputra make up more than half of Sarawak's population and over two thirds of Sabah's population.[2] There also exist aboriginal groups in much smaller numbers on the peninsula, where they are collectively known as the Orang Asli.[132] Laws over who gets *bumiputra* status vary between states.[133]

Other minorities who lack *bumiputra* status make up a large amount of the population. 23.7 per cent of the population are of Chinese descent, while those of Indian descent comprise 7.1 per cent of the population.[2] The Chinese have historically been dominant in the business and commerce community, and form a plurality of the population of Penang. Indians began migrating to Malaysia in the early 19th century.[134] The majority of the Indian community are Tamils.[135]



Population density (person per Km^2)

Malaysian citizenship is not automatically granted to those born in Malaysia, but is granted to a child born of two Malaysian parents outside Malaysia. Dual citizenship is not permitted.[136] Citizenship in the states of Sabah and Sarawak in Malaysian Borneo are distinct from citizenship in Peninsular Malaysia for immigration purposes. Every citizen is issued a biometric smart chip identity card known as *MyKad* at the age of 12, and must carry the card at all times.[137]

The education system features a non-compulsory kindergarten education followed by six years of compulsory primary education, and five years of optional secondary education.[138] Schools in the primary education system are divided into two categories: national primary schools, which teach in Malay, and vernacular schools, which teach in Chinese or Tamil.[139] Secondary education is conducted for five years. In the final year of secondary education, students sit for the Malaysian Certificate of Education examination.[140] Since the introduction of the matriculation programme in 1999, students who completed the 12-month programme in matriculation colleges can enroll in local universities. However, in the matriculation system, only 10 per cent of places are open to non-bumiputra students.[141]

The infant mortality rate in 2009 was 6 deaths per 1000 births, and life expectancy at birth in 2009 was 75 years.[142] With the aim of developing Malaysia into a medical tourism destination, 5 per cent of the government social sector development budget is spent on health care.[143] The population in concentrated on Peninsular

Malaysia[144] where 20 million of approximately 28 million Malaysians live.[3] 70 per cent of the population is urban.[2] Kuala Lumpur is the capital[2] and the largest city in Malaysia,[145] as well as its main commercial and financial centre.[146] Putrajaya, a purpose-built city constructed from 1999, is the seat of government,[147] as many executive and judicial branches of the federal government were moved there to ease growing congestion within Kuala Lumpur.[148]

Due to the rise in labour intensive industries,[149] the country is estimated to have over 3 million migrant workers; about 10 per cent of the population.[150] Sabah-based NGOs estimate that out of the 3 million that make up the population of Sabah, 2 million are illegal immigrants.[151] Malaysia hosts a population of refugees and asylum seekers numbering approximately 171,500. Of this population, approximately 79,000 are from Burma, 72,400 from the Philippines, and 17,700 from Indonesia. Malaysian officials are reported to have turned deportees directly over to human smugglers in 2007, and Malaysia employs RELA, a volunteer militia with a history of controversies, to enforce its immigration law.[152]

Religion

Main article: Religion in Malaysia

The Malaysian constitution guarantees freedom of religion while making Islam the state religion.[154] According to the Population and Housing Census 2010 figures, ethnicity and religious beliefs correlate highly. Approximately 61.3% of the population are practicing Islam. 19.8% practice Buddhism; 9.2% Christianity; 6.3% Hinduism; and 1.3% practice Confucianism, Taoism and other traditional Chinese religions.[155] 0.7% declared no religion and the remaining 1.4% practised other religions or did not provide any information.[155]



Kampung Laut Mosque in Kota Bharu is one of the oldest mosques in Malaysia, dating to early 18th century.

All ethnic Malays are considered Muslim by law of the Constitution.[154] Statistics from the 2010 Census indicate that 83.6% of the Chinese population identify as Buddhist, with significant numbers of adherents following Taoism (3.4%) and Christianity (11.1%), along with small Hui-Muslim populations in areas like Penang. The majority of the Indian population follow Hinduism (86.2%), with a significant minority identifying as Christians (6.0%) or Muslims (4.1%). Christianity is the predominant religion of the non-Malay *bumiputra* community (46.5%) with an additional 40.4% identifying as Muslims.[155]

Muslims are obliged to follow the decisions of Syariah courts in matters concerning their religion. The Islamic judges are expected to follow the Shafi`i legal school of Islam, which is the main *madh'hab* of Malaysia.[156] The jurisdiction of Shariah courts is limited to Muslims in matters such as marriage, inheritance, divorce, apostasy, religious conversion, and custody among others. No other criminal or civil offences are under the jurisdiction of the Shariah courts, which have a similar hierarchy to the Civil Courts. Despite being the supreme courts of the land, the Civil Courts do not hear matters related to Islamic practices.[157]

Language

Main article: Languages of Malaysia

The official language of Malaysia is Bahasa Malaysia,[2] a standardised form of the Malay language.[158] Historically English was the de facto administrative language, with Malay becoming predominant after the 1969

race riots.[159] English remains an active second language, and serves as the medium of instruction for maths and sciences in all public schools.[160][161] Malaysian English, also known as Malaysian Standard English, is a form of English derived from British English. Malaysian English is widely used in business, along with Manglish, which is a colloquial form of English with heavy Malay, Chinese, and Tamil influences. The government discourages the misuse of Malay and has instituted fines for public signs that mix Malay and English.[162][163]

Many other languages are used in Malaysia, which contains speakers of 137 living languages.[164] Peninsular Malaysia contains speakers of 41 of these languages.[165] The native tribes of East Malaysia have their own languages which are related to, but easily distinguishable from, Malay. Iban is the main tribal language in Sarawak while Dusunic languages are spoken by the natives in Sabah.[166] Chinese Malaysians predominately speak Chinese dialects from the southern provinces of China. The more common dialects in the country are Cantonese, Mandarin, Hokkien, Hakka, Hainanese, and Fuzhou. Tamil is used predominantly by Tamils, who form a majority of Malaysian Indians. Other south Asian languages are also widely spoken in Malaysia, as well as Thai[2] A small number of Malaysians have Caucasian ancestry and speak creole languages, such as the Portuguese based Malaccan Creoles,[167] and the Spanish based Chavacano language.[168]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Malaysia

Malaysia has a multi-ethnic, multicultural, and multilingual society. The original culture of the area stemmed from indigenous tribes that inhabited it, along with the Malays who later moved there. Substantial influence exists from Chinese and Indian culture, dating back to when foreign trade began. Other cultural influences include the Persian, Arabic, and British cultures. Due to the structure of the government, coupled with the social contract theory, there has been minimal cultural assimilation of ethnic minorities.[169]



A cook making murtabak, a type of pancake mixed with eggs, small pieces of meat and onions, in Kuala Lumpur.

In 1971, the government created a "National Cultural Policy", defining Malaysian culture. It stated that Malaysian culture must be based on the culture of the indigenous peoples of Malaysia, that it may incorporate suitable elements from other cultures, and that Islam must play a part in it.[170] It also promoted the Malay language above others.[171] This government intervention into culture has caused resentment among non-Malays who feel their cultural freedom was lessened. Both Chinese and Indian associations have submitted memorandums to the government, accusing it of formulating an undemocratic culture policy.[170]

Some cultural disputes exist between Malaysia and neighbouring countries, notably Indonesia. The two countries have a similar cultural heritage, sharing many traditions and items. However, disputes have arisen over things ranging from culinary dishes to Malaysia's national anthem. Strong feelings exist in Indonesia about protecting their national heritage.[172] The Malaysian government and the Indonesian government have met to defuse some of the tensions resulting from the overlaps in culture.[173] Feelings are not as strong in Malaysia, where most recognise that many cultural values are shared.[172]

Fine arts

See also: Music of Malaysia and Malaysian literature



Char Kuey Teow made by frying flat noodles with fish cakes, cockles and bean sprouts is a popular dish in Malaysia.

Traditional Malaysian art was mainly centred around the areas of carving, weaving, and silversmithing.[174] Traditional art ranges from handwoven baskets from rural areas to the silverwork of the Malay courts. Common artworks included ornamental kris, beetle nut sets, and woven batik and songket fabrics. Indigenous East Malaysians are known for their wooden masks.[90] Each ethnic group have distinct performing arts, with little overlap between them. However, Malay art does show some North Indian influence due to the historical influence of India.[175]



Malaysian batik

Traditional Malay music and performing arts appear to have originated in the Kelantan-Pattani region with influences from India, China, Thailand and Indonesia. The music is based around percussion instruments,[175] the most important of which is the gendang (drum). There are at least 14 types of traditional drums.[176] Drums and other traditional percussion instruments and are often made from natural materials.[176] Music is traditionally used for storytelling, celebrating life-cycle events, and occasions such as a harvest.[175] It was once used as a form of long-distance communication.[176] In East Malaysia, gong-based musical ensembles such as agung and kulintang are commonly used in ceremonies such as funerals and weddings.[177] These ensembles are also common in neighbouring regions such as in the southern Philippines, Kalimantan in Indonesia, and Brunei.[177]

Malaysia has a strong oral tradition that has existed since before the arrival of writing, and continues today. Each of the Malay Sultanates created their own literary tradition, influenced by pre-existing oral stories and by the stories that came with Islam.[178] The first Malay literature was in the Arabic script. The earliest known Malay writing is on the Terengganu stone, made in 1303.[90] Chinese and Indian literature became common as the numbers of speakers increased in Malaysia, and locally produced works based in languages from those areas began to be produced in the 19th century.[178] English has also become a common literary language.[90] In 1971, the government took the step of defining the literature of different languages. Literature written in Malay was called "the national literature of Malaysia", literature in other *bumiputra* languages was called "regional literature", while literature in other languages was called "sectional literature".[171] Malay poetry is highly developed, and uses many forms. The *Hikayat* form is popular, and the *pantun* has spread from Malay to other languages.[178]

Cuisine

Main article: Malaysian cuisine

Malaysia's cuisine reflects the multi-ethnic makeup of its population.[179] Many cultures from within the country and from surrounding regions have greatly influenced the cuisine. Much of the influence comes from the Malay, Chinese, Indian, Thai, Javanese, and Sumatran cultures,[90] largely due to the country being part of the ancient spice route.[180] The cuisine is very similar to that of Singapore and Brunei,[101] and also bears resemblance to Filipino cuisine.[90] The different states have varied dishes,[101] and often the food in Malaysia is different from

the original dishes.[135]



(clockwise from bottom left): beef soup, nasi impit (compressed rice cubes), beef rendang and *sayur lodeh*

Sometimes food not found in its original culture is assimilated into another; for example, Chinese restaurants in Malaysia often serve Malay dishes.[181] Food from one culture is sometimes also cooked using styles taken from another culture,[101] This means that although much of Malaysian food can be traced back to a certain culture, they have their own identity.[180] Rice is popular in many dishes. Chili is commonly found in local cuisine, although this does not necessarily make them spicy.[179]

Holidays and festivals

Main article: Public holidays in Malaysia



South-East Asia's Largest Temple- Kek Lok Si in Penang being illuminated in preparation for the Lunar New Year.

Malaysians observe a number of holidays and festivities throughout the year. Some are federally gazetted public holidays and some are observed by individual states. Other festivals are observed by particular ethnic or religion groups, and the main holiday of each major group have been declared a public holiday. The most observed national holiday is *Hari Merdeka* (Independence Day) on 31 August, commemorating the independence of the Federation of Malaya in 1957.[90] Malaysia Day on 16 September commemorates federation in 1963.[182] Other notable national holidays are Labour Day (1 May), and the King's birthday (first week of June).[90]

Muslim holidays are prominent as Islam is the state religion; *Hari Raya Puasa* (also called *Hari Raya Aidilfitri*, Malay for Eid al-Fitr), *Hari Raya Haji* (also called *Hari Raya Aidiladha*, the translation of Eid ul-Adha), *Maulidur Rasul* (birthday of the Prophet), and others being observed.[90] Malaysian Chinese celebrate festivals such as Chinese New Year and others relating to traditional Chinese beliefs. Hindus in Malaysia celebrate *Deepavali*, the festival of lights,[154] while *Thaipusam* is a religious rite which sees pilgrims from all over the country converge at the Batu Caves.[183] Malaysia's Christian community celebrates most of the holidays observed by Christians elsewhere, most notably Christmas and Easter. East Malaysians also celebrate a harvest festival known as *Gawai*.[184] Despite most festivals being identified with a particular ethnic or religious group, celebrations are universal. In a custom known as "open house" Malaysians participate in the celebrations of others, often visiting the houses of those who identify with the festival.[185]

Sports

Main article: Sport in Malaysia

Popular sports in Malaysia include soccer, badminton, field hockey, bowls, tennis, squash, martial arts, horse riding, sailing, and skate boarding.[185] Badminton matches attract thousands of spectators, and since 1948 Malaysia has been one of three countries to hold the Thomas Cup.[186] The Malaysian Lawn Bowls Federation was registered in 1997.[187] Squash was brought to the country by members of the British army, with the first competition being held in 1939. The Squash Racquets Association of Malaysia was created on 25 June 1972.[188] Malaysia has proposed a Southeast Asian football league.[189] The men's national field hockey team

ranked 15th in the world as of August 2010.[190] The 3rd Hockey World Cup was hosted at Merdeka Stadium in Kuala Lumpur, as well as the 10th cup.[191] The country also has its own Formula One track–the Sepang International Circuit. It runs for 310.408 kilometres (192.88 mi), and held its first Grand Prix in 1999.[192]


Sepang International Circuit.

The Federation of Malaya Olympic Council was formed in 1953, and received recognition by the IOC in 1954. It first participated in the 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games. The council was renamed the Olympic Council of Malaysia in 1964, and has participated in all but one Olympic games since its inception. The largest number of athletes ever sent to the Olympics was 57 to the 1972 Munich Olympic Games.[193] Malaysian athletes have won a total of four Olympic medals, all of which are in badminton.[194] The country has competed at the Commonwealth Games since 1950 as Malaya, and 1966 as Malaysia, and the games were hosted in Kuala Lumpur in 1998.[195][196]

Media

Main article: Media of Malaysia

Malaysia's main newspapers are owned by the government and political parties in the ruling coalition,[197] although some major opposition parties also have their own.[198] A divide exists between the media in the two halves of the country. Peninsular-based media gives low priority to news from the East, and often treats the eastern states as colonies of the Peninsula.[199] The media has been blamed for increasing tension between Indonesia and Malaysia, and giving Malaysians a bad image of Indonesians.[200] The country has Malay, English, Chinese, and Tamil dailies.[199]

There is very little freedom of the press, leading to very little government accountability.[201] The government has previously tried to crack down on opposition papers before elections.[198] In 2007, a government agency issued a directive to all private television and radio stations to refrain from broadcasting speeches made by opposition leaders,[202] a move condemned by politicians from the opposition Democratic Action Party.[203] Sabah, where all tabloids but one are independent of government control, has the freest press in Malaysia.[199] Laws such as the Printing Presses and Publications Act have also been cited as curtailing freedom of expression.[204]

Infrastructure

See also: Transport in Malaysia and Energy policy of Malaysia


The North-South Expressway

The infrastructure of Malaysia is one of the most developed in Asia.[205] Its telecommunications network is second only to Singapore's in Southeast Asia, with 4.7 million fixed-line subscribers and more than 30 million cellular subscribers.[206][207] The country has seven international ports, the major one being the Port Klang. There are 200 industrial parks along with specialised parks such as Technology Park Malaysia and Kulim Hi-Tech Park.[185] Fresh water is available to over 95 per cent of the population. During the colonial period, development was mainly concentrated in economically powerful cities and in areas forming security concerns. Although rural areas have been the focus of great development, they still

lag behind areas such as the West Coast of Peninsular Malaysia.[208] The telecommunication network, although strong in urban areas, is less available to the rural population.[206]

Malaysia's road network covers 98,721 kilometres (61,342 mi) and includes 1,821 kilometres (1,132 mi) of expressways.[2] The longest highway of the country, the North-South Expressway, extends over 800 kilometres (497 mi) between the Thai border and Singapore. The road systems in Sabah and Sarawak are less developed and of lower quality in comparison to that of Peninsular Malaysia.[209] Malaysia has 118 airports, of which 38 are paved. The country's official airline is Malaysia Airlines, providing international and domestic air service alongside two other carriers. The railway system is state-run, and covers a total of 1,849 kilometres (1,149 mi).[2] Relatively inexpensive elevated Light Rail Transit systems are used in some cities, such as Kuala Lumpur.[210] The Asean Rail Express is a railway service that connects Kuala Lumpur to Bangkok, and is intended to eventually stretch from Singapore to China.[205]

Traditionally, energy production in Malaysia has been based on oil and natural gas.[211] The country has 13 GW of electrical generation capacity.[212] However, the country only has 33 years of natural gas reserves, and 19 years of oil reserves, while the demand for energy is increasing. In response, the government is expanding into renewable energy sources.[211] Sixteen per cent of electricity generation is hydroelectric, the remaining 84 per cent being thermal.[212] The oil and gas industry is dominated by state owned Petronas,[213] and the energy sector as a whole is regulated by the Energy Commission of Malaysia, a statutory commission that governs the energy in the peninsula and Sabah, under the terms of the Electricity Commission Act of 2001.[214]

See also

- Outline of Malaysia
- Index of Malaysia-related articles
- Environment of Malaysia
- International rankings of Malaysia

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History of Malaysia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Malaysia is a country in South East Asia whose strategic sea-lane position brought trade and foreign influences that fundamentally influenced its history. Hindu and Buddhist cultures imported from India dominated early Malaysian history. They reached their peak in the Sumatran-based Srivijaya civilization, whose influence extended through Sumatra, Java, the Malay Peninsula and much of Borneo from the 7th to the 14th centuries.

Although Muslims had passed through Malaysia as early as the 10th century, it was not until the 14th and 15th centuries that Islam first established itself on the Malay Peninsula. The adoption of Islam by the 15th century saw the rise of number sultanates, the most prominent of which was the Melaka (Malacca). Islamic culture has had a profound influence on the Malay people, but has also been influenced by them. The Portuguese were the first European colonial powers to establish themselves in Malaysia, capturing Malacca in 1511, followed by the Dutch. However, it was the British, who after initially establishing bases at Jesselton, Kuching, Penang and Singapore, ultimately secured their hegemony across the territory that is now Malaysia. The Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1824 defined the boundaries between British Malaya and the Netherlands East Indies (which became Indonesia). A fourth phase of foreign influence was immigration of Chinese and Indian workers to meet the needs of the colonial economy created by the British in the Malay Peninsula and Borneo.[1]

Japanese invasion during World War II ended British domination in Malaysia. The subsequent occupation from 1942 to 1945 unleashed nationalism in Malaya and Borneo. In the Peninsula, the Malayan Communist Party took up arms against the British. A tough military response was needed to end the insurgency and bring about the establishment of an independent, multi-racial Federation of Malaya in 1957. On 31 August 1963, the British territories in North Borneo and Singapore were granted independence and formed Malaysia with the Peninsular states on 16 September 1963. Approximately two years later, Singapore was expelled from the Federation. A confrontation with Indonesia occurred in the early-1960s. Race riots in 1969 led to the imposition of emergency rule, and a curtailment of political life and civil liberties which has never been fully reversed. Since 1970 the "National Front coalition" headed by United Malays National Organisation (UMNO) has governed Malaysia. Economic growth dramatically increased living standards by the 1990s. This growing prosperity helped minimise political discontent.
[*citation needed*]

History of Malaysia



This article is part of **a series**

Prehistoric Malaysia

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Gangga Negara (2nd–11th)
Langkasuka (2nd–14th)
Pan Pan (3rd–5th)
Srivijaya (7th–13th)
Majapahit (13th–15th)
Kedah Kingdom (630–1136)

The rise of Muslim states

Kedah Sultanate (1136–present)
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Sulu Sultanate (1450–1899)
Johor Sultanate (1528–present)

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Portuguese Malacca (1511–1641)
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Prehistory

Main article: Prehistoric Malaysia

The earliest evidence of human habitation in Malaysia dates back 40,000 years.[2] A study of Asian genetics points to the idea that the original humans in Asia came from in Southeast Asia.[3] The indigenous groups on the peninsula can be divided into three ethnicities, the Negritos, the Senois, and the proto-Malays.[4] The first inhabitants of the Malay Peninsula were most probably Negritos.[5] These Mesolithic hunters were probably the ancestors of the Semang, an ethnic Negrito group who have a long history in the Malay Peninsula.[6]

The Senoi appear to be a composite group, with approximately half of the maternal DNA lineages tracing back to the ancestors of the Semang and about half to later ancestral migrations from Indochina. Scholars suggest they are descendants of early Austronesian-speaking agriculturalists, who brought both their language and their technology to the southern part of the peninsula approximately 4,000 years ago. They united and coalesced with the indigenous population.[7]

The Proto Malays have a more diverse origin.,[8] and were settled in Malaysia by 1000BC.[9] Although they show some connections with other inhabitants in Maritime Southeast Asia, some also have an ancestry in Indochina around the time of the Last Glacial Maximum, about 20,000 years ago. Anthropologists support the notion that the Proto-Malays originated from what is today Yunnan, China.[10] This was followed by an early-Holocene dispersal through the Malay Peninsula into the Malay Archipelago.[11] Around 300 BC, they were

pushed inland by the Deutero-Malays, an Iron Age or Bronze Age people descended partly from the Chams of Cambodia and Vietnam. The first group in the peninsula to use metal tools, the Deutero-Malays were the direct ancestors of today's Malaysian Malays,[6] and brought with them advanced farming techniques.[9] The Malays remained politically fragmented throughout the Malay archipelago, although a common culture and social structure was shared.[9]

Early kingdoms

In the first millennium CE Malay's became the dominant race on the peninsula. The small early states that were established were greatly influenced by Indian culture.[12] Indian influence in the region dates back to at least the 3rd century BCE.



The Buddha-Gupta stone, dating to the 4th-5th Century CE, was dedicated by an Indian Merchant, Buddha Gupta, as an expression of gratitude for his safe arrival after a voyage to the Malay peninsula. It was found in Seberang Perai, Malaysia and is kept in the National Museum, Calcutta, India.

The Malay Peninsula was known to ancient Tamils as *Suvarnadvipa* or the "Golden Peninsula". It was shown on Ptolemy's map as the "Golden Khersonese". He referred to the Straits of Melaka as *Sinus Sabaricus*.[13] Trade relations with China and India were established in the 1st century BC.[9] In the early centuries of the first millennium, the people of the Malay Peninsula adopted the Indian religions of Hinduism and Buddhism, religions which had a major effect on the language and culture of those living in Malaysia.[14] The Sanskrit writing system was used as early as the 4th century.[15]

There were numerous Malay kingdoms in the 2nd and 3rd century, as many as 30, mainly based on the Eastern side of the Malay peninsula.[12] Among the earliest kingdoms known to have been based in what is now Malaysia is the ancient empire of Langkasuka, located in the northern Malay Peninsula and based somewhere in Kedah.[12] It was closely tied to Funan in Cambodia, which also ruled part of northern Malaysia until the 6th century. According to the Sejarah Melayu ("Malay Annals"), the Khmer prince Raja Ganji Sarjuna founded the kingdom of Gangga Negara (modern-day Beruas, Perak) in the 700s. Chinese chronicles of the 5th century CE speak of a great port in the south called Guantoli, which is thought to have been in the Straits of Malacca. In the 7th century, a new port called Shilifoshi is mentioned, and this is believed to be a Chinese rendering of Srivijaya.

Between the 7th and the 13th century, much of the Malay peninsula was under the buddhist Srivijaya empire.[16] The site of Srivijaya's centre is thought be at a river mouth in eastern Sumatra, based near what is now Palembang.[16] For over six centuries the Maharajahs of Srivijaya ruled a maritime empire that became the main power in the archipelago. The empire was based around trade, with local kings (dhatus or community leaders) swearing allegiance to the central lord in order for mutual profit.[17]

In 1025 and 1026 Gangga Negara was attacked by Rajendra Chola I, the Tamil emperor who is now thought to have laid Kota Gelanggi to waste. Kedah—known as *Kedaram*, *Cheh-Cha* (according to *I-Ching*) or *Kataha*, in ancient Pallava or Sanskrit—was in the direct route of the invasions and was ruled by the Cholas from 1025. The senior Chola's successor, Vira Rajendra Chola, had to put down a Kedah rebellion to overthrow other invaders. The coming of the Chola reduced the majesty of Srivijaya, which had exerted influence over Kedah, Pattani and

as far as Ligor.



Avalokiteshvara statue found in Perak, 8th-9th century bronze

Pattinapalai, a Tamil poem of the 2nd century CE, describes goods from Kedaram heaped in the broad streets of the Chola capital. A 7th-century Sanskrit drama, *Kaumudhimahotsva*, refers to Kedah as Kataha-nagari. The *Agnipurana* also mentions a territory known as Anda-Kataha with one of its boundaries delineated by a peak, which scholars believe is Gunung Jerai. Stories from the *Katasaritasagaram* describe the elegance of life in Kataha. The Buddhist kingdom of Ligor took control of Kedah shortly after. Its king Chandrabhanu used it as a base to attack Sri Lanka in the 11th century, an event noted in a stone inscription in Nagapattinum in Tamil Nadu and in the Sri Lankan chronicles, *Mahavamsa*.

At times, the Khmer kingdom, the Siamese kingdom, and even Cholas kingdom tried to exert control over the smaller Malay states.[12] The power of Srivijaya declined from the 12th century as the relationship between the capital and its vassals broke down. Wars with the Javanese caused it to request assistance from China, and wars with Indian states are also suspected. In the 11th century CE the centre of power shifted to Melayu, a port possibly located further up the Sumatran coast at near the Jambi River.[17] The power of the Buhhdist Maharajas was further undermined by the spread of Islam. Areas which were converted to Islam early, such as Aceh, broke away from Srivijaya's control. By the late 13th century, the Siamese kings of Sukhothai had brought most of Malaya under their rule. In the 14th century, the Hindu Java-based Majapahit empire came into possession of the peninsula.[16]

Arrival of Islam

Islam came to the Malay Archipelago via Arab and Indian traders in the 13th century, ending the age of Hinduism and Buddhism.[9] It arrived in the region gradually, and became the religion of the elite before it spread to the commoners. The Islam in Malaysia was influenced by previous religions and was originally not orthodox.[12]

The port of Malacca on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula was founded in 1402 by Parameswara, a Srivijaya prince fleeing Temasek (now Singapore),[12] who was claimed in the Sejarah Melayu to be a descendant of Alexander the Great. Parameswara in particular sailed to Temasek to escape persecution. There he came under the protection of Temagi, a Malay chief from Patani who was appointed by the king of Siam as regent of Temasek. Within a few days, Parameswara killed Temagi and appointed himself regent. Some five years later he had to leave Temasek, due to threats from Siam. During this period, a Javanese fleet from Majapahit attacked Temasek.

Parameswara headed north to found a new settlement. At Muar, Parameswara considered siting his new kingdom at either Biawak Busuk or at Kota Buruk. Finding that the Muar location was not suitable, he continued his journey northwards. Along the way, he reportedly visited Sening Ujong (former name of present-day Sungai Ujong) before reaching a fishing village at the mouth of the Bertam River (former name of the Melaka River), and founded what would become the Malacca Sultanate. Over time this developed into modern-day Malacca Town. According to the *Malay Annals*, here Parameswara saw a mouse deer outwitting a dog resting under a Malacca tree. Taking this as a good omen, he decided to establish a kingdom called Malacca. He built and improved facilities for trade. The Malacca Sultanate is commonly considered the first independent state in the peninsula.[18]

At the time of Melaka's founding, the emperor of Ming Dynasty China was sending out fleets of ships to expand trade. Admiral Zheng He called at Malacca and brought Parameswara with him on his return to China, a recognition of his position as legitimate ruler of Malacca. In exchange for regular tribute, the Chinese emperor offered Melaka protection from the constant threat of a Siamese attack. The Chinese and Indians who settled in the Malay Peninsula before and during this period are the ancestors of today's Baba-Nyonya and Chetti community. According to one theory, Parameswara became a Muslim when he married a Princess of Pasai and he took the fashionable Persian title "Shah", calling himself Iskandar Shah.[19] Chinese chronicles mention that in 1414, the son of the first ruler of Malacca visited the Ming emperor to inform them that his father had died. Parameswara's son was then officially recognised as the second ruler of Melaka by the Chinese Emperor and styled Raja Sri Rama Vikrama, Raja of Parameswara of Temasek and Malacca and he was known to his Muslim subjects as Sultan Sri Iskandar Zulkarnain Shah or Sultan Megat Iskandar Shah. He ruled Malacca from 1414 to 1424.[19][20] Through the influence of Indian Muslims and, to a lesser extent, Hui people from China, Islam became increasingly common during the 15th century.



The earliest record of a local law influenced by Islamic teaching and written in Jawi. The stone monument is found in Terengganu.

After an initial period paying tribute to the Ayutthaya,[12] the kingdom rapidly assumed the place previously held by Srivijaya, establishing independent relations with China, and exploiting its position dominating the Straits to control the China-India maritime trade, which became increasingly important when the Mongol conquests closed the overland route between China and the west.

Within a few years of its establishment, Malacca officially adopted Islam. Parameswara became a Muslim, and due to the fact Malacca was under a Muslim Prince the conversion of Malays to Islam accelerated in the 15th century.[16] The political power of the Malaccan Sultanate helped Islam’s rapid spread through the archipelago. Malacca was an important commercial centre during this time, attracting trade from around the region.[16] By the start of the 16th century, with Malaccan Sultanate in the Malay peninsula and parts of Sumatra,[21] the Sultanate of Demak in Java,[22] and other kingdoms around the Malay archipelago increasingly converting to Islam,[23] it had become the dominant religion among Malays, and reached as far as the modern day Philippines, leaving Bali as an isolated outpost of Hinduism today.

Malacca's reign lasted little more than a century, but during this time became the established centre of Malay culture. Most future Malay states originated from this period.[9] Malacca became a cultural centre, creating the matrix of the modern Malay culture: a blend of indigenous Malay and imported Indian, Chinese and Islamic elements. Malacca's fashions in literature, art, music, dance and dress, and the ornate titles of its royal court, came to be seen as the standard for all ethnic Malays. The court of Malacca also gave great prestige to the Malay language, which had originally evolved in Sumatra and been brought to Malacca at the time of its foundation. In time Malay came to be the official language of all the Malaysian states, although local languages survived in many places. After the fall of Malacca, the Sultanate of Brunei became the major centre of Islam.[9]

Struggles for hegemony

The closing of the overland route from Asia to Europe by the Ottoman Empire and the claim towards trade monopoly with India and south-east Asia by Arab traders, led European powers to look for a maritime route. In 1511 Afonso de Albuquerque led an expedition to Malaya which seized Malacca with the intent of using it as a base for activities in southeast Asia.[12] This was the first colonial claim on what is now Malaysia.[16] The son of

the last Sultan of Melaka fled to the southern tip of the peninsula, where he founded a state that which became the Sultanate of Johor.[12] Another son created the Perak Sultanate to the north. By the late 16th century the tin mines of northern Malaya had been discovered by European traders, and Perak grew wealthy on the proceeds of tin exports.[17] Portuguese influence was strong, as they aggressively tried to convert the population of Malacca to Catholicism.[12] In 1571 the Spanish captured Manila and established a colony in the Philippines, sharply ruducing the Sultanate of Brunei's power.[9]



A Famosa fortress in Malacca. It was built by the Portuguese in the 16th century.

After the fall of Malacca to Portugal, the Johor Sultanate and the Sultanate of Aceh on northern Sumatra moved to fill in the power vacuum left behind.[12] The three powers struggled to dominate the Malay peninsula and the surrounding islands.[17] Johor founded in the wake of Malacca's conquest grew powerful enough to rival the Portuguese, although it was never able to recapture the city. Instead it expanded in other directions, building in 130 years one of the largest Malay states.[12] In this time the numerous attempts to recapture Malacca led to a strong backlash from the Portuguese, whose raids even reached Johor's capital of Johor Lama in 1587.[12]

In 1607, the Sultanate of Aceh rose as the powerful and wealthiest state in Malay archipelago. Under Iskandar Muda reign, he extended the sultanate's control over a number of Malay states. A notable conquest was Perak, a tin-producing state on the Peninsula.[17] The strength of his formidable fleet was brought to an end with a disastrous campaign against Malacca in 1629, when the combined Portuguese and Johor forces managed to destroy all his ships and 19,000 troops according to Portuguese account. Aceh forces was not destroyed, however, as Aceh was able to conquer Kedah within the same year and taking many of its citizens to Aceh. The Sultan's son in law, Iskandar Thani, former prince of Pahang later became his successor. The conflict over control of the straits went on until 1641, when the Dutch (allied to Johor) gained control of Malacca.

In the early 17th century the Dutch East India Company (*Vereenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie*, or VOC) was established. During this time the Dutch were at war with Spain, who obtained the Portuguese Empire due to the Iberian Union. From there they expanded across the archipelago, forming an alliance with Johor and using this to push the Portuguese out of Malacca in 1641.[12] Backed by the Dutch, Johore established a loose hegemony over the Malay states, except Perak, which was able to play off Johore against the Siamese to the north and retain its independence.[*citation needed*] The Dutch did not interfere in local matters in Malacca, but at the same time diverted most trade to its colonies on Java.[12]

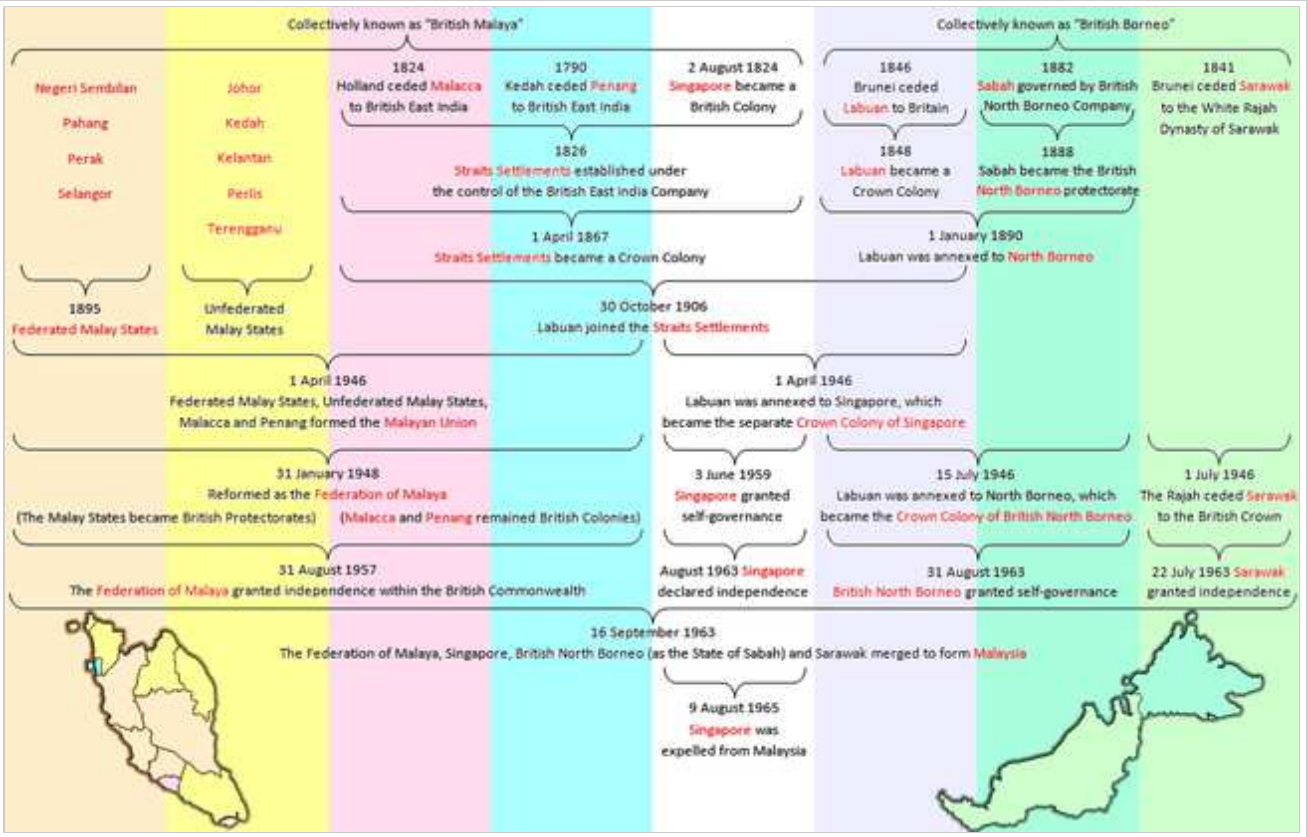
The weakness of the small coastal Malay states led to the immigration of the Bugis, escaping from Dutch colonization of Sulawesi, who established numerous settlements on the peninsula which they used to interfere with Dutch trade.[12] They seized control of Johor following the assassination of the last Sultan of the old Melaka royal line in 1699.[*citation needed*] Bugis expanded their power in the states of Johor, Kedah, Perak, and Selangor.[12] The Minangkabau from center Sumatra migrated into Malaya, and eventually established their own state in Negeri Sembilan. The fall of Johore left a power vacuum on the Malay Peninsula which was partly filled by the Siamese kings of Ayutthaya kingdom, who made the five northern Malay states – Kedah, Kelantan, Patani, Perlis and Terengganu – their vassals. Johore's eclipse also left Perak as the unrivalled leader of the Malay states.

The economic importance of Malaya to Europe grew rapidly during the 18th century. The fast-growing tea trade between China and United Kingdom increased the demand for high-quality Malayan tin, which was used to line

tea-chests. Malayan pepper also had a high reputation in Europe, while Kelantan and Pahang had gold mines. The growth of tin and gold mining and associated service industries led to the first influx of foreign settlers into the Malay world – initially Arabs and Indians, later Chinese – who colonised the towns and soon dominated economic activities. This established a pattern which characterised Malayan society for the next 200 years – a rural Malay population increasingly under the domination of wealthy urban immigrant communities, whose power the Sultans were unable to resist.[*citation needed*]

British influence

Main article: British Malaya



Evolution of Malaysia

English traders had been present in Malay waters since the 17th century. Until the arrival of the British European power became fully apparent in Malaysia.[9] Before the mid 19th century British interests in the region were predominantly economic, with little interest in territorial control. Already the most powerful colonizer in India, they were looking towards southeast Asia for new resources.[12] The growth of the China trade in British ships increased the Company's desire for bases in the region. Various islands were used for this purpose, but the first permanent acquisition was Penang, leased from the Sultan of Kedah in 1786.[24] This was followed soon after by the leasing of a block of territory on the mainland opposite Penang (known as Province Wellesley). In 1795, during the Napoleonic Wars, the British with the consent of the Netherlands occupied Dutch Melaka to forestall possible French interest in the area.[16]

When Malacca was handed back to the Dutch in 1815, the British governor, Stamford Raffles, looked for an alternative base, and in 1819 he acquired Singapore from the Sultan of Johor.[25] The exchange of the British colony of Bencoolen for Malacca with the Dutch left the British as the sole colonial power on the peninsula.[12]

The territories of the British were set up as free ports, attempting to break the monopoly held by other colonial powers as the time, and making them large bases of trade. They allowed Britain to control all trade through the straits of Malacca.[12] British influence was increased by Malayan fears of Siamese expansionism, to which Britain made a useful counterweight.[*citation needed*] During the 19th century the Malay Sultans aligned themselves the British Empire, due to the benefits of associations with the British and the belief in superior British civilization.[17]

In 1824 British hegemony in Malaya (before the name Malaysia) was formalised by the Anglo-Dutch Treaty, which divided the Malay archipelago between Britain and the Netherlands. The Dutch evacuated Melaka[16] and renounced all interest in Malaya, while the British recognised Dutch rule over the rest of the East Indies. By 1826 the British controlled Penang, Malacca, Singapore and the island of Labuan, which they established as the crown colony of the Straits Settlements,[12] administered first under the East India Company until 1867, when they were transferred to the Colonial Office in London.[17]

Federated and Unfederated Malay States

Initially the British followed a policy of non-intervention in relation between the Malay states.[17] The commercial importance of tin mining in the Malay states to merchants in the Straits Settlements led to infighting between the aristocracy on the peninsula. The destabilisation of these states damaged the commerce in the area, causing British intervention. The wealth of Perak's tin mines made political stability there a priority for British investors, and Perak was thus the first Malay state to agree to the supervision of a British resident.[12] British gunboat diplomacy was employed to bring about a peaceful resolution to civil disturbances caused by Chinese and Malay gangsters employed in a political tussle between Ngah Ibrahim and Raja Muda Abdullah. The Pangkor Treaty of 1874 paved the way for the expansion of British influence in Malaya. The British concluded treaties with some Malay states, installing "residents" who advised the Sultans and soon became the effective rulers of their states.[26] These advisors held power in everything except to do with Malay religion and customs.[12]

Johore alone resisted, by modernizing and giving British and Chinese investors legal protection. By the turn of the 20th century, the states of Pahang, Selangor, Perak, and Negeri Sembilan, known together as the Federated Malay States, had British advisors.[12] In 1909 the Siamese kingdom was compelled to cede Kedah, Kelantan, Perlis and Terengganu, which already had British advisors, over to the British.[12] Sultan Abu Bakar of Johor and Queen Victoria were personal acquaintances, and recognised each other as equals. It was not until 1914 that Sultan Abu Bakar's successor, Sultan Ibrahim accepted a British adviser.[*citation needed*] The four previously Thai states and Johor were known as the Unfederated Malay States. The states under the most direct British control developed rapidly, becoming the largest suppliers in the world of first tin, then rubber.[12]

19th Century Borneo

During the late 19th century the British also gained control of the north coast of Borneo, where Dutch rule had never been established. Development on the Peninsula and Borneo were generally separate until the 19th century.[27] The eastern part of this region (now Sabah) was under the nominal control of the Sultan of Sulu, a vassal of the Spanish Philippines. The rest was the territory of the Sultanate of Brunei. In 1841, a British adventurer, James Brooke, helped the Sultan of Brunei suppress a revolt, and in return received the title of raja and the right to govern the Sarawak River District. In 1846 his title was recognised as hereditary, and the "White Rajahs" began ruling Sarawak as a recognised independent state. The Brookes expanded Sarawak at the expense of Brunei.[12]

In 1881 the British North Borneo Company was granted control of the territory of British North Borneo, appointing a governor and legislature. It was ruled from the office in London. Its status was similar to that of a British Protectorate, and like Sarawak it expanded at the expense of Brunei.[12] The Spanish Philippines never recognised this loss of the Sultan of Sulu's territory, laying the basis of the subsequent Filipino claim to Sabah. In 1888 what was left of Brunei was made a British protectorate, and in 1891 another Anglo-Dutch treaty formalised the border between British and Dutch Borneo.

By 1910 the pattern of British rule in the Malay lands was established. The Straits Settlements were a Crown Colony, ruled by a governor under the supervision of the Colonial Office in London. Their population was about half Chinese, but all residents, regardless of race, were British subjects. The first four states to accept British residents, Perak, Selangor, Negeri Sembilan and Pahang, were termed the Federated Malay States: while technically independent, they were placed under a Resident-General in 1895, making them British colonies in all but name. The Unfederated Malay States (Johore, Kedah, Kelantan, Perlis and Terengganu) had a slightly larger degree of independence, although they were unable to resist the wishes of their British Residents for long. Johore, as Britain's closest ally in Malay affairs, had the privilege of a written constitution, which gave the Sultan the right to appoint his own Cabinet, but he was generally careful to consult the British first.

Race relations

Unlike some colonial powers, the British always saw their empire as primarily an economic concern, and its colonies were expected to turn a profit for British shareholders. Malaya's obvious attractions were its tin and gold mines, but British planters soon began to experiment with tropical plantation crops – tapioca, gambier, pepper and coffee. But in 1877 the rubber plant was introduced from Brazil, and rubber soon became Malaya's staple export, stimulated by booming demand from European industry. Rubber was later joined by palm oil as an export earner. All these industries required a large and disciplined labour force, and the British did not regard the Malays as reliable workers. The solution was the importation of plantation workers from India, mainly Tamil-speakers from South India. The mines, mills and docks also attracted a flood of immigrant workers from southern China. Soon towns like Singapore, Penang and Ipoh were majority Chinese, as was Kuala Lumpur, founded as a tin-mining centre in 1857. By 1891, when Malaya's first census was taken, Perak and Selangor, the main tin-mining states, had Chinese majorities.

The Chinese mostly arrived poor; yet, their belief in industriousness and frugality, their emphasis in their children's education and their maintenance of Confucian family hierarchy, as well as their voluntary connection with tightly knit networks of mutual aid societies (run by "Hui-Guan" 會館, or non-profit organizations with nominal geographic affiliations from different parts of China) all contributed to their prosperity. In the 1890s Yap Ah Loy, who held the title of Kapitan China of Kuala Lumpur, was the richest man in Malaya, owning a chain of mines, plantations and shops. Malaya's banking and insurance industries were run by the Chinese from the start, and Chinese businesses, usually in partnership with London firms, soon had a stranglehold on the economy. Since the Malay Sultans tended to spend well beyond their means, they were soon indebted to Chinese bankers, and this gave the Chinese political as well as economic leverage. At first the Chinese immigrants were mostly men, and many intended to return home when they had made their fortunes. Many did go home, but many more stayed. At first they married Malay women, producing a community of Sino-Malayans or baba people, but soon they began importing Chinese brides, establishing permanent communities and building schools and temples.

The Indians were initially less successful, since unlike the Chinese they came mainly as indentured labourers to work in the rubber plantations, and had few of the economic opportunities that the Chinese had. They were also a less united community, since they were divided between Hindus and Muslims and alonlines aof language and caste. An Indian commercial and professional class emerged during the early 20th century, but the majority of Indians remained poor and uneducated in rural ghettos in the rubber-growing areas.

Traditional Malay society had great difficulty coping with both the loss of political sovereignty to the British and of economic power to the Chinese. By the early 20th century it seemed possible that the Malays would become a minority in their own country. The Sultans, who were seen as collaborators with both the British and the Chinese, lost some of their traditional prestige, particularly among the increasing number of Malays with a western education, but the mass of rural Malays continued to revere the Sultans and their prestige was thus an important prop for colonial rule. A small class of Malay nationalist intellectuals began to emerge during the early 20th century, and there was also a revival of Islam in response to the perceived threat of other imported religions, particularly Christianity. In fact few Malays converted to Christianity, although many Chinese did. The northern regions, which were less influenced by western ideas, became strongholds of Islamic conservatism, as they have remained.

The one consolation to Malay pride was that the British allowed them a virtual monopoly of positions in the police and local military units, as well as a majority of those administrative positions open to non-Europeans. While the Chinese mostly built and paid for their own schools and colleges, importing teachers from China, the colonial government fostered education for Malays, opening Malay College in 1905 and creating the Malay Administrative Service in 1910. (The college was dubbed "Bab ud-Darajat" – the Gateway to High Rank.) A Malay Teachers College followed in 1922, and a Malay Women's Training College in 1935. All this reflected the official British policy that Malaya belonged to the Malays, and that the other races were but temporary residents. This view was increasingly out of line with reality, and contained the seeds of much future trouble.

In the years before World War II, the British were concerned with finding the balance between a centralized state and maintaining the power of the Sultans in Malaya.[17] There were no moves to give Malaya a unitary government, and in fact in 1935 the position of Resident-General of the Federated States was abolished, and its powers decentralised to the individual states. With their usual tendency to racial stereotyping, the British regarded the Malays as amiable but unsophisticated and rather lazy, incapable of self-government, although making good soldiers under British officers. They regarded the Chinese as clever but dangerous – and indeed during the 1920s and '30s, reflecting events in China, the Chinese Nationalist Party (the Kuomintang) and the Communist Party of China built rival clandestine organisations in Malaya, leading to regular disturbances in the Chinese towns. The British saw no way that Malaya's disparate collection of states and races could become a nation, let alone an independent one.

War and Emergency

The outbreak of war in the Pacific in December 1941 found the British in Malaya completely unprepared. During the 1930s, anticipating the rising threat of Japanese naval power, they had built a great naval base at Singapore, but never anticipated an invasion of Malaya from the north. Because of the demands of the war in Europe, there was virtually no British air capacity in the Far East. The Japanese were thus able to attack from their bases in French Indo-China with impunity, and despite stubborn resistance from British, Australian and Indian forces, they overran Malaya in two months. Singapore, with no landward defences, no air cover and no water supply, was forced to surrender in February 1942, doing irreparable damage to British prestige. British North Borneo and Brunei were also occupied.



Tugu Negara, the Malaysian national monument is dedicated to those that fell during World War II and the Malayan Emergency

The Japanese had a racial policy just as the British did. They regarded the Malays as a colonial people liberated from British imperialist rule, and fostered a limited form of Malay nationalism, which gained them some degree of collaboration from the Malay civil service and intellectuals. (Most of the Sultans also collaborated with the Japanese, although they maintained later that they had done so

unwillingly.) The occupiers regarded the Chinese, however, as enemy aliens, and treated them with great harshness: during the so-called *sook ching* (purification through suffering), up to 80,000 Chinese in Malaya and Singapore were killed. Chinese businesses were expropriated and Chinese schools either closed or burned down. Not surprisingly the Chinese, led by the Malayan Communist Party (MCP), became the backbone of the Malayan Peoples' Anti-Japanese Army (MPAJA), which with British assistance became the most effective resistance force in the occupied Asian countries. But the Japanese also offended Malay nationalism by allowing their ally Thailand to re-annex the four northern states, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan and Terengganu that had been surrendered to British in 1909. The loss of Malaya's export markets soon produced mass unemployment which affected all races and made the Japanese increasingly unpopular.

During occupation, ethnic tensions were raised and nationalism grew.[28] The Malayans were thus on the whole glad to see the British back in 1945, but things could not remain as they were before the war, and a stronger desire for independence grew.[29] Britain was bankrupt and the new Labour government was keen to withdraw its forces from the East as soon as possible. Colonial self-rule and eventual independence were now British policy. The tide of colonial nationalism sweeping through Asia soon reached Malaya. But most Malays were more concerned with defending themselves against the Malayan Communist Party (MCP) which was mostly made up of Chinese, than with demanding independence from the British – indeed their immediate concern was that the British not leave and abandon the Malays to the armed Communists of the MPAJA, which was the largest armed force in the country.



Japanese troops moving through Kuala Lumpur during their advance through Malaya

In 1944 the British drew up plans plans for a Malayan Union, which would turn the Federated and Unfederated Malay States, plus Penang and Malacca (but not Singapore), into a single crown colony, with a view towards independence. The Bornean territories and Singapore were left out as it was thought this would make the union more difficult to achieve.[17] There was however strong opposition from the Malays, who opposed the weakening of the Malay rulers and the granting of citizenship to the ethnic Chinese and other minorities.[30] The British had decided on equality between races as they perceived the Chinese and Indians as more loyal to the British durin the war than the Malays.[17] The Sultans, who had initially supported it, backed down and placed themselves at the head of the resistance. In 1946 the United Malays National Organisation (UMNO) was founded by Malay nationalists led by Dato Onn bin Jaafar, the Chief Minister of Johore.[17] UMNO favoured independence for Malaya, but only if the new state was run exclusively by the Malays. Faced with implacable Malay opposition, the British dropped the plan for equal citizenship. The Malayan Union was thus established in 1946, and was dissolved in 1948 and replaced by the Federation of Malaya, which restored the autonomy of the rulers of the Malay states under British protection.

Meanwhile the Communists were moving towards open insurrection. The MPAJA had been disbanded in December 1945, and the MCP organised as a legal political party, but the MPAJA's arms were carefully stored for future use. The MCP policy was for immediate independence with full equality for all races. This meant it recruited very few Malays. The Party's strength was in the Chinese-dominated trade unions, particularly in Singapore, and in the Chinese schools, where the teachers, mostly born in China, saw the Communist Party of China as the leader of China's national revival. In March 1947, reflecting the international Communist movement's "turn to left" as the Cold War set in, the MCP leader Lai Tek was purged and replaced by the veteran MPAJA guerrilla leader Chin Peng, who turned the party increasingly to direct action. These rebels, under the leadership of the Malayan Communist Party, launched guerrilla operations designed to force the British out of Malaya. In July, following a string of assassinations of plantation managers, the colonial

government struck back, declaring a State of Emergency, banning the MCP and arresting hundreds of its militants. The Party retreated to the jungle and formed the Malayan Peoples' Liberation Army, with about 13,000 men under arms, all Chinese.

The Malayan Emergency as it was known, lasted from 1948 to 1960, and involved a long anti-insurgency campaign by Commonwealth troops in Malaya. The British strategy, which proved ultimately successful, was to isolate the MCP from its support base by a combination of economic and political concessions to the Chinese and the resettlement of Chinese squatters into "New Villages" in "white areas" free of MCP influence. The effective mobilisation of the Malays against the MCP was also an important part the British strategy. From 1949 the MCP campaign lost momentum and the number of recruits fell sharply. Although the MCP succeeded in assassinating the British High Commissioner, Sir Henry Gurney, in October 1951, this turn to "terrorist" tactics alienated many moderate Chinese from the Party. The arrival of Lt-Gen Sir Gerald Templer as British commander in 1952 was the beginning of the end of the Emergency. Templer invented the techniques of counter-insurgency warfare in Malaya and applied them ruthlessly. Although the insurgency was defeated Commonwealth troops remained with the backdrop of the Cold War.[31] Against this backdrop, independence for the Federation within the Commonwealth was granted on 31 August 1957,[32] with Tunku Abdul Rahman as the first prime minister.[16]

Towards Malaysia

Chinese reaction against the MCP was shown by the formation of the Malayan Chinese Association (MCA) in 1949 as a vehicle for moderate Chinese political opinion. Its leader, Tan Cheng Lock, favoured a policy of collaboration with UMNO to win Malayan independence on a policy of equal citizenship, but with sufficient concessions to Malay sensitivities to ease nationalist fears. Tan formed a close collaboration with Tunku (Prince) Abdul Rahman, the Chief Minister of Kedah and from 1951 successor to Datuk Onn as leader of UMNO. Since the British had announced in 1949 that Malaya would soon become independent whether the Malayans liked it or not, both leaders were determined to forge an agreement their communities could live with as a basis for a stable independent state. The UMNO-MCA Alliance (which was later joined by the Malayan Indian Congress (MIC)), won convincing victories in local and state elections in both Malay and Chinese areas between 1952 and 1955.



Dataran Merdeka (Independence Square) in Kuala Lumpur, where Malaysians celebrate Independence Day on 31 August each year

The introduction of elected local government was another important step in defeating the Communists. After Joseph Stalin's death in 1953, there was a split in the MCP leadership over the wisdom of continuing the armed struggle. Many MCP militants lost heart and went home, and by the time Templer left Malaya in 1954 the Emergency was over, although Chin Peng led a diehard group that lurked in the inaccessible country along the Thai border for many years. The Emergency left a lasting legacy of bitterness between Malays and Chinese.

During 1955 and 1956 UMNO, the MCA and the British hammered out a constitutional settlement for a principle of equal citizenship for all races. In exchange, the MCA agreed that Malaya's head of state would be drawn from the ranks of the Malay Sultans, that Malay would be the official language, and that Malay education and economic development would be promoted and subsidised. In effect this meant that Malaya would be run by the Malays, particularly since they continued to dominate the civil service, the army and the police, but that the Chinese and Indians would have proportionate representation in the Cabinet and the parliament, would run those states where they were the majority, and would have their economic position protected. The difficult issue of

who would control the education system was deferred until after independence. This came on August 31, 1957, when Tunku Abdul Rahman became the first Prime Minister of independent Malaya.

This left the unfinished business of the other British-ruled territories in the region. After the Japanese surrender the Brooke family and the British North Borneo Company gave up their control of Sarawak and Sabah respectively, and these became British Crown Colonies. They were much less economically developed than Malaya, and their local political leaderships were too weak to demand independence. Singapore, with its large Chinese majority, achieved autonomy in 1955, and in 1959 the young socialist leader Lee Kuan Yew became Prime Minister. The Sultan of Brunei remained as a British client in his oil-rich enclave. Between 1959 and 1962 the British government orchestrated complex negotiations between these local leaders and the Malayan government.

In 1961, Abdul Rahman mooted the idea of forming "Malaysia", which would consist of Brunei, Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak and Singapore, all of which had been British colonies. The reasoning behind this was that this would allow the central government to control and combat communist activities, especially in Singapore. It was also feared that if Singapore achieved independence, it would become a base for Chinese chauvinists to threaten Malayan sovereignty. To balance out the ethnic composition of the new nation, the other states, whose Malay and indigenous populations would cancel out the Singaporean Chinese majority, were also included.[33]

Although Lee Kuan Yew supported the proposal, his opponents from the Singaporean Socialist Front resisted, arguing that this was a ploy for the British to continue controlling the region. Most political parties in Sarawak were also against the merger, and in Sabah, where there were no political parties, community representatives also stated their opposition. Although the Sultan of Brunei supported the merger, the Parti Rakyat Brunei opposed it as well. At the Commonwealth Prime Ministers Conference in 1961, Abdul Rahman explained his proposal further to its opponents. In October, he obtained agreement from the British government to the plan, provided that feedback be obtained from the communities involved in the merger. The Cobbold Commission, named after its head, Lord Cobbold, conducted a study in the Borneo territories and approved a merger with Sabah and Sarawak; however, it was found that a substantial number of Bruneians opposed merger. A referendum was conducted in Singapore to gauge opinion, and 70% supported merger with substantial autonomy given to the state government.[34][35] The Sultanate of Brunei withdrew from the planned merger due to opposition from certain segments of its population as well as arguments over the payment of oil royalties and the status of the Sultan in the planned merger.[36][37] Additionally, the Bruneian Parti Rakyat Brunei staged an armed revolt, which, though it was put down, was viewed as potentially destabilising to the new nation.[38]

After reviewing the Cobbold Commission's findings, the British government appointed the Landsdowne Commission to draft a constitution for Malaysia. The eventual constitution was essentially the same as the 1957 constitution, albeit with some rewording. For instance, giving recognition to the special position of the natives of the Borneo States. Sabah, Sarawak and Singapore were also granted some autonomy unavailable to the states of Malaya. After negotiations in July 1963, it was agreed that Malaysia would come into being on 31 August 1963, consisting of Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak and Singapore. The date was to coincide with the independence day of Malaya and the British giving self-rule to Sarawak and Sabah. However, the Philippines and Indonesia strenuously objected to this development, with Indonesia claiming Malaysia represented a form of "neocolonialism" and the Philippines claiming Sabah as its territory. The opposition from the Indonesian government led by Sukarno and attempts by the Sarawak United People's Party delayed the formation of Malaysia.[39] Due to these factors, an 8-member United Nations team had to be formed to re-ascertain whether Sabah and Sarawak truly wanted to join Malaysia.[40][41] Malaysia formally came into being on 16 September 1963, consisting of Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak and Singapore. In 1963 the total population of Malaysia was about 10 million.

Challenges of independence

At the time of independence Malaya had great economic advantages. It was among the world's leading producers of three valuable commodities, rubber, tin and palm oil, and also a significant iron ore producer. These export industries gave the Malayan government a healthy surplus to invest in industrial development and infrastructure projects. Like other developing nations in the 1950s and '60s, Malaya (and later Malaysia) placed great stress on state planning, although UMNO was never a socialist party. The First and Second Malayan Plans (1956–60 and 1961-65 respectively) stimulated economic growth through state investment in industry and repairing infrastructure such as roads and ports, which had been damaged and neglected during the war and the Emergency. The government was keen to reduce Malaya's dependence on commodity exports, which put the country at the mercy of fluctuating prices. The government was also aware that demand for natural rubber was bound to fall as the production and use of synthetic rubber expanded. Since a third of the Malay workforce worked in the rubber industry it was important to develop alternative sources of employment. Competition for Malaya's rubber markets meant that the profitability of the rubber industry increasingly depended on keeping wages low, which perpetuated rural Malay poverty.

Foreign objection

Indonesian President Sukarno, backed by the powerful Communist Party of Indonesia (PKI), chose to regard Malaysia as a "neocolonialist" plot against his country, and backed a Communist insurgency in Sarawak, mainly involving elements of the local Chinese community. Indonesian irregular forces were infiltrated into Sarawak, where they were contained by Malaysian and Commonwealth of Nations forces.[17] This period of *Konfrontasi*, an economic, political, and military confrontation lasted until the downfall of Sukarno in 1966.[16] The Philippines objected to the formation of the federation, claiming North Borneo was part of Sulu, and thus the Philippines.[17] In 1966 the new president, Ferdinand Marcos, dropped the claim, although it has since been revived and is still a point of contention marring Philippine-Malaysian relations.[42][43]

Racial strife

The Depression of the 1930s, followed by the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, had the effect of ending Chinese emigration to Malaya. This stabilised the demographic situation and ended the prospect of the Malays becoming a minority in their own country. At the time of independence in 1957, the Malays were 55% of the population, the Chinese 35% and the Indians 10%.[*citation needed*] This balance was altered by the inclusion of the majority Chinese Singapore, upsetting many Malays.[12] The federation increased the Chinese proportion to close to 40%. Both UMNO and the MCA were nervous about the possible appeal of Lee's People's Action Party (then seen as a radical socialist party) to voters in Malaya, and tried to organise a party in Singapore to challenge Lee's position there. Lee in turn threatened to run PAP candidates in Malaya at the 1964 federal elections, despite an earlier agreement that he would not do so (see PAP-UMNO Relations). Racial tensions intensified as PAP created an opposition alliance aiming for equality between races.[17] This provoked Tunku Abdul Rahman to demand that Singapore withdraw from Malaysia, which it did in August 1965.[44]

The most vexed issues of independent Malaysia were education and the disparity of economic power among the ethnic communities. The Malays felt unhappy with the wealth of the Chinese community, even after the expulsion of Singapore. Malay political movements emerged based around this.[12] However, since there was no effective opposition party, these issues were contested mainly within the coalition government, which won all but one seat in the first post-independence Malayan Parliament. The two issues were related, since the Chinese advantage in education played a large part in maintaining their control of the economy, which the UMNO leaders were determined to end. The MCA leaders were torn between the need to defend their own community's

interests and the need to maintain good relations with UMNO. This produced a crisis in the MCA in 1959, in which a more assertive leadership under Lim Chong Eu defied UMNO over the education issue, only to be forced to back down when Tunku Abdul Rahman threatened to break up the coalition.

The Education Act of 1961 put UMNO's victory on the education issue into legislative form. Henceforward Malay and English would be the only teaching languages in secondary schools, and state primary schools would teach in Malay only. Although the Chinese and Indian communities could maintain their own Chinese and Tamil-language primary schools, all their students were required to learn Malay, and to study an agreed "Malayan curriculum." Most importantly, the entry exam to the University of Malaya (which moved from Singapore to Kuala Lumpur in 1963) would be conducted in Malay, even though most teaching at the university was in English until the 1970s. This had the effect of excluding many Chinese students. At the same time Malay schools were heavily subsidised, and Malays were given preferential treatment. This obvious defeat for the MCA greatly weakened its support in the Chinese community.

As in education, the UMNO government's unspoken agenda in the field of economic development was to shift economic power away from the Chinese and towards the Malays. The two Malayan Plans, and the First Malaysian Plan (1966–70), directed resources heavily into developments which would benefit the rural Malay community, such as village schools, rural roads, clinics and irrigation projects. Several agencies were set up to enable Malay smallholders to upgrade their production and increase their incomes. The Federal Land Development Authority (FELDA) helped many Malays buy farms or upgrade ones they already owned. The state also provided a range of incentives and low-interest loans to help Malays start businesses, and government tendering systematically favoured Malay companies, leading many Chinese-owned businesses to "Malayanise" their management. All this certainly tended to reduce to gap between Chinese and Malay standards of living, although some argued that this would have happened anyway as Malaysia's trade and general prosperity increased.

The crisis of 1969

Main article: May 13 Incident

The collaboration of the MCA and the MIC in these policies weakened their hold on the Chinese and Indian electorates. At the same time, the effects of the government's affirmative action policies of the 1950s and '60s had been to create a discontented class of educated but underemployed Malays. This was a dangerous combination, and led to the formation of a new party, the Malaysian People's Movement (Gerakan Rakyat Malaysia) in 1968. Gerakan was a deliberately non-communal party, bringing in Malay trade unionists and intellectuals as well as Chinese and Indian leaders.[*citation needed*] At the same time, an Islamist party, the Islamic Party of Malaysia (PAS) and a Chinese socialist party, the Democratic Action Party (DAP), gained increasing support, at the expense of UMNO and the MCA respectively.[12]

At the May 1969 federal elections, the UMNO-MCA-MIC Alliance polled only 48 percent of the vote, although it retained a majority in the legislature. The MCA lost most of the Chinese-majority seats to Gerakan or DAP candidates. The victorious opposition celebrated by holding a motorcade on the main streets of Kuala Lumpur with supporters holding up brooms as a signal of its intention to make sweeping changes. Fear of what the changes might mean for them (as much of the country's businesses were Chinese owned), a Malay backlash resulted, leading rapidly to riots and inter-communal violence in which about 6,000 Chinese homes and businesses were burned and at least 184 people were killed.[45][46] The government declared a state of emergency, and a National Operations Council, headed by the Deputy Prime Minister, Tun Abdul Razak, took power from the government of Tunku Abdul Rahman, who in September 1970 was forced to retire in favour of Abdul Razak. It consisted of 9 members, mostly Malay, and wielded full political and military power.[12]

Using the Emergency-era Internal Security Act (ISA), the new government suspended Parliament and political parties, imposed press censorship and placed severe restrictions on political activity. The ISA gave the government power to intern any person indefinitely without trial. These powers were widely used to silence the government's critics, and have never been repealed. The Constitution was changed to make illegal any criticism, even in Parliament, of the Malaysian monarchy, the special position of Malays in the country, or the status of Malay as the national language.

In 1971 Parliament reconvened, and a new government coalition, the National Front (Barisan Nasional), took office.[12] This included UMNO, the MCA, the MIC, the much weakened Gerakan, and regional parties in Sabah and Sarawak. The DAP was left outside as the only significant opposition party. The PAS also joined the Front but was expelled in 1977. Abdul Razak held office until his death in 1976. He was succeeded by Datuk Hussein Onn, the son of UMNO's founder Onn Jaafar, and then by Tun Dr Mahathir bin Mohamad, who had been Education Minister since 1981, and who held power for 22 years. During these years policies were put in place which led to the rapid transformation of Malaysia's economy and society, such as the controversial New Economic Policy, which was intended to increase proportionally the share of the economic "pie" of the bumiputras ("indigenous people", which includes the majority Malays, but not always the indigenous population) as compared to other ethnic groups—was launched by Prime Minister Tun Abdul Razak. Malaysia has since maintained a delicate ethno-political balance, with a system of government that has attempted to combine overall economic development with political and economic policies that promote equitable participation of all races.[47]

Modern Malaysia

See also: Human rights in Malaysia

In 1970 75 percent of Malaysians living below the poverty line were Malays, the majority of Malays were still rural workers, and Malays were still largely excluded from the modern economy. The government's response was the New Economic Policy of 1971, which was to be implemented through a series of four five-year plans from 1971 to 1990.[*citation needed*] The plan had two objectives: the elimination of poverty, particularly rural poverty, and the elimination of the identification between race and prosperity.[12] This latter policy was understood to mean a decisive shift in economic power from the Chinese to the Malays,[*citation needed*] who until then made up only 5% of the professional class.[12]



Kuala Lumpur, a blend of old and new.

Poverty was tackled through an agricultural policy which resettled 250,000 Malays on newly cleared farmland, more investment in rural infrastructure, and the creation of free trade zones in rural areas to create new manufacturing jobs. Little was done to improve the living standards of the low-paid workers in plantation agriculture, although this group steadily declined as a proportion of the workforce. By 1990 the poorest parts of Malaysia were rural Sabah and Sarawak, which lagged significantly behind the rest of the country. During the 1970s and '80s rural poverty did decline, particularly in the Malayan Peninsula, but critics of the government's policy contend that this was mainly due to the growth of overall national prosperity (due in large part to the discovery of important oil and gas reserves) and migration of rural people to the cities rather than to state intervention. These years saw rapid growth in Malaysian cities, particularly Kuala Lumpur, which became a magnet for immigration both from rural Malaya and from poorer neighbours such as Indonesia, Bangladesh, Thailand and the Philippines. Urban poverty became a problem for the first time, with shanty towns growing up around the cities.[*citation needed*]

The second arm of government policy, driven mainly by Mahathir first as Education Minister and then as Prime Minister, was the transfer of economic power to the Malays. Mahathir greatly expanded the number of secondary schools and universities throughout the country, and enforced the policy of teaching in Malay rather than English. This had the effect of creating a large new Malay professional class. It also created an unofficial barrier against Chinese access to higher education, since few Chinese are sufficiently fluent in Malay to study at Malay-language universities. Chinese families therefore sent their children to universities in Singapore, Australia, Britain or the United States – by 2000, for example, 60,000 Malaysians held degrees from Australian universities. This had the unintended consequence of exposing large numbers of Malaysians to life in Western countries, creating a new source of discontent. Mahathir also greatly expanded educational opportunities for Malay women – by 2000 half of all university students were women.



Petronas Twin Towers, Kuala Lumpur the tallest building in South-East Asia.

To find jobs for all these new Malay graduates, the government created several agencies for intervention in the economy. The most important of these were PERNAS (National Corporation Ltd.), PETRONAS (National Petroleum Ltd.), and HICOM (Heavy Industry Corporation of Malaysia), which not only directly employed many Malays but also invested in growing areas of the economy to create new technical and administrative jobs which were preferentially allocated to Malays. As a result, the share of Malay equity in the economy rose from 1.5 percent in 1969 to 20.3 percent in 1990, and the percentage of businesses of all kinds owned by Malays rose from 39 percent to 68 percent. This latter figure was deceptive because many businesses that appeared to be Malay-owned were still indirectly controlled by Chinese, but there is no doubt that the Malay share of the economy considerably increased. The Chinese remained disproportionately powerful in Malaysian economic life, but by 2000 the distinction between Chinese and Malay business was fading as many new corporations, particularly in growth sectors such as information technology, were owned and managed by people from both ethnic groups.

Malaysia's rapid economic progress since 1970, which was only temporarily disrupted by the Asian financial crisis of 1997, has not been matched by change in Malaysian politics. The repressive measures passed in 1970 remain in place. Malaysia has had regular elections since 1974, and although campaigning is reasonably free at election time, it is in effect a one-party state, with the UMNO-controlled National Front usually winning nearly all the seats, while the DAP wins some Chinese urban seats and the PAS some rural Malay ones. Since the DAP and the PAS have diametrically opposed policies, they have been unable to form an effective opposition coalition. There is almost no criticism of the government in the media and public protest remains severely restricted. The ISA continues to be used to silence dissidents, and the members of the UMNO youth movement are deployed to physically intimidate opponents.

Mahathir administration

The restoration of democracy after the 1969 crisis caused disputes in the UMNO, a struggle of power which increased after the death of Tun Abdul Razak. The ailing Datuk Hussein Bin Onn replaced him, but the fight for control shifted to appointing the deputy prime minister. Mahathir bin Mahamad was chosen, an advocate of bumiputra who also tried to benefit the other ethnic communities.[12]

Under the premiership of Mahathir bin Mohamad, Malaysia experienced economic growth from the 1980s, a 1985-86 property market depression,[48] and returned to growth through to the mid-1990s.[49] Mahathir increased privatization and introduced the New Development Policy (NDP), designed to increase economic

wealth for all Malaysians, rather than just Malays.[12] The period saw a shift from an agriculture-based economy to one based on manufacturing and industry in areas such as computers and consumer electronics. It was during this period, too, that the physical landscape of Malaysia changed with the emergence of numerous mega-projects. Notable amongst these projects were the construction of the Petronas Twin Towers (at the time the tallest building in the world, and, as of 2010, still the tallest twin building), KL International Airport (KLIA), the North-South Expressway, the Sepang International Circuit, the Multimedia Super Corridor (MSC), the Bakun hydroelectric dam and Putrajaya, the new federal administrative capital.



Mahathir bin Mohamad was the leading force in making Malaysia into a major industrial power.

Under Mahathir bin Mohamad's long Prime Ministership (1981–2003), Malaysia's political culture became increasingly centralized and authoritarian, due to Mahathir's belief that the multiethnic Malaysia could only remain stable through controlled democracy. In 1986-87, he faced leadership challenges among his own party. The Internal Security Act was invoked in October 1987 arresting 106 people, including opposition leaders. The head of the judiciary and 5 members of the supreme court who had questioned his use of the ISA were also arrested, and a clampdown on Malaysia's press occurred.[12]

This culminated in the dismissal and imprisonment on unsubstantiated charges of the Deputy Prime Minister, Anwar Ibrahim, in 1997 after an internal dispute within the government. The complicity of the judiciary in this piece of persecution was seen as a particularly clear sign of the decline of Malaysian democracy. The Anwar affair led to the formation of a new party, the People's Justice Party, or Keadilan, led by Anwar's wife, Dr. Wan Azizah Wan Ismail. At the 1999 elections Keadilan formed a coalition with the DAP and the PAS known as the Alternative Front (Barisan Alternatif). The result of this was that the PAS won a number of Malay seats from UMNO, but many Chinese voters disapproved of this unnatural alliance with the Islamist PAS, causing the DAP to lose many of its seats to the MCA, including that of its veteran leader, Lim Kit Siang. Wan Azizah won her husband's former constituency in Penang but otherwise Keadilan made little impact.

In the late 1990s, Malaysia was shaken by the Asian financial crisis, which damaged Malaysia's assembly line based economy. Mahathir combated it initially with IMF approved policies. However, the devaluation of the Ringgit and the deepening recession caused him to create his own programme, based on protecting Malaysia from foreign investors and reinvigorating the economy through construction projects and the lowering of interest rates. The policies caused Malaysia's economy to rebound by 2002, but brought disagreement between Mahathir and his deputy, Anwar Ibrahim, who backed the IMF policies.[12] This led to the sacking of the Anwar, causing political unrest.[50] Anwar was arrested and banned from politics on what are considered trumped up charges.[12] In 2003 Dr Mahathir, Malaysia's longest serving prime minister, voluntarily retired in favour of his new deputy, Abdullah Ahmad Badawi.[12] In November 2007 two anti-government rallies occurred, precipitated by allegations of corruption and discrepancies in the election system that heavily favoured the ruling political party, National Front, which has been in power since Malaya achieved independence.[51]

Badawi administration

Dato Seri Abdullah Ahmad Badawi freed Anwar,[12] which was seen as a portent of a mild liberalisation. [*citation needed*] At the 2004 election, the National Front led by Abdullah had a massive victory,[12] virtually wiping out the PAS and Keadilan, although the DAP recovered the seats it had lost in 1999. This victory was seen as the result mainly of Abdullah's personal popularity and the strong recovery of Malaysia's economy, which has lifted the living standards of most Malaysians to almost first world standards, coupled with an ineffective opposition. The government's objective is for Malaysia to become a fully developed country by 2020

as expressed in *Wawasan 2020*. It leaves unanswered, however, the question of when and how Malaysia will acquire a first world political system (a multi-party democracy, a free press, an independent judiciary and the restoration of civil and political liberties) to go with its new economic maturity.

In November 2007, Malaysia was rocked by two anti-government rallies. The 2007 Bersih Rally which was attended by 40,000 people was held in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, on November 10 to campaign for electoral reform. It was precipitated by allegations of corruption and discrepancies in the Malaysian election system that heavily favor the ruling political party, Barisan Nasional, which has been in power since Malaysia achieved its independence in 1957.[52] Another rally was held on 25 November in the Malaysian capital led by HINDRAF. The rally organiser, the Hindu Rights Action Force, had called the protest over alleged discriminatory policies favouring ethnic Malays. The crowd was estimated to be between 5,000 and 30,000.[53] In both cases the government and police tried to prevent the gatherings from taking place. In 16 October 2008, HINDRAF was banned when the government labelled the organisation as "a threat to national security".[54]

See also

- History of Southeast Asia
- List of Prime Ministers of Malaysia

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External links

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Notes

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Yang di-Pertuan Agong

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Yang di-Pertuan Agong** is the head of state of Malaysia. The office was established in 1957 when the Federation of Malaya (now Malaysia) gained independence.

A literal English translation of the title is "He who is made Lord". However, common alternatives are "King", "Supreme Ruler", "Paramount Ruler", or "Supreme Head of State". Malaysia is a constitutional monarchy with an elected monarch as head of state. The *Yang di-Pertuan Agong* is one of the few elected monarchs in the world.

Since 1993, the full title in Malay has been, *Seri Paduka Baginda Yang di-Pertuan Agong* (His Conqueror Majesty The Supreme Lord of the Federation). Prior to that, the honorific *Ke Bawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia* (The Dust Under The Feet Of His Majesty) was also used. The consort of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong is called the *Raja Permaisuri Agong* (Queen Lady Consort). The couple are addressed in English as "His Majesty" and "Her Majesty".

Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia

MONARCHY
FEDERAL



Arms of His Majesty the Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia

Incumbent:
Abdul Halim
the Sultan of Kedah

Style:	His Majesty
First monarch:	Tuanku Abdul Rahman of Negeri Sembilan
Formation:	31 August 1957

In Malaysia's constitutional monarchy, the role of the *Yang di-Pertuan Agong* is largely ceremonial. The constitution specifies that the executive power of the Federal government is vested in the Yang di-Pertuan Agong and is exercised by him on the advice of the federal Council of Ministers. The latter is headed by the Prime Minister, appointed by the Yang di-Pertuan Agong from among the elected members of Parliament.

The 14th and current Yang di-Pertuan Agong is Sultan Abdul Halim of Kedah. His reign began on 13 December 2011 after his election by the Conference of Rulers. He previously served as the fifth Yang di-Pertuan Agong from 1970-1975. He is the first ruler to hold the position twice, as well as the oldest elected to the office at 83 years old.[1] The date of installation of the new Yang di-Pertuan Agong has been set for 11th April 2012, at Istana Negara.[2]

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History

In August 1957, having rejected the suggested title of *Yang di-Pertuan Besar* in favour of *Yang di-Pertuan Agong*, the Council of Rulers met to elect the first occupant of the throne. By seniority, the 84-year old major general Sultan Ibrahim, Sultan of Johor since 1895, was first in line, but he declined due to old age. The next in line, Sultan Abu Bakar, Sultan of Pahang since 1932, was rejected five times by his fellow electors. Tuanku Abdul Rahman of Negeri Sembilan, having succeeded to his state throne in 1933, was elected by eight votes to one.



Royal Headgear (*Solek Dendam Tak Sudah*) of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong, in the style of a black *songkat* headgear embroidered with gold thread.

The first Council of Rulers were:

1. Sultan Abu Bakar Riayatuddin Al-Muadzam Shah ibni Almarhum Sultan Abdullah Al-Mutassim Billah Shah (Sultan of Pahang; 1932–1974);
2. Tuanku Abdul Rahman ibni Almarhum Tuanku Muhammad (Yang di-Pertuan Besar of Negeri Sembilan; 1933–1960);
3. Sultan Hisamuddin Alam Shah Al-Haj ibni Almarhum Sultan Alaeddin Sulaiman Shah (Sultan of Selangor; 1938–1942, 1945–1960);
4. Sultan Badlishah ibni Almarhum Sultan Abdul Hamid Halim Shah (Sultan of Kedah; 1943–1958);
5. Sultan Ibrahim Petra ibni Almarhum Sultan Muhammad IV (Al-Sultan of Kelantan; 1944–1960);
6. Tuanku Syed Putra ibni Almarhum Syed Hassan Jamalullail (Raja of Perlis; 1945–2000);
7. Sultan Ismail Nasiruddin Shah ibni Almarhum Sultan Zainal Abidin III (Sultan of Terengganu; 1945–1979);
8. Sultan Yusuf Izzudin Shah ibni Almarhum Sultan Abdul Jalil Nasruddin shah (Sultan of Perak; 1948–1963); and
9. Tunku Ismail ibni Sultan Ibrahim (Crown Prince or Tunku Mahkota of Johor; later Sultan 1959–1981).

List of Yang di-Pertuan Agong

The following Rulers have served as *Yang di-Pertuan Agong*:

No.	Name	State	Reign	Age on Reign	Birth	Death
1	Tuanku Abdul Rahman	Negeri Sembilan	31 August 1957 – 1 April 1960 (2 years)	62 - 65	24 August 1895	1 April 1960
2	Sultan Hisamuddin Alam Shah	Selangor	14 April 1960 – 1 September 1960 (4 months)	62	13 May 1898	1 September 1960
3	Tuanku Syed Putra	Perlis	21 September 1960 – 20 September 1965 (5 years)	40 - 45	25 November 1920	16 April 2000
4	Sultan Ismail Nasiruddin Shah	Terengganu	21 September 1965 – 20 September 1970 (5 years)	58 - 63	24 January 1907	20 September 1979
5	Tuanku Abdul Halim	Kedah	21 September 1970 – 20 September 1975 (5 years)	43 - 48	28 November 1927	
6	Sultan Yahya Petra	Kelantan	21 September 1975 – 29 March 1979 (4 years)	58 - 62	10 December 1917	29 March 1979
7	Sultan Ahmad Shah Al-Mustain Billah	Pahang	29 March 1979 – 25 April 1984 (5 years)	49 - 54	24 October 1930	
8	Sultan Iskandar	Johor	26 April 1984 – 25 April 1989 (5 years)	52 - 57	8 April 1932	22 January 2010
9	Sultan Azlan Muhibbuddin Shah	Perak	26 April 1989 – 25 April 1994 (5 years)	61 - 66	19 April 1928	
10	Tuanku Jaafar	Negeri Sembilan	26 April 1994 – 25 April 1999 (5 years)	72 - 77	19 July 1922	27 December 2008
11	Sultan Salahuddin Abdul Aziz	Selangor	26 April 1999 – 21 November 2001 (2 years)	73 - 75	8 March 1926	21 November 2001
12	Tuanku Syed Sirajuddin	Perlis	13 December 2001 – 12 December 2006 (5 years)	58 - 63	17 May 1943	
13	Tuanku Mizan Zainal Abidin	Terengganu	13 December 2006 – 12 December 2011 (5 years)	44 - 49	22 January 1962	
14	Tuanku Abdul Halim[1]	Kedah	13 December 2011 – present	84 -	28 November 1927	

1.^ Tuanku Abdul Halim is the first Yang di-Pertuan Agong to reign twice.[3] He is also the oldest to ascend the throne.

Election

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong is formally elected to a five-year term by and from among the nine Rulers of the Malay states (nine of the thirteen states of Malaysia that have hereditary royal rulers), who form the Conference of Rulers (*Majlis Raja-raja*). The Yang di-Pertuan Agong may not be re-elected after his term has expired.



The compound of the Istana Negara at Jalan Istana, official residence of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong from 1957 to 2011. It is replaced by the new Istana Negara at Jalan Duta in 2011.

In the event of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong's death in office, the Conference of Rulers elects a new Yang di-Pertuan Agong as if the previous term had expired. The new Yang di-Pertuan Agong is elected for a full five-year term. After his term expires, the Conference holds a new election, in which the incumbent would not be re-elected.

The position *de facto* rotates among the nine Rulers. The selection of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong initially followed an order based on the seniority (calculated by length of reign) of each Ruler in 1957 at the Federation of Malaya's independence from the United Kingdom. The Conference of Rulers, which has the power to disqualify a candidate, has sometimes varied the original seniority order. Minors are automatically disqualified from office. After each of the nine Rulers of the states had served as the Yang di-Pertuan Agong, the order of seniority was based on the order of the states whose rulers have been elected the Yang di-Pertuan Agong.

The Conference of Rulers has met regularly since 1895. The membership of the council includes the four governors (*Yang di-Pertua Negeri*), but only royal rulers are allowed to vote and stand for election as *Yang di-Pertuan Agong*.

Qualifications

- Only a royal ruler may be elected.
- Only the royal rulers may vote.
- Rulers are elected in turn.

The Constitution provides that a Ruler is not eligible for election as Yang di-Pertuan Agong if:

- The Ruler is a minor.
- The Ruler has notified the Keeper of the Rulers' Seal that he does not wish to be elected.
- The Conference of Rulers by a secret ballot resolves that the Ruler is unsuitable by reason of infirmity of mind or body, or for any other cause, to exercise the functions of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong. The resolution requires at least five members of the Conference to vote in favour of it.

Election proceedings

The election is carried out by a secret ballot. The ballot papers used are not numbered, but marked with the same pen and ink, and are inserted into a ballot box. Only the Rulers participate in the election.

A Ruler may appoint another Ruler as his proxy to vote on his behalf if he is unable to attend the Election Meeting.

During the election process, the Keeper of the Rulers' Seal distributes the ballot with only one candidate (the most senior Ruler). Each Ruler is requested to indicate whether the most senior Ruler is suitable or not to be elected as Yang di-Pertuan Agong.

The most junior Ruler, who is not listed as nominee for the office of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong, or the Yang di-Pertuan Agong is appointed to count the ballot papers together with the Keeper of the Rulers' Seal.

The nominee must have obtained a majority of five votes before the Ruler presiding over the Election Meeting offers him the office of Yang di-Pertuan Agong. If the successful nominee declines the offer or the nominated Ruler fails to secure the required majority votes, the voting process is repeated with the nomination of the second most senior Ruler in the Seniority List of Rulers.

The process is completed only after the Ruler has accepted the offer of the office of Yang di-Pertuan Agong. The Conference declares the Ruler as the Yang di-Pertuan Agong to hold office for a term of five years. The ballot papers are destroyed in the presence of the Rulers as soon as the result of the election is announced.

On taking office as Yang di-Pertuan Agong, he appoints a regent for the duration of his five-year term for the state which he rules. Usually, but not always, the Regent is a close relative.

See also: Installation of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong for details of the installation ceremony



Letter of Appointment of His Majesty, the XIII Yang di-Pertuan Agong. Courtesy of the office of the Keeper of the Rulers' Seal, Conference of the Rulers of Malaysia.



Oath of Office of His Majesty, the XIII Yang di-Pertuan Agong. Courtesy of the office of the Keeper of the Rulers' Seal, Conference of the Rulers of Malaysia.

Order of seniority of states

After the first cycle of nine *Yang di-Pertuan Agong* (1957–1994), the order among the eligible, all peninsular, state rulers has followed the order established by that cycle, namely:

1. the *Yang di-Pertuan Besar* (or Yamtuan Besar) of Negeri Sembilan (itself an elective monarchy)
2. the Sultan of Selangor
3. the Raja of Perlis
4. the Sultan of Terengganu
5. the Sultan of Kedah
6. the Sultan of Kelantan
7. the Sultan of Pahang
8. the Sultan of Johor
9. the Sultan of Perak

Four of the states of Malaysia have no hereditary royal rulers. These are Penang and Malacca in Peninsular Malaysia, and Sabah and Sarawak on the island of Borneo. These four states, along with Malaysia's three federal territories, never supply the Yang di-Pertuan Agong.

Timbalan Yang di-Pertuan Agong

A Timbalan Yang di-Pertuan Agong (Deputy Yang di-Pertuan Agong) is elected by the same process immediately after the Yang di-Pertuan Agong. The office is usually (but not always) held by the ruler next in line after the Yang di-Pertuan Agong. The Timbalan Yang di-Pertuan Agong exercises the functions of the head of state during the Yang di-Pertuan Agong's absence, or inability to exercise functions owing to illness or infirmity.

The Timbalan Yang di-Pertuan Agong does not automatically advance to become the Yang di-Pertuan Agong when a vacancy occurs in the office. The Timbalan Yang di-Pertuan Agong acts as the head of state before the elections of the new Yang di-Pertuan Agong and Timbalan Yang di-Pertuan Agong.

Roles

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong's role is that of a constitutional monarch. The Federal Constitution and Parliamentary Acts made in accordance with it define the extent of his powers as the Federal Head of State. The executive power of the federal government is vested in him.

The monarch's powers are basically divided into two broad categories:

- the powers that he exercises on the advice of the Prime Minister, a Minister, the Cabinet, the Conference of Rulers, or some other officer or institution; and
- the powers that he exercises at his discretion (without the consent of any other authority).

The discretionary powers of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong pertain chiefly to appointing the Prime Minister, withholding consent to dissolve Parliament, and calling meetings with the Conference of Rulers "concerned solely with the privileges, position, honours and dignities of Their Royal Highnesses." Under the Westminster System, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong is expected to appoint a Prime Minister who will command the confidence of a majority of the elected lower house of Parliament, the *Dewan Rakyat*. Should the Prime Minister be or become unacceptable, he may be forced out by a vote of no confidence, which would require the Yang di-Pertuan Agong to dissolve Parliament on advice of the Prime Minister, or refuse to dissolve Parliament and appoint someone else as Prime Minister. Conventionally, the Prime Minister is the head of the party with a majority in Parliament. Since independence in 1957, this has been the *Barisan Nasional* (National Front, formerly known as the Alliance).

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong renews the appointment of a Prime Minister after every general election until the minister decides to step down. Whenever the Prime Minister chooses to dissolve Parliament, he calls for a general election. The Yang di-Pertuan Agong may choose to refuse a Prime Minister's request to dissolve Parliament, as one of his discretionary powers.

Residences

The official residence of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong is *Istana Negara* (the National Palace) located in Jalan Duta in the federal capital Kuala Lumpur. It was completed in 2011. The old Istana Negara will be turned into a royal museum. Other residences include the royal retreat, *Istana Melawati* (Melawati Palace) in the federal administrative capital Putrajaya. It is also the venue of meetings of the Conference of Rulers (Malay: *Majlis Raja-raja*), which elects the Yang di-Pertuan Agong.

Appointments

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong appoints numerous high-ranking office holders in the Federation under the terms of the Constitution and various Acts passed by Parliament. The constitution established procedures for such appointments.

The Council of Ministers (Cabinet)

- Prime Minister as the Chairman of the Cabinet, at his discretion from among the elected members of the House of Representatives who belong to the majority party or coalition.
- Deputy Prime Minister, Ministers and Deputy Ministers, on the advice of the Prime Minister.
- Chief Secretary to the Government as the Secretary of the Cabinet, on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Commissions and committees

- The Election Commission, on the advice of the Conference of Rulers.
- The Judicial and Legal Service Commission, after consultation with the Chief Justice
- The Malaysian Public Service Commission at his discretion, after considering the advice of the Prime Minister and after consultation with the Conference of Rulers.

Judges

- The Chief Justice of Malaysia, on the advice of the Prime Minister and the Conference of Rulers.
- The Chief Judge of Malaya, on the advice of the Prime Minister and the Conference of Rulers.
- The Chief Judge of Sabah and Sarawak, on the advice of the Prime Minister and the Conference of Rulers.

Senators

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong appoints 44 members of the Dewan Negara, the Malaysian Senate.

State governors

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong appoints the *Yang di-Pertua Negeri* (Governors), of the states of Penang, Malacca, Sabah and Sarawak, at his discretion, after considering the advice of the state's Chief Minister.

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong also appoints the Mayor and City Council of Kuala Lumpur, which is a Federal Territory.

Head of Islam

In addition, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong is the Head of Islam in the four states ruled by appointed Governors: the three Federal Territories, as well as in his own state. In this role, he is advised by the State Islamic Affairs Council in each of the States.

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong appoints the Chairman and members of each council. He also appoints the State Mufti in each of these states. There is a single Islamic Affairs Council with jurisdiction for the three Federal Territories. This council is also appointed by the Yang di-Pertuan Agong.

Duties as Commander-in-Chief

In accordance with Article 41 of the Federal Constitution, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong is Commander-in-Chief of the Federation's Armed Forces. As such, he is the highest-ranking officer in the military chain of command.

As the Supreme Commander of the Malaysian Armed Forces, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong appoints the Chief of the Armed Forces Staff, on the advice of the Armed Forces Council. He also appoints the service heads of each of the three branches of the military forces.

King's Birthday

The first Saturday of June yearly is mandated by the Malaysian Constitution as the Yang di-Pertuan Agong's official birthday.

Trooping the Colour

Trooping the Colour in Malaysia, althrough inherted from the British, has tranformed into a more grander and more Malaysian celebration on the first Saturday of June annually live on Kuala Lumpur's Independence Square, which is both open to invited guests and the general public. As the Supreme Commander of the Malaysian Armed Forces, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong takes the salute on this day together with the commanders of the three services of the Malaysian Armed Forces, the Joint Forces Command, Malaysia and the members of the Malaysian Armed Forces Council, of which he is the chairman.

Here are the features that make it truly Malaysian:

- The Malaysian Royal Armoured Corps's Mounted Ceremonial Squadron plus members of the Royal Malaysian Police provide the Sovereign's Escort for the ceremony. The MCS's fanfare trumpeters sound a fanfare upon the Sovereign's arrival in the Merdeka Square Saluting Base while the MCS itself also has a motorized mounted escort troop and a lancers guard troop ready to accompany them on the way.
- Instead of being just purely a infantry activity the entire Malaysian Armed Forces go out in full participation in this parade, as seen in the 4 Guard Companies and the National Defence University Band or the Armed Forces Central Band participating in the ceremonial march.
- An open top Land Rover is used in the inspection segment of the parade.
- The Saluting Base in Independence Square is more longer in construction in order for more invited guests to attend the ceremony and take the salute.
- All the commands and salutes are said in Malay, like *Hormat DiRaja* (Royal Salute), *Hormat Perdana* (Premier's Salute) and *Hormat Sedia* (General Salute).
- The roles of Field Officer, Brigade Majors (the parade has two instead of 1, which is another unique feature), Adjutant and Ensigns are occupied by select officers of the Armed Forces, either Army, Navy or Air Force officers, with Armed Forces NCOs doing the jobs of Regimental Sergeants Major and Colour Sergeants. However the Deputy Brigade Major (coming from the Malaysian Army) is also the concurrent commander of the 1st parade unit, that of the Joint Escort for/to the Colours, which has 5 Sergeants Major with the rank of Warrant Officer 2 or Warrant Officer 1 while the three other units have 3 officers and 2 Warrant Officers each
- All Warrant Officers in this parade, like their British counterparts, carry pace sticks but the WOs of No.1 Guard Company (Composite) throw them to the Orderlies during the Trooping segment
- State Flypast by 5 military helicopters of the Flag of Malaysia, Flag of the Malaysian Armed Forces, and Flags of the Malaysian Army, Royal Malaysian Navy and Royal Malaysian Air Force during the performance of Negaraku, the National Anthem
- 21-gun salutes are performed during the National Anthem
- Negaraku in its abbreviated form is also performed during the colours obtainment segment by the Joint Escort for the Colors, which becomes the Escort to the Colours after the Colours Party join the Escort
- In the Islamic traditions of the Armed Forces, prayers are done after the marchpast ends.

All three branches of the Armed Forces - the Malaysian Army (represented by the Royal Malay Regiment or other units), the Royal Malaysian Navy, and the Royal Malaysian Air Force - participate in the Trooping, in their No. 1 uniforms. The band in attendance is either the Central Band of the Armed Forces or the Band of the National Defence University.

The Colours Party and the Escort for(to) the Colours also reflect the three participant Armed Forces branches.

The Colours Party is composed of Ensigns, Colour Sergeants and assistant soldiers making up three Colours Parties from the Army, and there is also a single Colour Party each from the Navy and the Air Force. The Escort for(to) the Colours is a composite company, comprising an Army platoon and a squad each from the Navy and Air Force ready to receive their respective colours during the ceremony. The Parade Field Officer, Brigade Major and Adjutant are also from all the Armed Forces branches, and so too are the Regimental Sergeants-Major and Colour Sergeants.

RTM broadcasts this unique ceremony live, with the telecast starting at 7:30 in the morning with a nationwide simulcast.

====Details of the Trooping====* Hand over of command to the FO

- Parade stands at ease in preparation
- Salutes
  - Commander's Salute
  - General Salute
  - Ministerial Salute
  - Prime Minister's Salute
- Arrival of the Sovereigns and first Royal Salute with 21-gun salute by the Royal Artillery Regiment, Malaysian Army and first State Flypast by helicopters of the Royal Malaysian Air Force carrying the Flag of Malaysia, the Armed Forces Flag and the flags of the Army, Navy and Air Force
- Parade Inspection

  Menjunjung Duli is played during the inspection by the Massed Bands.

- Trooping and Marchpast of the Massed Armed Forces Bands, in both slow and quick time
  - During the quick march, a lone drummer from the Massed Bands away and goes into the No.1 Guard, and when the music stops he beats the Drummer's Call
- Trooping Proper
  - Joint Escort for the Colours prepares for march after the Drummer's Call ends and when the drummer marches back to the Massed Bands. The Subaltern then takes change and all the SMs' pace sticks are removed using a single throw (another unique feature of the ceremony) and are then given to the orderlies so that they can draw and use their swords
  - Joint Escort marches in quick time to the Joint Colours Party
  - Handover of the Royal Colours to the RSMs
  - Slow March of the Colours Party and the RSMs happens and then the Ensigns, after saluting and returning their swords, receive their Royal Colours from the RSMs
  - Second performance of the National Anthem (in abbreviated form)
  - Joint Escort becomes the Joint Escort to the Colours, and the Colours Party join the company, thus merging them with the Joint Escort now that the Colours are in their full possession.
  - The Joint Escort begins its slow march for the Trooping, marching towards No.4 Guard
  - The FO commands the parade to present arms when the Joint Escort begins its trooping
  - Trooping of the Joint Escort in slow time, accompanied by the Massed Armed Forces Bands
  - After the Colours have been trooped in slow time, the Joint Escort halts in place, turns about, and then presents arms. After this, the parade is told to shoulder arms by the FO, signalling the end of the Trooping proper
- Marchpast
  - The FO tells the parade officers, the Colours and WOs to take post
  - The parade executes a right form after which, to the tune of the military band, it does a about turn to the right while forming divisions
  - The FO, with the parade now in position, commands the slow march.

Yang di-Pertuan Agong Scholarship

In November 2006, the 10th Yang di-Pertuan Agong awarded, for the first time, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong Scholarship to ten outstanding students to pursue postgraduate studies at high-ranking world universities. The award of scholarships was held at the Istana Negara in conjunction with the Independence Day celebrations and Council of Rulers Conference.[4]

Immunity

In 1993, an amendment to the Malaysian constitution removed the legal immunity of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong and the rulers in their personal capacity. A Special Court (*Makhamah Khas Raja-raja*) is established where civil and criminal proceedings can be made against a ruler with the approval of the Attorney General. The right to sue a ruler is limited to Malaysian citizens following a precedent. The Special Court also have jurisdiction where a ruler initiates legal actions against any party.

When a ruler is charged with an offence in the Special Court, he is required to stop exercising the functions of a ruler. In the event of a ruler being sentenced to imprisonment, he will cease to be a ruler unless a free pardon is granted. [5]

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong or any ruler cannot pardon himself or his immediate family. In such case, they may request clemency from the Conference of Rulers.

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong cannot be sued in court for his actions while carrying out his official duties. Any claims can be made against the federal government.

Royal Standards

The Royal Standard of the Yang di-Pertuan Agong is royal yellow with the Coat of arms of Malaysia in the center, surrounded by a rice paddy wreath. The same goes for the Royal Standards of the Raja Permaisuri Agong and the Timbalan Yang di-Pertuan Agong, but the designs are different. The Queen's Standard is green in color, with the coat of arms at the center surrounded by the paddy wreath. The Deputy Yang di-Pertuan Agong's standard is bicolored, yellow at the top and light blue at the bottom, with the coat of arms at the center (without the paddy) and below that is the office bearer's title.

Royal Style

Formal address to the Yang di-Pertuan Agong is taken seriously in Malaysia. There are two ways of addressing the Yang di-Pertuan Agong:

- **Malay** : Tuanku
- **English** : Your Majesty

Monarchical styles of **The Yang di-Pertuan Agong**	
Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Tuanku*

See also

- Royal Regalia of Malaysia
- Yang di-Pertuan Negara
- Malay titles

- Elective monarchy
- Raja Permaisuri Agong

Footnotes

References

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5. ^ "Test case on right to sue Sultans" (http://thestar.com.my/news/story.asp?file=/2008/8/20/focus/22122956) (2008-08-20), The Star (Malaysia), accessed 29 November 2011

Further reading

- Visu Sinnadurai, "His Majesty Sultan Azlan Shah: The Yang di-Pertuan Agong IX Malaysia", *The Supreme Court Journal*, Kuala Lumpur, ISSN 0128-066X. (Special issue to commemorate the installation of His Majesty Sultan Azlan Shah as the Yang di-Pertuan Agong IX Malaysia, with a lengthy description of the functions of the office)

External links

- Malaysian Parliament's Yang diPertuan Agong (http://www.parlimen.gov.my/pengenalan-agong.htm) page.
- Malaysia National Library's Yang di-Pertuan Agong (http://www.malaysianmonarchy.org.my/portal_bi/home.htm) page.
- WorldStatesmen (http://www.worldstatesmen.org/Malaysia.htm)

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Yang_di-Pertuan_Agong&oldid=479937929"
Categories: Malaysian monarchy | Heads of state | Monarchs of Malaysia | Royal titles | Malaysia-related lists

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Abdul Halim of Kedah

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Tuanku Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah ibni Sultan Badlishah, GCB KStJ (born 28 November 1927) is the 14th and current Yang di-Pertuan Agong (head of state) of Malaysia, as well as the 27th and current Sultan of Kedah. He previously served as the fifth Yang di-Pertuan Agong from 1970 to 1975. He is the first person to hold the position twice, as well as the oldest elected to the office.

Abdul Halim	
Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia	
Reign	13 December 2011 – present
Predecessor	Mizan Zainal Abidin
Prime Ministers	***See list***
Reign	21 September 1970 – 20 September 1975
Predecessor	Ismail Nasiruddin
Successor	Yahya Petra
Prime Ministers	***See list***
Sultan of Kedah	
Reign	15 July 1958 – present
Predecessor	Badlishah
Heir presumptive	Abdul Malik
Chief Ministers	***See list***
Spouse	Bahiyah (1956–2003) Haminah (1975–present)
Full name	
Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah	
Father	Badlishah
Mother	Sofia binti Mahmud
Born	28 November 1927 Alor Setar, Kedah (now Malaysia)
Religion	Sunni Islam

Contents

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Biography

Early career

Born at Istana Anak Bukit near Alor Star as Tunku Abdul Halim, he was the second, but eldest surviving son, of Sultan Badlishah (born 1894; reigned 1943–1958), who later became the 27th Sultan of Kedah. His mother was Tunku Sofiah binti Tunku Mahmud (born 1910), who died in an automobile accident on 28 February 1935. Tunku Abdul Halim's maternal grandfather, Tunku Mahmud, was once *Raja Muda* or heir presumptive to the throne of Kedah.[1]

He was educated at Alor Merah and Titi Gajah Malay schools and Sultan Abdul Hamid College in Alor Star between 1946 and 1948. He went on to Wadham College, Oxford and obtained a Diploma in Social Science and Public Administration. He subsequently joined the Kedah Administrative Service, serving in the Alor Star district office and later, the state treasury.[2]

On 6 August 1949 he was appointed *Raja Muda* or heir apparent and succeeded as twenty-eighth Sultan of

Kedah on his father's death on 15 July 1958.[3] He was installed at the Balai Besar in Alor Star on 20 February 1959.[4]

First Election as Deputy King

Tuanku Abdul Halim (as he became), served as Deputy Yang di-Pertuan Agong between 21 September 1965 and 20 September 1970.

Election as King

Tuanku Abdul Halim was elected as the fifth Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia and served his term in office from 21 September 1970 to 20 September 1975.

He is the third youngest monarch to ascend the throne of Yang di-Pertuan Agong after Tuanku Syed Putra of Perlis and Tuanku Mizan Zainal Abidin of Terengganu.

During his kingship, Tuanku Abdul Halim presided over the first transfer of power of the civilian government when his uncle, Prime Minister Tunku Abdul Rahman resigned in favour of his deputy Tun Abdul Razak. Tunku Abdul Rahman had felt that he should not serve under a nephew, given strict Malay royal protocol, but agreed to stay on as prime minister for one day of Tuanku Abdul Halim's reign.[5]



The Yang di-Pertuan Agong in a carriage with Elizabeth II on a state visit to London, 1974.

Second election as Deputy King

On 2 November 2006, Tuanku Abdul Halim was for the second time elected Deputy Yang di-Pertuan Agong to serve a five-year term. He is the third person to have been elected twice to this office, after Tuanku Jaafar of Negeri Sembilan and Sultan Mizan Zainal Abidin of Terengganu.

Second election as King

In October 2011, Abdul Halim was elected to serve a second term as the Yang di-Pertuan Agong which commenced on 13 December 2011. He is the first person to hold the position twice.[6] He is also the oldest Malay Ruler to be crowned Yang di-Pertuan Agong at 84 years 15 days, beating the previous record holder, Sultan Salahuddin Abdul Aziz of Selangor, who was crowned at 73 years 49 days.

A Council of Regency consisting of his brothers Tunku Annuar, Tunku Sallehuddin, Tunku Abdul Hamid Thani, and daughter Tunku Puteri Intan Safinaz will discharge his duties as Sultan of Kedah while he serves his term as King.[7]

Family Life

Tuanku Abdul Halim has two wives:

1. Tuanku Bahiyah, daughter of Tuanku Abdul Rahman of Negeri Sembilan, married 1956. She served as Sultanah of Kedah and Raja Permaisuri Agong. She died on 26 August 2003 at Istana Kuala Cegar in Alor Star. [8] They have 3 daughters: Tunku Soraya, Tunku Sarina and Tunku Intan Safinaz. Tunku Soraya and Tunku Sarina are twins. The daughters produce 5 grandchildren: three grandsons, Raja Nabil Imran, Raja Idris Shah and Raja Siffudin Muadzam and two granddaughters, Raja Sarina Bahiyah and Raja Safia Azizah.
2. Cik Haminah binti Hamidun, married 1975. A commoner from Perak, she was titled Che Puan Kedah until 9 January 2004 when she was crowned to Sultanah.[9] She is serving as Raja Permaisuri Agong during his second term as Yang di-Pertuan Agong.

Golden Jubilee Celebrations

On 15 July 2008, Tuanku Abdul Halim Muadzam Shah celebrated his Golden Jubilee as the Sultan of Kedah. He is only the fourth Sultan in a line of 28 Sultans who have celebrated 50 years of reign in Kedah.[10]

In conjunction with the Golden Jubilee, 15 July 2008 was declared as a public holiday for the whole state of Kedah.[11] A ceremony of handing over the contributions in conjunction with the Golden Jubilee was held at the Istana Anak Bukit on 6 July 2008 by Kedah Menteri Besar Azizan Abdul Razak. Throughout the whole week of the Golden Jubilee, various events were held to commemorate the Sultan.

Titles, styles and honours

Titles and styles

- **28 November 1927 – 6 August 1949**: *Yang Mulia* Tunku Abdul Halim ibni Tunku Badlishah
- **6 August 1949 – 15 July 1958**: *Duli Yang Teramat Mulia* Raja Muda Kedah Tunku Abdul Halim ibni Sultan Badlishah
- **15 July 1958 – present**: *Duli Yang Maha Mulia* Sultan Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah ibni Sultan Badlishah
- **21 September 1970 – 20 September 1975**: *Seri Paduka Baginda* Yang di-Pertuan Agong Tuanku Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah ibni Sultan Badlishah
- **13 December 2011 – present**: *Seri Paduka Baginda* Yang di-Pertuan Agong Tuanku Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah ibni Sultan Badlishah

Monarchical styles of

The Yang di-Pertuan Agong

Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Tuanku*

His style and title in full from 13 December 2011 is: *Ke Bawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Seri Paduka Baginda Yang di-Pertuan Agong Al-Sultan Sir Almu'tasimu Billahi Muhibbudin Tuanku Alhaj Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah ibni Almarhum Sultan Badlishah* or translated into English as His Majesty the Supreme Ruler of Malaysia Al-Sultan Sir Almu'tasimu Billahi Muhibbudin Tuanku Alhaj Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah ibni Almarhum Sultan Badlishah.

Honours

Tuanku Abdul Halim holds the rank of Marshal of the Royal Malaysian Air Force[12] in his full constitutional duties as Commander-in-Chief of the Malaysian Armed Forces as well as the ranks of Field Marshal of the Malaysian Army and Admiral of the Fleet of the Royal Malaysian Navy. Since 1972 he is the Royal Malay

Regiment's Colonel-in-Chief.

His foreign honours are:

- Collar of the Order of the Chrysanthemum - 1970
- Collar of the Star of Mahaputra-1st Class - 1970
- Collar of the Order of Pahlavi - 1971
- Knight of the Order of St John (KStJ) - 1972
- Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath (GCB) - 1972
- Knight of the Most Auspicious Order of the Rajamitrabhorn - 1973
- Grand Cross of the Order of Charles III (w/Collar) - 1974
- Nishan-i-Pakistan, 1st Class - 1974

Structures, buildings and institutions

- Sultan Abdul Halim Highway and Sekolah Rendah Tunku Abdul Halim in Alor Star, the Sultan Abdul Halim Ferry Terminal in Penang, Sultan Abdul Halim Hospital and Sultan Abdul Halim Teachers' Trainee Institute in Sungai Petani and Sekolah Menengah Sultan Abdul Halim in Jitra, Kedah are all; named after him.
- Sultan Abdul Halim Airport in Kepala Batas, Kedah and Polytechnic of Sultan Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah (POLIMAS) in Jitra, was also given in honour of his name.

External links

- List of Sultans of Kedah (http://www.mykedah2.com/raja_kita/eng/040000.htm)

Notes and references

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2. ^ Ibrahim Ismail (1987) *Sejarah Kedah Sepintas Lalu* p209 Penerbit UUM
3. ^ (3 November 2006) *Bernama Online*
4. ^ Ibrahim Ismail (1987) Op Cit pp 214–218
5. ^ Tunku Abdul Rahman (1977) *Looking Back* p346 Pustaka Antara, Kuala Lumpur
6. ^ "Sultan of Kedah to be next Yang di-Pertuan Agong, for second time" (http://www.webcitation.org/62REQcnTy) . *The Malaysian Insider*. 14 October 2011. Archived from the original (http://www.themalaysianinsider.com/malaysia/article/sultan-of-kedah-to-be-next-yang-di-pertuan-agong/) on 14 October 2011. http://www.webcitation.org/62REQcnTy. Retrieved 14 October 2011.
7. ^ "Kedah Sultan Reminds Council of Regency To Carry Out Duties With Honesty" (http://www.webcitation.org/query?url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.bernama.com%2Fbernama%2Fv5%2Fnewsgeneral.php%3Fid%3D633575&date=2011-12-12) . Bernama. 2011-12-12. Archived from the original (http://www.bernama.com/bernama/v5/newsgeneral.php?id=633575) on 2011-12-12. http://www.webcitation.org/query?url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.bernama.com%2Fbernama%2Fv5%2Fnewsgeneral.php%3Fid%3D633575&date=2011-12-12.
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9. ^ (10 January 2004) *Bernama Online*
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12. ^ "Photographs of Tuanku Abdul Halim, Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia" (http://janus.lib.cam.ac.uk/db/node.xsp?id=EAD%2FGBR%2F0115%2FY3031B%2F11) . Janus. http://janus.lib.cam.ac.uk/db/node.xsp?id=EAD%2FGBR%2F0115%2FY3031B%2F11. Retrieved 2011-04-26.

Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Badlishah**	**Sultan of Kedah** 1958–present	**Incumbent** *Heir presumptive: Abdul Malik*
Preceded by **Ismail Nasiruddin**	**Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia** 1970–1975	Succeeded by **Yahya Petra**
Preceded by **Mizan Zainal Abidin**	**Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia** 2011–present	**Incumbent**

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Categories: 1927 births | Alumni of Wadham College, Oxford | Current national leaders | Living people | Marshals of the Royal Malaysian Air Force | Monarchs of Kedah | Monarchs of Malaysia | Collars of the Order of the Chrysanthemum | Honorary Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath | Knights of the Order of St John

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Kedah Sultanate

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Sultanate of Kedah** was the earliest sultanate on the Malay Peninsula and one of the oldest Sultanates in the world, founded in year 1136.

Contents

- 1 Kedah Kingdom
- 2 History
  - 2.1 The king from Gemeron
- 3 Conversion to Islam
- 4 List of rulers
  - 4.1 Pre-Islamic era
  - 4.2 Islamic era
- 5 Culture
  - 5.1 Nobat
- 6 See also
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- 8 References
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Kedah Kingdom



Map of the early Kadaha kingdom and the Early transpeninsular routeway.

Kedah Kingdom (630-1136) was founded by Maharaja Derbar Raja of Gemeron around 630 CE and the Hindu dynasty ended when Phra Ong Mahawangsa converted to Islam.

History

Main article: Early history of Kedah

Around 170 CE a group of native refugees of Hindu faith arrived at Kedah, joining them soon were peoples from nearby islands and from the northern Mon-Khmer region. Ancient Kedah covered the areas of Kuala Bahang, Kuala Bara, Kuala Pila and Merpah, and the inhabitants of Kedah appointed Tun Derma Dewa and Tun Perkasa as their village chiefs.

History of Malaysia



This article is part of **a series**

Prehistoric Malaysia

Early kingdoms

Chi Tu (100 BC–7th)
Gangga Negara (2nd–11th)
Langkasuka (2nd–14th)
Pan Pan (3rd–5th)
Srivijaya (7th–13th)
Majapahit (13th–15th)
Kedah Kingdom (630–1136)

The rise of Muslim states

Kedah Sultanate (1136–present)
Malacca Sultanate (1402–1511)
Sulu Sultanate (1450–1899)
Johor Sultanate (1528–present)

Colonial era

Portuguese Malacca (1511–1641)
Dutch Malacca (1641–1824)
Straits Settlements (1826–1946)
British Malaya (1874–1946)
Federated Malay States (1895–1946)
Unfederated Malay States (1909–46)
Kingdom of Sarawak (1841–1946)
North Borneo (1882–1963)
Japanese occupation (1941–1945)

Malaysia in transition

Malayan Union (1946–1948)
Federation of Malaya (1948–1963)
Independence (1957)
Federation of Malaysia (1963–present)

Timeline

Malaysia Portal


Ancient artefact found in Kedah.

The king from Gemeron

In the year 630 CE, Maharaja Derbar Raja of Gemeron (now known as Bandar Abbas) in Persia was defeated in battle and escaped to Sri Lanka, and he was later blown off course by a storm to the remote shores of Kuala Sungai Qilah, Kedah. The inhabitants of Kedah found him to be a valiant and intelligent person, and they made him the king of Kedah. In the year 634 CE, a new kingdom was formed in Kedah consisting of Persian royalty and native Malay of Hindu faith, the capital was Langkasuka.

Conversion to Islam

In the late 11th century, after the Chola military left Kadaram, the 9th Hindu rajah, Dubar Raja II, renounced the Hinduism and converted to Islam, which was introduced by Muslims from neighbouring Aceh, he also changed his name to Sultan Mudzafar Shah. He ruled the northern region of Malay Peninsula from 1136 to 1179. According to the *Kedah Annals*, the first king of Kedah was Maharaja Derbar Raja I, a fleeing king from Gameron in Persia.

List of rulers

According to tradition, the founding of the Kedah kingdom (or *Kadaram*) occurred around 630 CE, replacing the ancient kingdom of Langkasuka. It is said to have been founded by Durbaraja I, a Hindu who originated from Gemeron in Persia. The Hindu dynasty ended when the ninth king Durbaraja II, styled "Phra Ong Mahawangsa" by the Siamese, converted to Islam in 1136.[1]

Pre-Islamic era

The following is a list of kings of Kadaram, nine in total. Each used the Hindu title of *maharaja*. The exact dates of each king's reign are not known.

1. Sri Paduka Maharaja Durbar Raja I (c. 630–?)
2. Sri Paduka Maharaja Diraja Putra
3. Sri Paduka Maharaja Maha Dewa I
4. Sri Paduka Maharaja Karna Diraja
5. Sri Paduka Maharaja Karma
6. Sri Paduka Maharaja Maha Dewa II
7. Sri Paduka Maharaja Darma Raja
8. Sri Paduka Maharaja Maha Jiwa
9. Sri Paduka Maharaja Durbar Raja II (?–1136; succeeded as *Sultan of Kedah*, see below)

Source for the list of sultans is the Muzium Negeri Kedah, Alor Setar, Malaysia. "The sultans of Kedah".

Islamic era

The beginning of the use of the title *sultan* in Kedah is attributed to a visit by a Muslim scholar from Yemen, Sheikh Abdullah bin Ja'afar Quamiri, to Durbaraja II's palace at Bukit Mariam in 1136. The audience resulted in the king's conversion to Islam. He adopted the name "Mud'zafar Syah" and established the sultanate of Kedah, which continues to rule today.[1]

Sultans of Kedah

Number	Sultan	Reign
1	Sultan Mudzafar Shah I	1136–1179
2	Sultan Mu'adzam Shah	1179–1201
3	Sultan Muhammad Shah	1201–1236
4	Sultan Mudzaffar Shah II	1236–1280
5	Sultan Mahmud Shah I	1280– 1321
6	Sultan Ibrahim Shah	1321– 1373
7	Sultan Sulaiman Shah I	1373–1422
8	Sultan Ataullah Muhammad Shah I	1422–1472
9	Sultan Muhammad Jiwa Zainal Adilin I	1472–1506
10	Sultan Mahmud Shah II	1506–1546
11	Sultan Mudzaffar Shah III	1546–1602
12	Sultan Sulaiman Shah II	1602–1625
13	Sultan Rijaluddin Muhammad Shah	1625–1651
14	Sultan Muhyiddin Mansur Shah	1651–1661
15	Sultan Dziaddin Mukarram Shah	1661–1687
16	Sultan Ataullah Muhammad Shah II	1687–1698
17	Sultan Abdullah Mu'adzam Shah	1698–1706
18	Sultan Ahmad Tajuddin Halim Shah I	1706–1709
19	Sultan Muhammad Jiwa Zainal Adilin II	1710–1778
20	Sultan Abdullah Mukarram Shah	1778–1797
21	Sultan Ahmad Tajuddin Halim Shah II	1797–1843
22	Sultan Zainal Rashid Al-Mu'adzam Shah I	1843–1854
23	Sultan Ahmad Tajuddin Mukarram Shah	1854–1879
24	Sultan Zainal Rashid Mu'adzam Shah II	1879- 1881
25	Sultan Abdul Hamid Halim Shah	1881–1943
26	Sultan Badlishah	1943–1958
27	Sultan Abdul Halim Mu'adzam Shah	1958–present

Source for the list of sultans is the Kedah State Public Library (2003). "The genealogy of His Highnesses" (http://www.mykedah2.com/raja_kita/eng/040000.htm) . *Our Sultan*. http://www.mykedah2.com/raja_kita/eng/040000.htm. Retrieved 2010-08-29.

Culture

Nobat

The Nobat musical instruments of Nagara and Nepiri were introduced to Kedah by Maharaja Derbar Raja. The instrument is also called semambu. The band is led by the king, and it consists of drums, a gong, a flute and a

trumpet. Today, Nobat is a Royal orchestra, played only during royal ceremonies such as inaugurations, weddings, and funerals. The building which houses the instruments and where the ensemble rehearses is known as the Balai Nobat, literally the Office of Nobat.

See also

- Bujang Valley
- Hikayat Merong Mahawangsa
- Sultanate of Malacca
- List of Sunni Muslim dynasties

Notes

1. ^ *a b* "Kedah: Intro and Background" (http://go2travelmalaysia.com/tour_malaysia/kdh_bckgnd.htm) . *Go2Travelmalaysia.com*. Capslock Sdn Bhd. http://go2travelmalaysia.com/tour_malaysia/kdh_bckgnd.htm. Retrieved 2011-03-04.

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External links

- List of Kedah sultans (http://uqconnect.net/~zzhsoszy/states/malaysia/kedah.html)
- [1] (http://www.kdh.icu.gov.my/English/file%20html/profilnegeri.htm)
- **(Malay)**Nobat (http://www.nobat.hostrocket.com/datang.html)

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Categories: 1136 establishments | History of Kedah | Muslim dynasties | History of Islam | Sultanates in Malaysia | Kedah

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Morocco

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Morocco (Arabic: المغرب *al-Maghrib* ; Berber: ⵍⵎⵖⵔⵉⴱ / ⵓⵎⵓⵔⵕ[7] *Elmeɣrib / Amerruk*), officially the **Kingdom of Morocco**,[8] is a country located in North Africa. It has a population of about 35 million and an area of 710,850 km², including the disputed region of the Western Sahara, seen by and mostly administered by Morocco as the Southern Provinces. Morocco is part of the Maghreb region, in addition to Tunisia, Algeria, Mauritania, and Libya, with which it shares cultural, historical and linguistic ties.

Morocco is a constitutional monarchy with an elected parliament. The King of Morocco holds vast executive powers, including the power to dissolve the parliament. Executive power is exercised by the government but more importantly by the king himself. Legislative power is vested in both the government and the two chambers of parliament, the Assembly of Representatives and the Assembly of Councillors. The king can also issue decrees called dahirs which have the force of law. The latest Parliamentary elections were held in November 25, 2011, and were considered by some neutral observers to be mostly free and fair. Voter turnout in these elections was estimated to be 43% of registered voters, but only about 25% of Moroccan adult citizens actually voted. The rest either chose not to vote or they were not registered as voters. The political capital is Rabat, but the largest city is Casablanca; other main cities include Marrakesh, Tetouan, Tangiers, Salé, Fez, Agadir, Meknes, Oujda, and Nador.

Most Moroccans natively speak either Moroccan Arabic or Berber as a mother tongue. Both languages have regional dialects and accents. Hassaniya Arabic is also spoken natively in the southern parts of the country by a small population.

Contents

- 1 Etymology
- 2 History
  - 2.1 Population of Morocco
  - 2.2 Romans and Morocco
  - 2.3 Islamic era
  - 2.4 European influence
  - 2.5 Resistance
  - 2.6 Contemporary Morocco

Kingdom of Morocco
المملكة المغربية (Arabic)
ⵜⴰⴳⵍⴷⵉⵜ ⵏ ⵍⵎⵖⵔⵉⴱ (Berber)
Tageldit n Elmeɣrib (Berber)



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: الله، الوطن، الملك (Arabic)
Allāh, al-Waṭan, al-Malik
ⴰⵅⵙⵙ, ⴰⵏⵙⵔ, ⴰⵅⵙⵍⵍⵉⵏ (Berber)
Akuc, Amur, Agellid (Berber)
"God, Homeland, King"

Anthem:

النشيد الوطني المغربي
"Cherifian Anthem"



The fully green area shows the internationally recognized territory of **Morocco**. The striped area is the disputed territory of Western Sahara; Morocco administers most of this territory as its *de facto* Southern Provinces.

Capital	Rabat 34°02′N 6°51′W
Largest city	Casablanca

- 3 Geography
  - 3.1 Climate
  - 3.2 Biodiversity
- 4 Demographics
  - 4.1 Languages
  - 4.2 Moroccan DNA
    - 4.2.1 Genetic continuity in Morocco
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- 5 Politics
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  - 5.3 Military
  - 5.4 Foreign relations
- 6 Administrative divisions
  - 6.1 Regions
  - 6.2 Provinces
  - 6.3 Cities
- 7 Western Sahara status
  - 7.1 Western Sahara War
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- 8 Economy
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- 9 Education
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  - 10.2 Literature
  - 10.3 Music
  - 10.4 Sport
- 11 Landscapes and monuments
- 12 See also
- 13 Notes and references
- 14 External links

Official language(s)	Arabic[1] Berber (Tamazight)[2][a]
Native languages	Berber, Moroccan Arabic, Hassaniya. [b]
Ethnic groups	99.1% Arab-Berber 0.7% Other 0.2% Jews [3]
Demonym	Moroccan
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and Constitutional Monarchy
- King	Mohammed VI
- Prime Minister	Abdelillah Benkirane
Legislature	Parliament
- Upper house	Assembly of Councillors
- Lower house	Assembly of Representatives
Independence	
- from France	March 2, 1956
- from Spain	April 7, 1956
Area	
- Total	446,550 km^2 [c] or 710,850 km^2[c](58th/40th) 172,487 sq mi
- Water (%)	250 km² (0,056%)
Population	
- 2012 estimate	36,064,173[4] (38th)
- 2011 census	35,657,056[5]
- Density	71.6/km^2 (122nd) 185.5/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$158.994 billion[6] (56th)
- Per capita	$4,940[6] (115th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$100.323 billion[6] (59th)
- Per capita	$3,117[6] (112nd)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.582 (medium) (130th)
Currency	Moroccan dirham (MAD)
Time zone	WET (UTC+0)
- Summer (DST)	WEST (UTC+1)

Etymology

The full Arabic name *al-Mamlakat al-Maghribiyyah* (المملكة المغربية) translates to "The Western Kingdom". *Al-Maghrib* (المغرب), meaning "The West", is commonly used. For historical references, medieval Arab historians and geographers used to refer to Morocco as *al-Maghrib al-Aqṣá* (المغرب الأقصى, "The Farthest West"), disambiguating it from neighboring historical regions called *al-Maghrib al-Awsaṭ* (المغرب الأوسط, "The Middle West", Algeria) and

al-Maghrib al-Adná (المغرب الأدنى, "The Nearest West", Tunisia).[9]

The English name "Morocco" originates from Spanish "Marruecos" or the Portuguese "Marrocos", from medieval Latin "Morroch", which referred to the name of the former Almoravid and Almohad capital, Marrakesh.[10] In Persian and Urdu, Morocco is still called "Marrakesh". Until recent decades, Morocco was called "Marrakesh" in Middle Eastern Arabic. In Turkish, Morocco is called "Fas" which comes from the ancient Idrisid and Marinid capital, Fez.

The word "Marrakesh" is made of the Berber word combination *Mur n Akush* (*Mur n Akuc*), meaning *Land of God*.

Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	MA
Internet TLD	.ma
Calling code	+212

a. ^ French is also used in official government documents and by the business community, although it has no official status.

b. ^ see also Languages of Morocco.

c. ^ 446,550 km^2 (172,410 sq mi) excludes all disputed territories.
710,850 km^2 (274,460 sq mi) Includes Moroccan-administered territory of Western Sahara which is claimed by the Polisario Front as the Sahrawi Republic

History

Main article: History of Morocco

The earliest well-known Moroccan independent state was the Berber kingdom of Mauretania under king Bocchus I. This Berber Kingdom of Mauretania (current northern Morocco) dates at least to 110 BC.[11] The region remained a part of the Roman Empire until 429 AD when invading Vandals overran the area and Roman administrative presence came to an end.


Ruins of Chellah, Rabat

Umayyad Muslims conquered the region in the 7th century, bringing their language, their system of government, and Islam, to which many of the Berbers slowly converted, mostly after the Arab rule receded. In the Islamic era the first Moroccan Muslim state, independent from the Abbasid Empire, was The Kingdom of Nekor, an emirate in the Rif area. It was founded by the Legend of Salih I ibn Mansur in 710 AD, as a client state to Caliphal grant. According to the Medieval Legends Idris I fled to Morocco from the Abbasids' massacre against his tribe in Iraq and managed to convince the Awraba Berber tribes to break allegiance to the distant Abbasid caliphs in Baghdad. He founded the Idrisid Dynasty in 780 AD. Morocco became later a center of learning and a major power. From the 11th century onwards, a series of powerful Berber[12][13][14] dynasties arose. Under the Almoravid dynasty and the Almohad dynasty, Morocco dominated the Maghreb, Muslim-conquered Spain, and the western Mediterranean region. In the 13th century the Merinids gained power over Morocco and strove to replicate the successes of the Almohads. In the 15th century the Reconquista ended Islamic rule in central and southern Iberia (modern day Spain + Portugal) and many Muslims and Jews fled to Morocco. Under the Saadi Dynasty, the first Moroccan dynasty initiated by ethnic Arabs since the Idrisids, the country would consolidate power and fight off Portuguese and Ottoman invaders, as in the battle of Ksar el Kebir. The reign of Ahmad al-Mansur brought new wealth and prestige to the Sultanate, and a massive invasion of the Songhay Empire was initiated.

However, managing the territories across the Sahara proved too difficult. After the death of al-Mansur the country was divided among his sons. In 1666 the sultanate was reunited by the Alaouite dynasty, who have since been the ruling house in Morocco. The organization of the state developed with Ismail Ibn Sharif. With his Jaysh d'Ahl al-Rif (the Riffian Army) he seized Tangier from the English in 1684 and drove the Spanish from Larache

in 1689.

In 1912, after the First Moroccan Crisis and the Agadir Crisis, the Treaty of Fez was signed, effectively dividing Morocco into a French and a Spanish protectorate. In 1956, after forty-four years of occupation, Morocco regained independence from France and Spain as the "Kingdom of Morocco".

Population of Morocco

The area of present-day Morocco has been inhabited since Paleolithic times (at least since 200,000 BC, as attested by signs of the Aterian culture), a period when the Maghreb was less arid than it is today. In Paleolithic ages, the geography of Morocco resembled a savanna more than the present-day arid landscape.[15] In the classical period, Morocco was known as Mauretania, although this should not be confused with the modern-day nation of Mauritania. The suggested skeletal similarities between the robust Iberomaurusian "Mechta-Afalou" burials and European Cro-Magnon remains, as well as the case for continuity of the bearers of the Iberomaurusian industry from Morocco with later northwest African populations suggested by the dental evidence should be considered. Current scientific debate is concerned with determining the relative contributions of different periods of gene flow to the current gene pool of North Africans. Anatomically modern humans are known to have been present in North Africa during the Upper Paleolithic 175,000 years ago as attested by the Aterian culture. With apparent continuity, 22,000 years ago, the Aterian was succeeded by the Iberomaurusian culture which shared similarities with Iberian cultures. The Iberomaurusian was succeeded by the The Bell-Beaker culture in Morocco.

Additionally, recent studies have discovered a close mitochondrial link between Berbers and the Saami of Scandinavia which confirms that the Franco-Cantabrian refuge area of southwestern Europe was the source of late-glacial expansions of hunter-gatherers that repopulated northern Europe after the Last Glacial Maximum and reveals a direct maternal link between those European hunter-gatherer populations and the Berbers.[16]

A Jewish community historically lived in Morocco. In any case, over the centuries, nearly all Berbers were Islamicized. Still, a large Jewish community remained in Morocco especially after the arrival of Sephardi Jews following the Alhambra decree. In the early 20th century, numerous Moroccan Jews emigrated to the United States and Italy, after Italian Jews established study centers and schools to bring the Enlightenment to Moroccan Jews.

In 1948, before the creation of Israel, Jews numbered approximately 265,000. The hostilities and disruption of the war of independence and other wars in the Mideast caused more Jews to leave for Palestine, Europe and the United States. Seven thousand live there now (mostly in a few major cities). In relation to the commemoration of Christopher Columbus' voyage to the New World, numerous academic studies were undertaken about the Moroccan Jews of Morocco. The late king Hassan II reached out internationally to descendants of Jews who had lived in the country and encouraged returns and visits, with recognition of their contributions to the nation, but there has not been markedly increased immigration.

Romans and Morocco



North Africa and Morocco were slowly drawn into the wider emerging Mediterranean world by Phoenician trading colonies and settlements in the early Classical period. Major early substantial settlements of the Phoenicians were at Chellah, Lixus and Mogador,[17] with Mogador being a Phoenician colony as early as the early 6th century BC.[18] The arrival of Phoenicians heralded a long engagement with the wider Mediterranean, as this strategic region formed part of the Roman Empire,

A Roman mosaic in Volubilis

as Mauretania Tingitana. In the 5th century, as the Roman Empire declined, the region fell to the Vandals, Visigoths, and then the Byzantine Empire, the Eastern Roman Empire, in rapid succession. During this time, however, the high mountains of most of modern Morocco remained unsubdued, and stayed in the hands of their Berber inhabitants. Christianity was introduced in the 2nd century and gained converts in the towns and among slaves and Berber farmers.

Islamic era



The Kasbah of Aït Benhaddou, High Atlas. Built by the Berbers from the 14th century onwards, a Kasbah was a single family stronghold (as opposed to a Ksar: a fortified tribal village).

Islamic expansion began in the 7th century. In 670 AD, the first Islamic conquest of the North African coastal plain took place under Uqba ibn Nafi, a general serving under the Umayyads of Damascus. Mercenaries of The Ummayyad armies brought their language and Islam, to which most of the Berbers converted. After the outbreak of the Great Berber Revolt in 739, the region's Berber population asserted its independence, forming states and kingdoms such as the Miknasa of Sijilmasa and the Barghawata. Under Idris ibn Abdallah, who was appointed by the Awraba Berbers of Volubilis to be their representative, the country soon cut ties and broke away from the control of the distant Abbasid caliphs in Baghdad and the Umayyad rule in Al-Andalus. The Idrisids established Fes as their capital and Morocco became a centre of Jewish learning and a major regional power.

Morocco would reach its height under a series of Berber dynasties that replaced the Idrisids after the 11th century.[19] From the 13th century onwards the country saw a massive migration of Banu Hilal Arab tribes. Their arrival was to have a critical effect on the nation: due to them nomadism returned, urban civilization fell and the country's inhabitants were quickly becoming Arabized. The Maghrawa, the Almoravids, the Almohads, the Marinids, the Wattasids and finally the Saadi dynasty would see Morocco rule most of Northwest Africa, as well as large sections of Islamic Iberia, or Al-Andalus. Following the Reconquista of the Iberian Peninsula, large numbers of Muslims and Jews were forced to flee to Morocco.[20]



The Sultan Abderrahmane of Morocco, by Eugène Delacroix

After the Saadi, the Alaouite Dynasty eventually gained control. Morocco was facing aggression from Spain and the Ottoman Empire that was sweeping westward. The Alaouites succeeded in stabilizing their position, and while the kingdom was smaller than previous ones in the region, it remained quite wealthy. In 1684, they annexed Tangier. The organization of the kingdom developed under Ismail Ibn Sharif (1672–1727), who, against the opposition of local tribes began to create a unified state.[21] According to Elizabeth Allo Isichei, "In 1520, there was a famine in Morocco so terrible that for a long time other events were dated by it. It has been suggested that the population of Morocco fell from 5 to under 3 million between the early sixteenth and nineteenth centuries."[22]

Morocco was the first nation to recognize the fledgling United States as an independent nation in 1777.[23] In the beginning of the American Revolution, American merchant ships were subject to attack by the Barbary Pirates while sailing the Atlantic Ocean. On December 20, 1777, Morocco's Sultan Mohammed III declared that the American merchant ships would be under the protection of

the sultanate and could thus enjoy safe passage. The Moroccan-American Treaty of Friendship stands as the U.S.'s oldest non-broken friendship treaty.[24][25]

European influence

Main articles: Portuguese Empire, French colonial empire, and Spanish Protectorate of Morocco



Pre-1956 Tangier had a highly heterogeneous population that included 40,000 Muslims, 30,000 Europeans and 15,000 Jews.[26]

Successful Portuguese efforts to invade and control the Atlantic coast in the 15th century did not profoundly affect the Mediterranean heart of Morocco. After the Napoleonic Wars, Egypt and the North African Maghreb became increasingly ungovernable from Istanbul, the resort of pirates under local beys, and as Europe industrialized, an increasingly prized potential for colonization. The Maghreb had far greater proven wealth than the unknown rest of Africa and a location of strategic importance affecting the exit from the Mediterranean. For the first time, Morocco became a state of some interest in itself to the European powers.

France showed a strong interest in Morocco as early as 1830.[27] Recognition by the United Kingdom in 1904 of France's sphere of influence in Morocco provoked a reaction from the German Empire; the crisis of June 1905 was resolved at the Algeciras Conference in Spain in 1906, which formalized France's "special position" and entrusted policing of Morocco jointly to France and Spain. The Agadir Crisis provoked by the Germans, increased tensions between European powers. The Treaty of Fez (signed on March 30, 1912) made Morocco a protectorate of France. By the same treaty, Spain assumed the role of protecting power over the northern and southern Saharan zones on November 27 that year.[28]

Many Moroccan soldiers (Goumieres) served in the French army in both World War I and World War II, and in the Spanish Nationalist Army in the Spanish Civil War and after (*Regulares*).

Resistance



Death of Spanish general Margallo during the Melilla War. Le Petit Journal, 13 November 1893.

Under the French protectorate, Moroccan natives were denied their basic human rights such as freedom of speech, the right of gathering and travel in their own country. French settlers built for themselves modern European-like cities called "villages" or "villes" next to poor old Arab cities called "Medinas". The French colonial system forbade native Moroccans from living, working, and traveling into the French quarters. The French education system taught a minority of noble native Moroccan families about French history, art and culture, while disregarding their native language and culture. Colonial authorities exerted tighter control on religious schools and universities, namely "madrassas" and Quaraouaine university. The rise of a young Moroccan intellectual class gave birth to nationalist movements whose main goals were to restore the governance of the country to its own people.[29] Nationalist political parties, which subsequently arose under the French protectorate, based their arguments for Moroccan independence on such World War II declarations as the Atlantic Charter (a joint U.S.-British statement that set forth, among other things, the right of all people to choose the form of

government under which they live). A manifesto of the Istiqlal Party (Independence party in English) in 1944 was one of the earliest public demands for independence. That party subsequently provided most of the leadership for the nationalist movement.

France's exile of Sultan Mohammed V in 1953 to Madagascar and his replacement by the unpopular Mohammed Ben Aarafa, whose reign was perceived as illegitimate, sparked active opposition to the French and Spanish protectorates. The most notable violence occurred in Oujda where Moroccans attacked French and other European residents in the streets. Operations by the newly created "Jaish al-tahrir" (Liberation Army), were launched on October 1, 1955. Jaish al-tahrir was created by "Comité de Libération du Maghreb Arabe" (Arab Maghreb Liberation Committee) in Cairo, Egypt to constitute a resistance movement against occupation. Its goal was the return of King Mohammed V and the liberation of Algeria and Tunisia as well. France allowed Mohammed V to return in 1955, and the negotiations that led to Moroccan independence began the following year.[30]

All those events helped increase the degree of solidarity between the people and the newly returned king. For this reason, the revolution that Morocco knew was called "Taourat al-malik wa shaab" (The revolution of the King and the People) and it is celebrated every August 20.

Contemporary Morocco

Further information: Insurgency in the Maghreb (2002–present)


The Mausoleum of Mohammed V in Rabat

On November 18, 2006, Morocco celebrated the 50th anniversary of its independence. Morocco recovered its political independence from France on March 2, 1956, and on April 7, France officially relinquished its protectorate. Through agreements with Spain in 1956 and 1958, Moroccan control over certain Spanish-ruled areas was restored, though attempts to claim other Spanish colonial possessions through military action were less successful. The internationalized city of Tangier was reintegrated with the signing of the Tangier Protocol on October 29, 1956 (see Tangier Crisis). Hassan II became King of Morocco on March 3, 1961. His early years of rule were marked by political unrest. The Spanish enclave of Ifni in the south was reintegrated to the country in 1969. Morocco annexed the Western Sahara during the 1970s ("Marcha Verde", Green March) after demanding its reintegration from Spain since independence, but final resolution on the status of the territory remains unresolved. (See History of Western Sahara.)[20]

Political reforms in the 1990s resulted in the establishment of a bicameral legislature in 1997. Morocco was granted Major non-NATO ally status by the United States in June 2004 and has signed free trade agreements with the United States and the European Union.

Morocco has always been known for its islamic liberalism and openness towards the Western world. King Mohammed VI of Morocco with his ruling elite are democratically minded, showing tolerance within the limits of territorial integrity and traditional laws and customs.[31]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Morocco

Morocco has a coast on the Atlantic Ocean that reaches past the Strait of Gibraltar into the Mediterranean Sea. It is bordered by Spain to the north (a water border through the Strait and land borders with three small Spanish-controlled exclaves, Ceuta, Melilla, and Peñón de Vélez de la Gomera), Algeria to the east, and Western Sahara to the south. Since Morocco controls most of Western Sahara, its *de facto* southern boundary is with Mauritania.


High Atlas in central Morocco

The internationally recognized borders of the country lie between latitudes 27° and 36°N, and longitudes 1° and 14°W. Adding Western Sahara, Morocco lies mostly between 21° and 36°N, and 1° and 17°W (the Ras Nouadhibou peninsula is slightly south of 21° and west of 17°).

The geography of Morocco spans from the Atlantic Ocean, to mountainous areas, to the Sahara (desert). Morocco is a Northern African country, bordering the North Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea, between Algeria and the annexed Western Sahara.


Essaouira Beach

A large part of Morocco is mountainous. The Atlas Mountains are located mainly in the center and the south of the country. The Rif Mountains are located in the north of the country. Both ranges are mainly inhabited by the Berber people. At 172,402 sq mi (446,519 km^2), Morocco is the fifty-seventh largest country in the world (after Uzbekistan). Algeria borders Morocco to the east and southeast though the border between the two countries has been closed since 1994.


Bin el Ouidane Dam, Beni-Mellal

Spanish territory in Morocco comprises five enclaves on the Mediterranean coast: Ceuta, Melilla, Peñón de Vélez de la Gomera, Peñón de Alhucemas, the Chafarinas islands, and the disputed islet Perejil. Off the Atlantic coast the Canary Islands belong to Spain, whereas Madeira to the north is Portuguese. To the north, Morocco is bordered by and controls part of the Strait of Gibraltar, giving it power over the waterways in and out of the Mediterranean sea.

The Rif mountains occupy the region bordering the Mediterranean from the north-west to the north-east. The Atlas Mountains run down the backbone of the country, from the south west to the north east. Most of the south east portion of the country is in the Sahara Desert and as such is generally sparsely populated and unproductive economically. Most of the population lives to the north of these mountains, while to the south is the desert.

To the south, lies the Western Sahara, a former Spanish colony that was annexed by Morocco in 1975 (see Green March).[32] Morocco claims that the Western Sahara is part of its territory and refers to that as its Southern Provinces.

Morocco's capital city is Rabat; its largest city is its main port, Casablanca. Other cities include Agadir, Essaouira, Fes, Marrakech, Meknes, Mohammadia, Oujda, Ouarzazat, Safi, Salé, Tangier and Tétouan.

Morocco is represented in the ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 geographical encoding standard by the symbol *MA*.[33] This code was used as the basis for Morocco's internet domain, .ma.[33]

Climate

The climate is Mediterranean in the North and in some mountains (West of Atlas), which becomes more extreme towards the interior regions. The terrain is such that the coastal plains are rich and accordingly, they comprise the backbone for agriculture, especially in the North. Forests cover about 12% of the land while arable land accounts for 18%; 5% is irrigated. In the Atlas (Middle Atlas), there are several different climates: Mediterranean (with some more humid and fresher variants), Maritime Temperate (with some humid and fresher variants too) that allow different species of oaks, moss carpets, junipers, atlantic cedars and many other plants, to form extensive and very rich humid cloud forests. In the highest peaks a different climate may occur. On the other side of Atlas mountains (East Atlas), the climate changes, due to the barrier/shelter effect of these mountainous system, turning it very dry and extremely warm during the summer (that can last several months), especially on the lowlands and on the valleys faced to the Sahara. Here it starts the big Desert Sahara and it is perfectly visible, for example, on the Draa Valley, on which it is possible to find oases, sand dunes and rocky desert landscapes. So the climate in this region is desert.

Biodiversity



The Barbary lion, now extinct in the wild, was native to Morocco and is a national emblem of the country[34]

Further information: List of birds of Morocco, List of the Butterflies of Morocco, List of mammals of Morocco, List of reptiles of Morocco, Flora of Morocco, and List of ecoregions in Morocco.

Morocco is known for its wildlife biodiversity. Birds represent the most important fauna.[35] The avifauna of Morocco includes a total of 454 species, five of which have been introduced by humans, and 156 are rarely or accidentally seen.[36]

The last known Barbary lion in the wild was shot in the Atlas Mountains in 1922.[37] The two other primary predators of northern Africa, the Atlas bear and Barbary leopard, are now also extinct and critically endangered, respectively.

Demographics

Main articles: Demographics of Morocco, Religion in Morocco, and Moroccan people

Most Moroccans practice Sunni Islam and are of either Arabized Berbers or Berber ethnic. Arabized-Berber make up about 99.1% of the Moroccan population.[34]

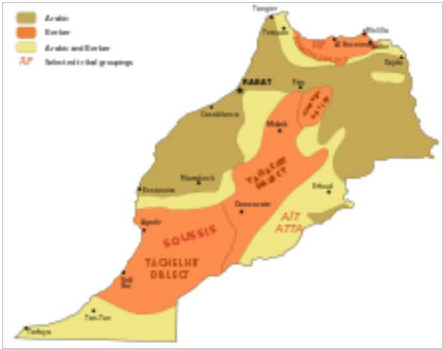
Population of Morocco [38]	
Year	**Million**
1971	15.7
1990	24.8
2009	32.0
Source: OECD/World Bank	

Morocco has been inhabited for at least the last 200,000 years. The Muslims conquered the territory that would become Morocco in the 7th and 11th centuries, at the time under the rule of various late Byzantine Roman leaders and indigenous Berber and Romano-Berber principalities, laying the foundation for the emergence of an Arab-Berber culture. A sizeable portion of the population is identified as Haratin and Gnawa (or Gnaoua), black or mixed race. Morocco's Jewish minority (265,000 in 1948) has decreased significantly and numbers about 5,500 *(See History of the Jews in Morocco)*.[39] Most of the 100,000 foreign residents are French or Spanish. Some of them are colonists' descendants, who primarily work for European multinational companies, others are married to

Moroccans and preferred to settle in Morocco. Prior to independence, Morocco was home to half a million Europeans.[40]

According to The Medieval Legends, In the 12th and 13th centuries there was an invasion of Arab nomads from The Fatimid Empire located in North Eastern Africa, known as Banu Hilal and Banu Sulaym tribes who were a bunch of Arabized Libyan Tribes founded in the Fayum Oasis in Egypt and Cyrenaica of Libya, swept the Eastern Maghreb,[41] but recent studies make clear no significant genetic differences exist between Arabic and non-Arabic speaking populations, highlighting that in common with most of the Arab World, Arabization was mainly via acculturation of indigenous populations over time.[42] The Moorish refugees from Spain settled in the coast-towns.[43] According to the *European Journal of Human Genetics*, Moroccans from North-Western Africa were genetically closer to Iberians than to Black Sub-Saharan Africans and Middle Easterners.[42]

The largest concentration of Moroccans outside Morocco is in France, which has reportedly over one million Moroccans. The Netherlands (370,000) and Belgium have 1 million Moroccans from the Riff (Al Hoceima, Nador). There are also large Moroccan communities in Spain (about 700,000 Moroccans),[44] the Netherlands, Belgium, Italy, Israel and the United States.[45] Moroccan Jews are the second biggest Jewish ethnic group in Israel.



Ethnolinguistic Groups in Morocco

Most people live west of the Atlas Mountains, a range that insulates the country from the Sahara Desert. Casablanca is the center of commerce and industry and the leading port; Rabat is the seat of government; Tangier is the gateway to Morocco from Spain and also a major port; Fes is the cultural and religious center; and Marrakech is a major tourist center.

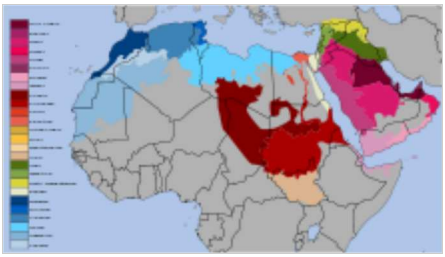
There is a European expatriate population of 100,000, especially in Morocco's main economic center Casablanca, mainly of French or Spanish descent; many are teachers or technicians or retirees.

Languages

In Morocco, there are 15 to 18 million Berber speakers, about 50 to 65% of the population[46] or 28.07% of the total population according to the 2004 population census,[4] that speak the Tachelhit in the High Atlas, the Anti-Atlas and Souss, the Tamazight in the Middle Atlas and Tarifit in the region of Rif. In the 20th century many Berbers have also moved from rural areas to the major cities.

Main article: Languages of Morocco

Morocco's official languages are Arabic and the Amazigh language.[47][48] The country's distinctive group of Moroccan Arabic dialects is referred to as Darija. Approximately 89.84%[4] of the whole population speak Moroccan Arabic. The Berber languages can be found in three different dialects (Tarifit, Tashelhit and Central Atlas Tamazight).[49] Much like other Magreb countries, French is Morocco's unofficial second language and is taught universally, serving as Morocco's primary language of commerce and economics. It also is widely used in government and as a medium of education (to get a master's degree or doctorate in Morocco in any subject other than Arabic language, law or theology, one must study the curriculum in French).


An overview of the different Arabic dialects

Spanish is also popular, especially in the northern part of the country, but the number of speakers is difficult to estimate. According to the 2004 census, 2.19 million Moroccans spoke a foreign language other than French.[4] English, while still far behind French and Spanish in terms of number of speakers, is rapidly becoming the second foreign language of choice, after French, among educated youth. As a result of national education reforms entering into force in late 2002, English is taught in all public schools from the fourth year on. French is still taught nationally from the earliest grades.

Below is the number of speakers of each Berber language, according to the 2004 census:[4]

Region	Tashlhyt	Tamazight	Tarifit	Total pop	% of Berber Languages speakers
Souss-Massa-Draa	1,717,139	313,284	3,873	2,775,953	73.28%
Oriental	48,076	85,916	741,913	1,739,440	50.36%
Guelmim-Es Semara	182,695	6,670	766	382,029	49.77%
Meknes-Tafilalet	37,533	843,595	33,966	1,926,247	47.51%
Tadla-Azilal	199,092	409,446	1,436	1,299,536	46.94%
Marrakech-Tensift-El Haouz	969,561	14,170	2,372	2,765,908	35.65%
Taza-Al Hoceima-Taounate	18,923	111,731	338,083	1,613,315	29.05%
Rabat-Sale-Zemmour-Zaer	166,658	268,687	14,965	2,136,636	21.08%
Fès-Boulemane	23,138	217,845	15,275	1,418,475	18.07%
Laayoune-Boujdour-Sakia El Hamra	28,352	6,569	891	219,505	16.31%
Oued Ed-Dahab-Lagouira	6,910	3,214	296	64,163	16.24%
Grand Casablanca	367,558	25,067	9,036	3,306,334	12.15%
Tangier-Tetouan	26,783	11,963	98,780	2,205,457	6.24%
Gharb-Chrarda-Beni Hssen	37,162	13,816	6,105	1,655,852	3.45%
Chaouia-Ouardigha	40,858	8,308	1,435	1,478,605	3.42%
Doukkala-Abda	24,367	3,656	1,794	1,768,150	1.69%
Morocco	**3,894,805**	**2,343,937**	**1,270,986**	**26,755,605**	28.07%

The number of Tamazight-Tarifit speakers was estimated at around 3 million in 1990.[50] There are also 2 million Riff-speakers in Europe. The Riffians represent over 96%[*citation needed*] of the Morrocans in The Netherlands and Belgium. and 45%[*citation needed*] of the Morroccans in France are Riffian. The High Atlas Region Tamazight dialect is the most widely spoken variety of Berber, as it covers the whole of the Region High Atlas Mountains, including greater external Mountains referred to as Jbel Atlas Saghru or Little Atlas. Studies done in 1990 show around 3 million people, concentrated in the central south of Morocco, speak Tashelhit.[50]

Linguistically, Berber languages belong to the Afro-Asiatic languages group, and has many accents or variants. Collectively, these are known by many Moroccans as "Shelha". Classical Arabic of the Middle East still uses the word "Barbaria" (The equivalent of "Berber" in English). Although, there is an increasing tendency by Maghrebian Media to use the word "Amazighiyya" because the Arabic word "Barbari" means both "Berber" and "Barbarian". The terms "Barbar" and "Berber" are considered by some Berbers and most Berber activists to be offensive. They prefer the word *Amazigh*.

Moroccan DNA



Berber village in the Ourika valley, High Atlas

Recent studies make clear no significant genetic differences exist between Arabic and non-Arabic speaking populations, HLA DNA data suggest that most Moroccans are of a Berber origin and that Arabs who invaded North Africa and Spain in the 7th century did not substantially contribute to the gene pool.[41][51] The Moorish refugees from Spain settled in the coast-towns.[43] According to a 2000 article in *European Journal of Human Genetics*, Moroccans from North-Western Africa were genetically closer to Iberians than to Sub-Saharan Africans of Bantu Ethnicity and Middle Easterners.[52]

The different loci studied revealed close similarity between the Berbers and other north African groups, mainly with Moroccan Arabic-speakers, which is in accord with the hypothesis that the current Moroccan population has a strong Berber background.[53]



Distribution of Y haplotype E-M81 E1b1b1b in North Africa, West Asia and Europe.

The E1b1b1 clade is presently found in various forms in Morocco. Total E1b1b1 (E-M35) frequencies reached at 93.8% in Moroccans [54]

E1b1b1b1(E-M81), formerly E1b1b1b, E3b1b, and E3b2, is the most common Y chromosome haplogroup in Morocco, dominated by its sub-clade E-M18. This haplogroup reaches a mean frequency of 100% to 50% In North Africa, decreasing in frequency from approximately 85% or more in Moroccan Berber populations, including Saharawis, to approximately 25% to the east of this range in Egypt. Because of its prevalence among these groups and also others such as Mozabite, Middle Atlas, Kabyle and other Berber groups, it is sometimes referred to as a genetic "Berber marker". Average North African Moroccan Berbers have frequencies of E3b3 in the +80%. Alvarez *et al.*(2009) study shows a frequency of E3b1b of 28/33 or 84.8% in Berbers from Marrakesh. With the rest of the frequencies being 1/33=3% E3a*, 1/33=3% E3b*, 1/33 or 3% E3b1a, and 1/33 or 3% E3b1c.[54]

The most basal and rare E-M78* paragroup has been found at lower frequencies in Moroccan Arabs. The sub-clade: E1b1b1a1d (E-V65), is found in high levels in the Maghreb regions of far northern Africa. Cruciani et al. (2007) report levels of about 20% amongst Libyan Arab lineages, and about 30% amongst Morrocan Arabs. It appears to be less common amongst Berbers, but still present in levels of >10%. The authors suggest a North African origin for this lineage. In Europe, only a few individuals were found in Italy and Greece. Capelli et al. (2009) studied the beta cluster in Europe. They found small amounts in Southern Italy, but also traces in Cantabria, Portugal and Galicia, with Cantabria having the highest level in Europe in their study, at 3.1% (5 out of 161 people).

Other frequencies of E1b1b1a1c (E-V22) is reported by Cruciani et al. (2007) include Moroccan Arabs (7.27%, 55 people) and Moroccan Jews (8%, 50 people).

Genetic continuity in Morocco

The population exhumed from the archaeological site of Taforalt in Morocco (12,000 years BP) is a valuable source of information toward a better knowledge of the settlement of Northern Africa region and provides a revolutionary way to specify the origin of Ibero-Maurusian populations. Ancient DNA was extracted from 31

bone remains from Taforalt.The HVS1 fragment of the mitochondrial DNA control region was PCR-amplified and directly sequenced. Mitochondrial diversity in Taforalt shows the absence of sub-Saharan haplogroups suggesting that Ibero-Maurusian individuals had not originated in sub-Saharan region.Our results reveal a probable local evolution of Taforalt population and a genetic continuity in North Africa and Morocco. [55]

Genetic structure of Taforalt:

Eurasiatic Component : H, U, JT, V: 90.5%

North African component: U6: 9.5 %

42.8% (9/21) H or U
14.2% (3/21) JT
9.5% (2 individuals) U6

In modern Human population, JT is presents only in:

1.6% Berbers from the North of Morocco 1.8% of Sicilians, 1.6% of Italians.

Genetic Berber Heritage continuity of Moroccan Arabs

The cultural differentiation present in North Africa between Berber and Arab samples seems not to reflect genetic differences between both groups, as shown in the AMOVA analyses, and the MDS and PC analyses. If Arabs in Northern Africa were mostly descendants of Middle Eastern Arabs, the frequencies of haplogroups such as N, U1, U3, U7, and HV that are much more prevalent in the Middle East than elsewhere should be larger in N. African Arabs than in Berbers. However, the opposite is observed : these haplogroups add up to 5% in North African Arabs but to 10% in Berbers. The lack of differentiation between North African Arabs and Berbers has also been observed using other genetic markers such as classical markers (Bosch et al. 1997); autosomal STRs (Bosch et al. 2000), Alu insertion polymorphisms (Comas et al. 2000); and Y-chromosome lineages This pattern suggests that the Arabization of the area was mainly a cultural process, rather than a demographic replacement of the Berber populations that inhabited the region where the Arabic expansion took place,(Bosch et al. 2001).

Genetic influence of Moroccans on Southern Europe

Trombetta et al. (2011) felt that V257 showed a parallel with its sibling clade E-V68 in the way that both clades show signs of having migrated from North West Africa Likely Morocco to southwestern Europe across the Mediterranean sea. They found 6 "E-V257*" individuals in their samples who were E-V257, from a Moroccan Marrakesh Berber, a Corsican, a Sardinian, a southern Spaniard and a Cantabrian.

> Within E-M35, there are striking parallels between two haplogroups, E-V68 and E-V257. Both contain a lineage which has been frequently observed in North West Africa mainly Morocco (E-M78 and E-M81, respectively) and a group of undifferentiated chromosomes that are mostly found in southern Europe. An expansion of E-M35 carriers of E-V68* and E-V257* in the Northren Africa makes a maritime spread between Morocco and southern Europe a more plausible hypothesis.
>
> —Trombetta (2011)

A study from Semino (published 2004) showed that Y-chromosome haplotype E1b1b1b (E-M81), is specific to Moroccan populations and almost absent in Europe except the Iberia (Spain and Portugal) and Sicily. Another 2004 study showed that E1b1b1b is found present, albeit at low levels throughout Southern Europe (ranging

from 1.5% in Northern Italians, 2.2% in Central Italians, 1.6% in southern Spaniards, 3.5% in the French, 4% in the Northern Portuguese, 12.2% in the southern Portuguese and 41.2% in the genetic isolate of the Pasiegos from Cantabria).[56] The findings of this latter study contradict a more thorough analysis Y-chromosome analysis of the Iberian peninsula according to which haplogroup E1b1b1b surpasses frequencies of 10% in Southern Spain. The study points only to a very limited influence from northern Africa and the Middle East both in historic and prehistoric times.[57] The absence of microsatellite variation suggests a very recent arrival from Morocco consistent with historical exchanges across the Mediterranean during the period of Islamic expansion, namely of Berber populations. A study restricted to Portugal, concerning Y-chromosome lineages, revealed that "The mtDNA and Y data indicate that the Berber presence in that region dates prior to the Moorish expansion in 711 AD. ... Our data indicate that male Berbers, unlike sub-Saharan immigrants, constituted a long-lasting and continuous community in the country".[58]

Haplotype V(p49/TaqI), a characteristic Moroccan haplotype, may be also found in the Iberian peninsula, and a decreasing North-South cline of frequency clearly establishes a gene flow from Morocco towards Iberia which is also consistent with Moorish presence in the peninsula.[59] This North-South cline of frequency of halpotype V is to be observed throughout the Mediterranean region, ranging from frequencies of close to 30% in southern Portugal to around 10% in southern France. Similarly, the highest frequency in Italy is to be found in the southern island of Sicily (28%).[60][61]

A wide-ranging study (published 2007) using 6,501 unrelated Y-chromosome samples from 81 populations found that: "Considering both these E-M78 sub-haplogroups (E-V12, E-V22, E-V65) and the E-M81 haplogroup, the contribution of Moroccan lineages to the entire male gene pool of Iberia (barring Pasiegos), continental Italy and Sicily can be estimated as 5.6%, 3.6% and 6.6%, respectively."[61]

A study about Sicily by Gaetano *et al*. 2008 found that "The Hg E3b1b-M81, widely diffused in northwestern African Moroccan populations, is estimated to contribute to the Sicilian gene pool at a rate of 6%." .[62]

According to another recent study about Iberia by Adams et al. 2008 that analysed 1,140 unrelated Y-chromosome samples in Iberia, a much more important contribution of Moroccan lineages to the entire male gene pool of Iberia was found : "mean Moroccan admixture is 10.6%, with wide geographical variation, ranging from zero in Gascony to 21.7% in Northwest Castile".[42][63]

Politics

Main article: Politics of Morocco

Morocco is a *de jure* constitutional parliamentary monarchy with an elected parliament. With the 2011 constitutional reforms, the King of Morocco, still retains few executive powers whereas those of the prime minister have been enlarged. Opposition political parties are legal. Politics of Morocco take place in a framework of a parliamentary constitutional monarchy, whereby the Prime Minister of Morocco is the head of government, and of a multi-party system. Executive power is exercised by the government. Legislative power is vested in both the government and the two chambers of parliament, the Assembly of Representatives of Morocco and the Assembly of Councillors. The Moroccan Constitution provides for a monarchy with a Parliament and an independent judiciary.

The constitution grants the king honorific powers; he is both the secular political leader and the "Commander of the Faithful" as a direct descendant of the Prophet Mohammed. He presides over the Council of Ministers; appoints the Prime Minister from the political party that has won the most seats in the parliamentary elections, and on recommendations from the latter, appoints the members of the government. The previous

constitution(note constitution of 1996) theoretically allows the king to terminate the tenure of any minister, and after consultation with the heads of the higher and lower Assemblies, to dissolve the Parliament, suspend the constitution, call for new elections, or rule by decree, the only time this happened was in 1965. The King is formally the chief of the military. Upon the death of his father Mohammed V, King Hassan II succeeded to the throne in 1961. He ruled Morocco for the next 38 years, until he died in 1999. His son, King Mohammed VI, assumed the throne in July 1999. Following protests in Morocco and elsewhere in the Arab world in early 2011, King Mohammed VI announced the establishment of a committee aimed at preparing the text of a new constitution, which included further limitations on the powers of the monarch.



The current King of Morocco, Mohammed VI

Following the March 1998 elections, a coalition government headed by opposition socialist leader Abderrahmane Youssoufi and composed largely of ministers drawn from opposition parties, was formed. Prime Minister Youssoufi's government is the first ever government drawn primarily from opposition parties, and also represents the first opportunity for a coalition of socialists, left-of-center, and nationalist parties to be included in the government until October 2002. It was also the first time in the modern political history of the Arab world that the opposition assumed power following an election. The current government is headed by Abbas El Fassi.

Legislative branch

Since the constitutional reform of 1996, the bicameral legislature consists of two chambers. The Assembly of Representatives of Morocco (*Majlis an-Nuwwâb/Assemblée des Répresentants*) has 325 members elected for a five year term, 295 elected in multi-seat constituencies and 30 in national lists consisting only of women. The Assembly of Councillors (*Majlis al-Mustasharin*) has 270 members, elected for a nine year term, elected by local councils (162 seats), professional chambers (91 seats) and wage-earners (27 seats). The Parliament's powers, though still relatively limited, were expanded under the 1992 and 1996 and even further in the 2011 constitutional revisions and include budgetary matters, approving bills, questioning ministers, and establishing ad hoc commissions of inquiry to investigate the government's actions. The lower chamber of Parliament may dissolve the government through a vote of no confidence.



The legislature's building in Rabat

2011 Constitutional reforms

On July 1 voters approved the draft of a new constitution which entered into effect on 29 July 2011.[48]

The constitutional reforms consisted of the following:[64]

- The Berber (Amazigh) language[65] is an official state language along with Arabic.[66]
- The state preserves and protects the Hassānīya language (spoken by some 200,000 people in the Moroccan southern Sahara) and all the linguistic components of the Moroccan culture as a heritage of the nation[66]
- Since 2011, the king has the obligation to appoint a prime minister from the party that wins the most seats in the parliamentary elections. Previously, he could appoint any person in this position regardless of the

elections results.[64][67][68]

- The king is no longer "holy and sacred" but the "integrity of his person" is "inviolable",[69] which means that he is still uncriticizable by anybody.
- High administrative and diplomatic posts (including ambassadors, CEOs of state-owned companies, provincial and regional governors), are now appointed by the prime minister and the ministerial council which is presided by the king, previously the latter exclusively held this power.[70][71]
- The prime minister is the head of government and president of the council of government, he has the power to dissolve the parliament.[72]
- The prime minister will preside over the council of Government, which prepares the general policy of the state. Previously the king held this position.[72]
- The parliament has the power of granting amnesty. Previously this was exclusively held by the king [73]
- The judiciary system is independent from the legislative and executive branch, the king guarantees this independence[72][74]
- Women are guaranteed "civic and social" equality with men. Previously, only "political" equality was guaranteed, though the 1996 constitution grants all citizens equality in terms of rights and before the law[68]
- The King would retain complete control of the armed forces, foreign policy and the judiciary;[75] authority for choosing and dismissing prime ministers[76] and he would retain control of matters pertaining to religion.
- All citizens have the freedom of: thought, ideas, artistic expression and creation. Previously only free-speech and the freedom of circulation and association were guaranteed.[68][77]

On 2 July 2011 some Moroccan protesters said they were undeterred despite a landslide victory for King Mohammed in a referendum on constitutional changes they say do nothing to ease his autocratic grip on power.[78]

The nation's interior ministry has offered the tentative date of November 11, 2011 for parliamentary elections[79]

Military

Main article: Military of Morocco


Moroccan Navy Floreal class frigate

Compulsory military service in Morocco has been suppressed since September 2006, and the country's reserve obligation lasts until age 50. The country's military consists of the Royal Armed Forces—this includes the army (the largest branch) and a small navy and air force—the National Police Force, the Royal Gendarmerie (mainly responsible for rural security), and the Auxiliary Forces. Internal security is generally effective, and acts of political violence are rare (with one exception, the 2003 Casablanca bombings which killed 45 people[80]). The UN maintains a small observer force in Western Sahara, where a large

number of Morocco's troops are stationed. The Saharawi group Polisario maintains an active militia of an estimated 5,000 fighters in Western Sahara and has engaged in intermittent warfare with Moroccan forces since the 1980s.



A Moroccan soldier trains with United States Marines

The military of Morocco is composed of the following main divisions:

- Royal Armed Forces
  - Army
  - Navy
  - Air Force
  - Gendarmerie
  - Auxiliary Forces
  - Moroccan Royal Guard
  - Marche Verte

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Morocco

ABEDA, ACCT (associate), AfDB, AFESD, AL, AMF, AMU, EBRD, ECA, FAO, G-77, IAEA, IBRD, ICAO, ICCt, ICFTU, ICRM, IDA, IDB, IFAD, IFC, IFRCS, IHO, ILO, IMF, IMO, Intelsat, Interpol, IOC, IOM, ISO, ITU, NAM, OAS (observer), OIC, OPCW, OSCE (partner), UN, UNCTAD, UNESCO, UNHCR, UNIDO, UPU, WCO, WHO, WIPO, WMO, WToO, WTrO

Affiliations

Organization	Dates
United Nations	since November 12, 1956
Arab League	since October 1, 1958
International Olympic Committee	since 1959
Organisation of African Unity	co-founder May 25, 1963; withdrew November 12, 1984
Group of 77	since June 15, 1964
Organisation of Islamic Cooperation	since September 22, 1969
Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie	since 1981
World Trade Organization	since January 1, 1995
Mediterranean Dialogue group	since February 1995
Major non-NATO ally of the United States	since January 19, 2004

Bilateral and multilateral agreements

- Council of Arab Economic Unity
- Euro-Mediterranean free trade area
- General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
- US-Morocco Free Trade Agreement

Administrative divisions

Morocco is divided into 16 regions,[81] and subdivided into 62 prefectures and provinces.[82]

Regions

Main article: Regions of Morocco

As part of a 1997 decentralization/regionalization law passed by the legislature, sixteen new regions were created. These regions are:

- 01. Oued Ed-Dahab-Lagouira
- 02. Laâyoune-Boujdour-Sakia El Hamra
- 03. Guelmim-Es Semara
- 04. Souss-Massa-Draâ
- 05. Gharb-Chrarda-Béni Hssen
- 06. Chaouia-Ouardigha
- 07. Marrakech-Tensift-El Haouz
- 08. Oriental
- 09. Grand Casablanca
- 10. Rabat-Salé-Zemmour-Zaer
- 11. Doukkala-Abda
- 12. Tadla-Azilal
- 13. Meknès-Tafilalet
- 14. Fès-Boulemane
- 15. Taza-Al Hoceima-Taounate
- 16. Tangier-Tétouan



Regions of Morocco

Provinces

Main article: Prefectures and provinces of Morocco

Morocco is divided into 37 provinces and 2 wilayas*: Agadir, Al Hoceima, Azilal, Beni Mellal, Ben Slimane, Boulemane, Casablanca*, Chaouen, El Jadida, El Kelaa des Sraghna, Er Rachidia, Essaouira, Fes, Figuig, Guelmim, Ifrane, Kenitra, Khemisset, Rommani, Khenifra, Khouribga, Laayoune, Larache, Marrakech, Meknes, Nador, Ouarzazate, Oujda, Rabat-Sale*, Safi, Settat, Sidi Kacem, Tangier, Tan-Tan, Taounate, Taroudannt, Tata, Taza, Tetouan, Tiznit; three additional provinces of Ad Dakhla (Oued Eddahab), Boujdour, and Es Smara as well as parts of Tan-Tan and Laayoune fall within Moroccan-claimed Western Sahara.

Cities

See also: List of cities in Morocco

This is a list of the largest metropolitan areas, each may include several towns and cities, which are in very close proximity to each other.



Casablanca



Rabat



Fes



Marrakesh

Rank	Metropolitan area	Core City	Region	Population
1	**Casablanca**	Casablanca	Grand Casablanca	3,615,903
2	**Rabat-Sale**	Rabat	Rabat-Salé-Zemmour-Zaer	1,670,192
3	**Fes**	Fes	Fes-Boulman	975,507
4	**Marrakesh**	Marrakesh	Marrakesh-Tansift-El Hawz	814,776
5	**Agadir**	Agadir	Souss-Massa-Draa	765,375
6	**Tangier**	Tangier	Tangier-Tetuan	682,871
7	**Meknes**	Meknes	Meknes-Tafilalet	544,804
8	**Oujda**	Oujda	Oriental	473,922
9	**Tetuan**	Tetuan	Tangier-Tetuan	394,305
10	**Kenitra**	Kenitra	Gharb-Chrarda-Beni Hssen	388,295

2004 Morocco population census[83]



Agadir



Tangier



Meknes



Oujda

Western Sahara status

Main articles: Western Sahara and Legal status of Western Sahara



East of the berm is the territory controlled by the Polisario

Because of the conflict over Western Sahara, the status of both regions of "Saguia el-Hamra" and "Río de Oro" is disputed. The United Nations views Western Sahara as a non-self-governing territory, and as a case of unfinished decolonization. Morocco's rule in the territory is not internationally recognized, nor is the independent republic proposed by Polisario, a Saharawi group which fought against the Spanish colonial rule and then for Western Sahara's independence as the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic (today headquartered in Algeria). There is a ceasefire in effect since 1991, and a UN mission (MINURSO) is tasked with organizing a referendum on whether the territory should become independent or recognized as a part of Morocco. At the time, both parties signed an agreement to this effect, but they did not agree on who would be entitled to vote.

The territory is mostly administered as the Southern Provinces by Morocco since Spain handed over the territory to Morocco and Mauritania after the Madrid Accords in 1975–76. Part of the territory, the Free Zone, is an uninhabited area controlled by the Polisario Front as the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic with Headquarters at Tindouf in Algeria. A UN-administered cease-fire has been in effect since September, 1991.

Western Sahara War

Main article: Western Sahara War

The Western Sahara War was the armed conflict which saw the Sahrawi rebel national liberation movement Polisario Front (headquarted in Algeria) battling Morocco and Mauritania for the control of the former Spanish colony of Western Sahara from 1976 to 1991. The war resulted in the Spanish retreat in 1976, the Mauritanian retreat in 1979 and a cease fire agreement with Morocco. The bigger part of the territory remained under Moroccan control.

Moroccan Autonomy Initiative

Main article: Moroccan Initiative for Western Sahara

Recently, the government of Morocco has suggested autonomous status for the region, through the Moroccan Royal Advisory Council for Saharan Affairs (CORCAS). The project was presented to the United Nations Security Council in mid-April 2007. The proposal was encouraged by Moroccan allies such as the USA, France and Spain,[84] and the Security Council "Takes note of the Moroccan proposal presented on 11 April 2007 to the Secretary-General and welcoming serious and credible Moroccan efforts to move the process forward towards resolution;". The Security Council has called upon the parties to enter into direct and unconditional negotiations to reach a mutually accepted political solution.[85]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Morocco


Casablanca Twin Center

Morocco's economy is considered a relatively liberal economy governed by the law of supply and demand. Since 1993, the country has followed a policy of privatization of certain economic sectors which used to be in the hands of the government.[86] Morocco is the world's biggest exporter and third producer of phosphorus. Price fluctuations of phosphates in the international market strongly influence Morocco's economy.

Government reforms and steady yearly growth in the region of 4–5% from 2000 to 2007, including 4.9% year-on-year growth in 2003–2007 helped the Moroccan economy to become much more robust compared to a few years ago. For 2012 the World Bank forecasts a rate of 4 percent growth for Morocco and 4.2 percent for following year, 2013.[87]

Economic growth is far more diversified, with new service and industrial poles, like Casablanca and Tangier, developing. The agriculture sector is being rehabilitated, which in combination with good rainfalls led to a growth of over 20% in 2009.

The services sector accounts for just over half of GDP and industry, made up of mining, construction and manufacturing, is an additional quarter. The sectors who recorded the highest growth are the tourism, telecoms, information technology, and textile sectors. Morocco, however, still depends to an inordinate degree on agriculture. The sector accounts for only around 14% of GDP but employs 40–45% of the Moroccan population. With a semi-arid climate, it is difficult to assure good rainfall and Morocco’s GDP varies depending on the weather. Fiscal prudence has allowed for consolidation, with both the budget deficit and debt falling as a percentage of GDP.

The economic system of the country presents several facets. It is characterized by a large opening towards the outside world. France remains the primary trade partner (supplier and customer) of Morocco. France is also the primary creditor and foreign investor in Morocco. In the Arab world, Morocco has the second-largest non-oil GDP, behind Egypt, as of 2005.

Since the early 1980s the Moroccan government has pursued an economic program toward accelerating real economy growth with the support of the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, and the Paris Club of creditors. The country's currency, the dirham, is now fully convertible for current account transactions; reforms of the financial sector have been implemented; and state enterprises are being privatized.

The major resources of the Moroccan economy are agriculture, phosphates, and tourism. Sales of fish and seafood are important as well. Industry and mining contribute about one-third of the annual GDP. Morocco is the world's third-largest producer of phosphorus (after China, which is first, and the United States which is second),[88] and the price fluctuations of phosphates on the international market greatly influence Morocco's economy. Tourism and workers' remittances have played a critical role since the Kingdom's independence. The production of textiles and clothing is part of a growing manufacturing sector that accounted for approximately 34% of total exports in 2002, employing 40% of the industrial workforce. The government wishes to increase textile and clothing exports from $1.27 billion in 2001 to $3.29 billion in 2010.

The high cost of imports, especially of petroleum imports, is a major problem. Another chronic problem is unreliable rainfall, which produces drought or sudden floods; in 1995, the country's worst drought in 30 years forced Morocco to import grain and adversely affected the economy. Another drought occurred in 1997, and one in 1999–2000. Reduced incomes due to drought caused GDP to fall by 7.6% in 1995, by 2.3% in 1997, and by 1.5% in 1999. During the years between drought, good rains brought bumper crops to market. Good rainfall in

2001 led to a 5% GDP growth rate. Morocco suffers both from unemployment (9.6% in 2008), and a large external debt estimated at around $20 billion, or half of GDP in 2002.[89]

Among the various free trade agreements that Morocco has ratified with its principal economic partners, are The Euro-Mediterranean free trade area agreement with the European Union with the objective of integrating the European Free Trade Association at the horizons of 2012; the Agadir Agreement, signed with Egypt, Jordan, and Tunisia, within the framework of the installation of the Greater Arab Free Trade Area; the US-Morocco Free Trade Agreement with United States which came into force on January 1, 2006, and lately the agreement of free exchange with Turkey.(See Economy of Morocco)

Agriculture

Main article: Agriculture in Morocco

Agriculture in Morocco employs about 40% of the nation's workforce and is the largest employer in the country. Barley, wheat, and other cereals are amongst the main products. On the Atlantic coast, where there are extensive plains, olives, citrus fruits, and grapes are grown.

Below is a table of the agricultural output of Morocco according to estimates of the UN Food & Agriculture Organisation, data is from 2009:



Typical scenery of agricultural lands in the fertile Doukkala region



Argan trees are endemic to Morocco. They produce the Argan oil, valued for its nutritive, cosmetic and numerous medicinal properties

Rank	Commodity	Value (Int $1000)	Production (MT)	Quantity world rank	Value world rank
1	Wheat	939,150	6,400,000	19	17
2	Indigenous Chicken Meat	635,889	446,424	NA	NA
3	Olives	616,541	770,000	6	6
4	Tomatoes	480,433	1,300,000	17	17
5	Indigenous Cattle Meat	433,257	160,384	NA	NA

Rank	Commodity	Value (Int $1000)	Production (MT)	Quantity world rank	Value world rank
6	Cow milk, whole, fresh	409,566	1,750,000	NA	NA
7	Barley	389,709	3,800,000	12	7
8	Indigenous Sheep Meat	325,935	119,706	NA	NA
9	Almonds, with shell	307,240	104,115	5	5
10	Oranges	231,910	1,200,000	14	14
11	Potatoes	230,032	1,500,000	NA	NA
12	Hen eggs, in shell	221,668	267,267	NA	NA
13	String beans	173,716	182,180	3	3
14	Grapes	171,485	300,000	NA	NA
15	Apples	169,166	400,000	NA	NA
16	Strawberries	168,627	124,239	11	11
17	Onions, dry	136,521	650,000	23	23
18	Other melons (inc.cantaloupes)	134,386	730,000	8	8
19	Tangerines, mandarins, clem.	128,945	522,000	12	12
20	Anise, badian, fennel, corian.	127,126	23,000	7	7

Source:
UN Food & Agriculture Organisation (FAO) 2009 data: [1] (http://faostat.fao.org/site/339/default.aspx)

Energy

In 2008, about 56% of the electricity source of Morocco came from coal.[90] However, a new law passed encouraging Moroccans to use more renewable resources. The Moroccan government has launched a project to build a solar thermal energy power plant.[91]


Solar cell panels in eastern Morocco

Transport

Main article: Transport in Morocco

The railway network of Morocco consists of 1,907 kilometres (1,185 mi) 1,435 mm (4 ft 8 1⁄2 in) standard gauge and 1,003 kilometres (623 mi) electrified with 3 kV DC. There are connections to Algeria, and consecutively Tunisia, but since the 1990s the connections are closed. The Gibraltar Tunnel is a rail tunnel link proposed between Tangier, Morocco and Spain under the Strait of Gibraltar to be in operation in 2025.



There are plans for high-speed lines: Work by ONCF could begin in 2007 from Marrakech to Tangier in the north via Marrakesh to Agadir in the

Marrakesh Railway Station

south, and from Casablanca on the Atlantic to Oujda on the Algerian border. If the plans are approved, the 1,500 kilometres (930 mi) of track may take until 2030 to complete at a cost of around 25 billion dirhams ($3.37 billion). Casablanca to Marrakesh could be cut to 1 hour and 20 minutes from over three hours, and from the capital Rabat to Tangier to 1 hour and 30 minutes from 4 hours and 30 minutes.

There are around 56,986 kilometres (35,409 mi) of roads (national, regional and provincial) in Morocco.[92] In addition to 610.5 kilometres (379.3 mi) kilometre of highways.[93]

The Tangier-Casablanca high-speed rail link marks the first stage of the ONCF's high-speed rail master plan, pursuant to which over 1,500 kilometres (930 mi) of new railway lines will be built by 2035 The high speed train -TGV- will carry 8 million passengers per year. It will have a capacity of 500 passengers. the work in the High Speed Train project has started in September 2011[94] and the infrastructure works and railway equipment will end in 2014, and the HST will be operational in December 2015.[95]

Education

Main article: Education in Morocco

See also: Science and technology in Morocco and List of universities in Morocco



Al Akhawayn University in Ifran

Education in Morocco is free and compulsory through primary school. The country's illiteracy rate has been stuck at around 50% for some years, with male literacy at 65.7% and female at 39.6%.[96] On September 2006, UNESCO awarded Morocco amongst other countries such as Cuba, Pakistan, India and Turkey the "UNESCO 2006 Literacy Prize".[97]

Morocco has about 230,000 students enrolled in fourteen public universities. The Mohammed V University in Rabat and Al Akhawayn University in Ifrane (public university) are highly regarded. Al-Akhawayn, founded in 1993 by King Hassan II and King Fahd of Saudi Arabia, is an English-language American-style university comprising about 1,780 students. The University of Al Karaouine, in Fez, is considered the oldest continuously operating university in the world and has been a center of learning for more than 1,000 years.

Morocco allocates approximately one fifth of its budget to education. Much of this is spent on building schools to accommodate the rapidly growing population. Education is mandatory for children between the ages of 7 and 13 years. In urban areas the majority of children in this age group attend school, though on a national scale the level of participation drops significantly. About three fourths of school age males attend school, but only about half of school age girls; these proportions drop markedly in rural areas. Slightly more than half of the children go on to secondary education, including trade and technical schools. Of these, few seek higher education. Poor school attendance, particularly in rural areas, has meant a low rate of literacy, which is about two fifths of the population.

Morocco has more than four dozen universities, institutes of higher learning, and polytechnics dispersed at urban centres throughout the country. Its leading institutions include Muḥammad V University in Rabat, the country's largest university, with branches in Casablanca and Fès; the Hassan II Agriculture and Veterinary Institute in Rabat, which conducts leading social science research in addition to its agricultural specialties; and Al-Akhawayn University in Ifrane, the first English-language university in North Africa,[98] inaugurated in 1995

with contributions from Saudi Arabia and the United States. The University of Al-Karaouine or Al-Qarawiyyin is a university located in Fes. It is considered the oldest continuously operating academic degree-granting university in the world.

Morocco has also some of prestigious Postgraduate Schools like : L'École Mohammadia d'ingénieurs, l'Institut national de statistique et d'économie appliquée, l'École nationale d'industrie minérale, l'École Hassania des travaux publics, l'Institut supérieur de commerce et d'administration des entreprises, ENCG (écoles nationales de commerce et de gestion), EST (écoles supérieures de technologie).[99]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Morocco

Morocco is an ethnically diverse country with a rich culture and civilization. Through Moroccan history, it has hosted many people coming from East (Phoenicians, Carthaginians, Jews and Arabs), South (Sub-Saharan Africans) and North (Romans, Vandals, Andalusians (including Moors and Jews). All those civilizations have had an impact on the social structure of Morocco. It conceived various forms of beliefs, from paganism, Judaism, and Christianity to Islam.


Agdal gardens, Meknes

The production of Moroccan literature has continued to grow and diversify. To the traditional genres—poetry, essays, and historiography—have been added forms inspired by Middle Eastern and Western literary models. French is often used in publishing research in the social and natural sciences, and in the fields of literature and literary studies, works are published in both Arabic and French. Moroccan writers, such as Mohammed Choukri, Driss Chraïbi, Abdallah Laroui, Abdelfattah Kilito, and Fatima Mernissi, publish their works in both French and English. Expatriate writers such as Pierre Loti, William S. Burroughs, and Paul Bowles have drawn attention to Moroccan writers as well as to the country itself.


Old Walls of Essaouira

Since independence a veritable blossoming has taken place in painting and sculpture, popular music, amateur theatre, and filmmaking. The Moroccan National Theatre (founded 1956) offers regular productions of Moroccan and French dramatic works. Art and music festivals take place throughout the country during the summer months, among them the World Sacred Music Festival at Fès.

Moroccan music, influenced by Arab, Amazigh, African, and Andalusian traditions, makes use of a number of traditional instruments, such as the flute (nāy), shawm (ghaita), zither (qanūn), and various short necked lutes (including the ʿūd and gimbrī). These are often backed by explosive percussion on the darbūkka (terra-cotta drum). Among the most popular traditional Moroccan artists internationally are the Master Musicians of Jajouka, an all-male guild trained from childhood, and Hassan Hakmoun, a master of gnāwa trance music, a popular spiritual style that traces its roots to sub-Saharan Africa. Younger Moroccans enjoy raï, a style of plain-speaking Algerian music that incorporates traditional sounds with those of Western rock, Jamaican reggae, and Egyptian and Moroccan popular music.

Each region possesses its own specificities, thus contributing to the national culture and to the legacy of civilization. Morocco has set among its top priorities the protection of its diverse legacy and the preservation of its cultural heritage.

Culturally speaking, Morocco has always been successful in combining its Berber, Jewish and Arabic cultural heritage with external influences such as the French and the Spanish and, during the last decades, the Anglo-American lifestyles.

Cuisine

Main article: Cuisine of Morocco


An array of Moroccan pastries

Moroccan cuisine has long been considered as one of the most diversified cuisines in the world. This is a result of the centuries-long interaction of Morocco with the outside world. The cuisine of Morocco is mainly Berber-Moorish, European, Mediterranean cuisines. The cuisine of Morocco is essentially Berber cuisine(sometimes referred to as the Moorish cuisine). It is also Influenced by Sephardic cuisine and by the Moriscos when they took refuge in Morocco after the Reconquista.

Spices are used extensively in Moroccan food. While spices have been imported to Morocco for thousands of years, many ingredients, like saffron from Tiliouine, mint and olives from Meknes, and oranges and lemons from Fez, are home-grown. Chicken is the most widely eaten meat in Morocco. The most commonly eaten red meat in Morocco is beef; lamb is preferred but is relatively expensive. Couscous is the most famous Moroccan dish along with pastilla, tajine, and harira. The most popular drink is green tea with mint.

Literature

Main article: Literature of Morocco


Koutoubia Mosque, Marrakech. The name is derived from al-Koutoubiyyin, meaning librarian.

Moroccan literature is written in Arabic, Berber and French. It also contains literature produced in Al-Andalus. Under the Almohad dynasty Morocco experienced a period of prosperity and brilliance of learning. The Almohad built the Marrakech Koutoubia Mosque, which accommodated no fewer than 25,000 people, but was also famed for its books, manuscripts, libraries and book shops, which gave it its name; the first book bazaar in history. The Almohad Caliph Abu Yakub had a great love for collecting books. He founded a great library, which was eventually carried to the Casbah and turned into a public library.

Modern Moroccan literature began in the 1930s. Two main factors gave Morocco a pulse toward witnessing the birth of a modern literature. Morocco, as a French and Spanish protectorate left Moroccan intellectuals the opportunity to exchange and to produce literary works freely enjoying the contact of other Arabic literature and Europe.

During the 1950s and 1960s, Morocco was a refuge and artistic centre and attracted writers as Paul Bowles, Tennessee Williams and William S. Burroughs. Moroccan literature flourished with novelists such as Mohamed Zafzaf and Mohamed Choukri, who wrote in Arabic, and Driss Chraïbi and Tahar Ben Jelloun who wrote in French. Other important Moroccan authors include, Abdellatif Laabi, Abdelkarim Ghellab, Fouad Laroui, Mohammed Berrada and Leila Abouzeid. It should be noted also, that orature (oral literature) is an integral part

of Moroccan culture, be it in Moroccan Arabic or Amazigh.

Music

Main article: Music of Morocco



Jewish Wedding in Morocco by Eugène Delacroix, Louvre, Paris

Moroccan music is of Amazigh, Arab and sub-Saharan origins. Rock-influenced chaabi bands are widespread, as is trance music with historical origins in Muslim music.

Morocco is home to Andalusian classical music that is found throughout North Africa. It probably evolved under the Moors in Cordoba, and the Persian-born musician Ziryab is usually credited with its invention. A genre known as Contemporary Andalusian music and art is the brainchild of Morisco visual artist/composer/ oudist Tarik Banzi founder of the Al-Andalus Ensemble (http://www.Andalus.com/)

Chaabi (*popular*) is a music consisting of numerous varieties which are descended from the multifarious forms of Moroccan folk music. Chaabi was originally performed in markets, but is now found at any celebration or meeting.

Popular Western forms of music are becoming increasingly popular in Morocco, such as fusion, rock, country, metal and particularly hip hop.

Morocco participated in 1980's Eurovision Song Contest, being in penultimate position.

Sport

Main article: Sport in Morocco



Marrakech Stadium

Spectator sports in Morocco traditionally centred on the art of horsemanship until European sports—football (soccer), polo, swimming, and tennis—were introduced at the end of the 19th century. Football is the country's premier sport, popular among the urban youth in particular, and in 1986 Morocco became the first Arab and African country to qualify to the second round in World Cup competition. At the 1984 Olympic Games, two Moroccans won gold medals in track and field events, one of whom—Nawal El Moutawakel in the 400 metre hurdles—was the first woman from an Arab or Islamic country to win an Olympic gold medal. Another was Hicham El Guerrouj. Tennis and golf have also become popular. Several Moroccan professional players have competed in international competition, and the country fielded its first Davis Cup team in 1999.



Hicham El Guerrouj (left), twice Olympic champion.

As of 2007, Moroccan society participated in many sports, including handball, association football, golf, tennis, basketball, and athletics. Hicham El Guerrouj, a retired middle distance runner for Morocco, won 2 gold medals

for Morocco at the athletics at the 2004 Summer Olympics and holds the 1.609 km (1.000 mi) world record, along with other notable performances. Also kickboxing is a sport that is very popular in Morocco. Badr Hari, heavyweight kickboxer and martial artist, is a former K-1 heavyweight champion and K-1 World Grand Prix 2008 and 2009 finalist.

Morocco will be hosting the 2015 Africa Cup of Nations. The host cities will include Tangier, Casablanca, Rabat, and Marrakech.[100]

Landscapes and monuments



Ouzoud Falls near Azilal, Middle Atlas



Hassan II Mosque in Casablanca



Old Medina of Chefchaouen, northern Morocco



Ifrane, Middle Atlas is where the lowest temperature was ever recorded in Africa. (−24 °C in 1935)



Jbel Toubkal, highest mountain peak in North Africa



Tislit lake, in Imilchil, High Atlas



Legzira beach near Sidi Ifni, southern Morocco



Erg Chebbi, a Saharan Erg in eastern Morocco

History of Morocco

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **History of Morocco** spans over 12 centuries, without considering the Classical antiquity. The country was first unified by the Idrisid dynasty in 780, representing the first Islamic state in Africa autonomous from the Arab Empire. Under the Almoravid dynasty and the Almohad dynasty, Morocco dominated the Maghreb and Muslim Spain. The Reconquista ended Almohad rule in Iberia and many Muslims and Jews migrated to Morocco. Under the Saadi dynasty, Morocco would consolidate power and fight off Portuguese and Ottoman invaders, as in the battle of Ksar el Kebir. The reign of Ahmad al-Mansur brought new wealth and prestige to the Sultanate, and an invasion of the Songhay Empire was initiated. However managing the territories across the Sahara proved to be difficult. After the death of al-Mansur the country was divided among his sons. In 1666 the sultanate was reunited by the Alaouite dynasty, who have since been the ruling house of Morocco. The organization of the state developed with Ismail Ibn Sharif. With his Black Guard he drove the English from Tangier (1684) and the Spanish from Larache (1689). The Alaouite dynasty distinguished itself in the 19th century by maintaining Moroccan independence while other states in the region succumbed to European interests. In 1912, after the First Moroccan Crisis and the Agadir Crisis, the Treaty of Fez was signed, effectively dividing Morocco into a French and Spanish protectorate. In 1956, after 44 years of occupation Morocco regained independence from France as the Kingdom of Morocco.

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- 2 Phoenicians on the coast
- 3 Roman, and sub-Roman Morocco
- 4 Early Islamic Morocco
- 5 The Berber Empires
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- 9 Independence in 1956
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History of Morocco



This article is part of **a series**

Ancient Morocco

Early Islamic Morocco
(7th C. – 11th C.)

Empire of Morocco
(since 11th C.)

European Protectorate
(1912–1956)

Modern Morocco
(since 1956)

Moroccan dynasties

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Morocco Portal

Prehistoric Morocco

The Capsian culture brought Morocco into the Neolithic about 2001 BC, at a time when the Maghreb was less arid than it is today. The Berber language probably was formed at roughly the same time as agriculture (see Berber), and was developed by the existing population and adopted the immigrants who arrived later. Modern DNA analysis (see link) has confirmed that various populations have contributed to the present-day gene pool of Morocco in addition to the main ethnic group which is the Amazighs/Berbers. A very small percentage of those other populations are Iberians and sub-Saharan Africans.

In Mesolithic ages the geography of Morocco resembled a savanna more than the present day arid landscape.[1] While little is known about Morocco settlement in these early times, excavations elsewhere in the Maghreb suggest an abundance of game and forests that would have been hospitable to Mesolithic hunters and gatherers.

The coastal regions of present-day Morocco shared in an early Neolithic culture that was common to the whole Mediterranean littoral. Archaeological remains point to the domestication of cattle and the cultivation of crops in the region during that period. Eight thousand years ago, south of the great mountain ranges in what is now the Sahara Desert, a vast savanna supported Neolithic hunters and herders whose culture flourished until the region began to desiccate as a result of climatic changes after 4000 BC.

Phoenicians on the coast

Main article: Mauretania

Phoenician traders, who had penetrated the western Mediterranean before the 12th century BC, set up depots for salt and ore along the coast and up the rivers of the territory that is now Morocco. The arrival of Phoenicians heralded many centuries of rule by foreign powers for the north of Morocco. Major early substantial settlements of the Phoenicians were at Chellah, Lixus and Mogador,[2] with Mogador being a Phoenician colony as early as the early 6th century BC.[3] Carthage developed commercial relations with the Berber tribes of the interior and paid them an annual tribute to ensure their cooperation in the exploitation of raw materials.



Phenician plate with red slip, 7th century BCE, excavated in Mogador island, Essaouira. Sidi Mohammed ben Abdallah Museum.

By the 5th century BC, Carthage had extended its hegemony across much of North Africa. By the 2nd century BC, several large, although loosely administered, Berber kingdoms had emerged.

Roman, and sub-Roman Morocco

Main article: Mauretania Tingitana

Initially the Berber kings ruled overshadowing Carthage and Rome, often as satellites, allowing Roman rulership to exist.

But after the fall of Carthage, the area was annexed to the Roman Empire in AD 40. Rome controlled the vast, ill-defined territory through alliances with the tribes rather than through military occupation, expanding its authority only to those areas that were economically useful or that could be defended without additional manpower. Hence, Roman administration never extended outside the restricted area of the northern coastal plain


Roman coins excavated in Essaouira, 3rd century.

and valleys. This strategic region formed part of the Roman Empire, governed as Mauretania Tingitana.

Roman historians (like Ptolemeus) considered that all actual Morocco until the Atlas mountains was part of the Roman Empire[*citation needed*]. During the time of Augustus, Mauretania was a vassal state and his rulers (like Juba II) controlled all the areas south of Volubilis. But the effective control of Roman legionaries was until the area of Sala Colonia (the castra "Exploratio Ad Mercurios" south of Sala is the southernmost discovered until now). Some historians believe[*citation needed*] the Roman frontier reached actual Casablanca, founded by Romans as a port.

During the reign of Juba II Emperor Augustus (who created in the area of what is now northern Morocco 12 colonies with retired Roman legionaries) had already founded three colonias, with Roman citizens, in Mauretania close to the Atlantic coast: Iulia Constantia Zilil, Iulia Valentia Banasa[4] and Iulia Campestris Babba.


Roman remains of Volubilis

This western part of Mauretania was to become the province called Mauretania Tingitana shortly afterwards. The capital was the rich emporium of Volubilis.

In those centuries, the area controlled by Rome had great economic development. Helped by the construction of Roman roads. The area was initially fully under control of Rome and only in the mid-2nd century was built a limes south of Sala and until Volubilis.

Roman control reached the area of Casablanca, then called Anfa according to Leo Africanus: it was used as a port by the Phoenicians and later the Romans.[5]

> *In his book "Wasf Afriquia" Hassan Al Wazan (nicknamed Leo Africanus) refers to "Anfa" (ancient Casablanca) as a great city which was founded by the Romans. He also believed that Anfa was the most prosperous city on the Atlantic coast because of its fertile land.*[6]

Around 278 AD Romans moved their regional capital to Tanger and Volubilis started to lose importance.

The region remained a part of the Roman Empire until 429 AD as the Vandals overran the area and Roman administrative presence came to an end.

Indeed in the 5th century, the region fell to the Vandals, Visigoths, and then Byzantine Greeks in rapid succession. During this time, however, the high mountains of most of modern Morocco remained unsubdued, and stayed in the hands of their Berber inhabitants.

Christianity was introduced in the 2nd century and gained converts in the towns and among slaves and Berber farmers. By the end of the 4th century, the Romanized areas had been Christianized, and inroads had been made as well among the Berber tribes, who sometimes converted en masse. But schismatic and heretical movements also developed, usually as forms of political protest. The area had a substantial Jewish population as well.

Early Islamic Morocco

> *Main articles: Berber Revolt and Idrisid dynasty*

The Arabs conquered the region in the late 7th century, bringing their civilization and Islam. While part of the larger Islamic Empire, Morocco was initially organized as a subsidiary province of Ifriqiya, with the local governors appointed by the Arab governor in Kairouan. The Arabs converted the indigenous Berber population to Islam, but Berber tribes retained their customary laws. Arab-Berber relations were inconsistent and often tense in the early years - while some Arab governors encouraged Berbers to participate in the new Islamic state and cultivated their Berber lieutenants, others regarded them as little more than a conquered people, imposing high taxes and tribute demands upon Berber populations and treating Berber auxiliaries rather shabbily.



The school of Al-Karaouine in Fes, established by the Idrisids in the 9th C.

In the 740, spurred by puritanical Kharijite agitators, the Berbers revolted against Arab rule. The rebellion began among the Berber tribes of western Morocco, and spread quickly across the region. Although the rebellion petered out before the gates of Kairouan in 742, neither the Umayyad rulers in Damascus, nor their Abbasid successors, would manage to re-impose Arab rule on the liberated areas west of Ifriqiya. Morocco slipped out of the leash, and fragmented into a small collection of independent Berber statelets under their own rulers and laws. The Berbers went on to shape Islam in their own image - some (like the Banu Ifran) retained their connection with radical puritan Islamic sects, others (like the Berghwata) constructed a new syncretic faith which was simply folk religion thinly disguised as Islam.

As the "wild west" of the Islamic world, Morocco quickly became a haven for many dissidents, rebels and refugees from the eastern caliphate. Among these was Idris ibn Abdallah, who with the help of the local Awraba Berbers, founded the Idrisid Dynasty in 788. His son Idris II erected a splendid new capital at Fes and launched Morocco as a centre of learning and a major power. Another significant arrival around this time was a group of puritan Miknasa Berber rebels from Ifriqiya, who went on to establish the settlement of Sijilmassa (in southeast Morocco) and open trade across the Sahara desert with the gold-producing Ghana Empire of west Africa. Although the Midrarids of Sijilmassa and the Idrisids of Fez were frequently at odds politically and religiously, the Trans-Saharan trade route made them economically inter-dependent.

The balance was upset in the early 900s, when yet another group of religious refugees from the east, the Fatimids, arrived in the Maghreb. Not long after seizing power in Ifriqiya, the Fatimids invaded Morocco, conquering both Fez and Sijilmassa. Morocco fell into anarchy in the aftermath, fought over between Fatimid governors, Idrisid loyalists, new puritan groups and interventionists from Umayyad al-Andalus. Opportunistic local governors sold and re-sold their support to the highest bidder. In 965, the Fatimid caliph al-Muizz invaded Morocco one last time and established a modicum of order. But no sooner was that done, the Fatimids turned their backs on the west, and moved to Egypt, and their new capital in Cairo.

The Fatimids had assigned the Zirids, a Sanhaja Berber clan centered in Ifriqiya, to keep an eye on their western dominions. But facing their own difficulties, the Zirids were unable to prevent Morocco from spinning out of their control and crumbling into the hands of a collection of local Zenata Berber chieftains, most of them clients of the Caliph of Cordoba, such as the Maghrawa in the region of Fez and their on-again, off-again rivals, the Banu Ifran, just east of them.

The Berber Empires

Main articles: Almoravid Empire and Almohad Empire

Morocco reached its height under a series of Berber dynasties, that arose south of the Atlas Mountains and expanded their rule northwards, replacing the local rulers. The 11th and 12th centuries witnessed the founding of several great Berber dynasties led by religious reformers and each based on a tribal confederation that dominated the Maghrib (also seen as Maghreb; refers to North Africa west of Egypt) and Al-Andalus for more than 200 years. The Berber dynasties (Almoravids, Almohads, Marinids and Wattasids) gave the Berber people some measure of collective identity and political unity under a native regime for the first time in their history, and they created the idea of an "imperial Maghrib" under Berber aegis that survived in some form from dynasty to dynasty. But ultimately each of the Berber dynasties proved to be a political failure because none managed to create an integrated society out of a social landscape dominated by tribes that prized their autonomy and individual identity.



The Hassan Tower, an incomplete minaret in Rabat built during the Almohad dynasty

In 1559, the region fell to successive Arab tribes claiming descent from the Prophet Muhammad: first the Saadi Dynasty who ruled from 1554 to 1659 and then the Alaouites, who founded a dynasty that has remained in power since the 17th century.

The Alaouite Dynasty

Main article: Alaouite dynasty

The **Alaouite Dynasty** is the name of the current Moroccan royal family. The name Alaouite comes from the *ʿAlī* of its founder Moulay Ali Cherif who became Sultan of Tafilalt in 1631. His son Mulay r-Rshid (1664–1672) was able to unite and pacify the country. The Alaouite family claim descent from Muhammad through the line of Fāṭimah az-Zahrah, Muhammad's daughter, and her husband, the Fourth Caliph ʿAlī ibn Abī Ṭālib.



Aït Benhaddou at evening light

According to some legends the Alaouites entered Morocco at the end of the 13th century when Al Hassan Addakhil, who lived then in the town of Yanbu in the Hejaz, was brought to Morocco by the inhabitants of Tafilalet to be their imām. They were hoping that, as he was a descendant of Muhammad, his presence would help to improve their date palm crops thanks to his *barakah* "blessing", an Arabic term meaning a sense of divine presence or charisma. His descendants began to increase their power in southern Morocco after the death of the Saʿdī ruler Ahmad al-Mansur (1578–1603).

In 1659, the last Saʿdī sultan was overthrown in the conquest of Marrakech by Mulay r-Rshid (1664–1672). After the victory over the zāwiya of Dila, who controlled northern Morocco, he was able to unite and pacify the country.

The organization of the kingdom developed under Ismail Ibn Sharif (1672–1727), who, against the opposition of local tribes began to create a unified state. Because the Alaouites, in contrast to previous dynasties, did not have the support of a single Berber or Bedouin tribe, Ismaʾīl controlled Morocco through an army of black slaves. With these soldiers he drove the English from Tangiers (1684) and the Spanish from Larache (1689.) However, the unity of Morocco did not survive his death — in the ensuing power struggles the tribes became a political



Admiral Abdelkader Perez was sent by Ismail Ibn Sharif as ambassador to England in 1723.

and military force once again.

Only with Muhammad III (1757–1790) could the kingdom be pacified again and the administration reorganized. A renewed attempt at centralization was abandoned and the tribes allowed to preserve their autonomy.

In 1777 Morocco was the very first state to recognize the sovereignty of a newly independent United States.[7]

Under Abderrahmane (1822–1859) Morocco fell under the influence of the European powers. When Morocco supported the Algerian independence movement of the Emir Abd al-Qadir, it was heavily defeated by the French in 1844 and made to abandon its support.

From Muhammad IV (1859–1873) and Hassan I (1873–1894) the Alaouites tried to foster trading links, above all with European countries and the United States. The army and administration were also modernized, to improve control over the Berber and Bedouin tribes. With the war against Spain (1859–1860) came direct involvement in European affairs — although the independence of Morocco was guaranteed in the Conference of Madrid (1880),[8] the French gained ever greater influence. German attempts to counter this growing influence led to the First Moroccan Crisis of 1905-1906 and the Second Moroccan Crisis (1911.) Eventually the Moroccans were forced to recognise the French Protectorate through the Treaty of Fez, signed on December 3, 1912. At the same time the Rif area of northern Morocco submitted to Spain.

Under the protectorate (1912–1956) the infrastructure was invested in heavily in order to link the cities of the Atlantic coast to the hinterland, thus creating a single economic area for Morocco. However the regime faced the opposition of the tribes — when the Berber were required to come under the jurisdiction of French courts in 1930 it marked the beginning of the independence movement. In 1944, the independence party Istiqlāl was founded, supported by the Sultan Muhammad V (1927–1961). Although banned in 1953, France was obliged to grant Morocco independence on March 2, 1956, leaving behind them a legacy of urbanisation and the beginnings of an industrial economy.

European influence

Main articles: French protectorate of Morocco and Spanish Protectorate of Morocco



Despite the weakness of its authority, the Alaouite dynasty distinguished itself in the 18th and 19th centuries by maintaining Morocco's independence while other states in the region succumbed to Turkish, French, or British domination. However, in the latter part of the 19th century Morocco's weakness and instability invited European intervention to protect threatened investments and to demand economic concessions. The first years of the 20th century witnessed a rush of diplomatic maneuvering through which the European powers and France in particular furthered their interests in North Africa.[9] Disputes over Moroccan sovereignty were links in the chain of events that led to World War I.

Map of central Morocco. (1830)

The successful Portuguese efforts to control the Atlantic coast in the 15th century did not affect the Mediterranean heart of Morocco. After the Napoleonic Wars, North Africa became increasingly ungovernable from Istanbul by the Ottoman Empire, the resort of pirates under local beys, and as Europe industrialized, an increasingly prized potential for colonization.



Map of the Maghreb before the French invasion of Algeria

The Maghreb had far greater proven wealth than the unknown rest of Africa and a location of strategic importance affecting the exit from the Mediterranean. For the first time, Morocco became a state of some import to the European Powers. France showed a strong interest in Morocco as early as 1830. Recognition by the United Kingdom in the 1904 Entente Cordiale of France's "sphere of influence" in Morocco provoked a German reaction; the "crisis" of 1905-1906 was resolved at the Algeciras Conference (1906), which formalized France's "special position" and entrusted policing of Morocco jointly to France and Spain.



The French artillery at Rabat in 1911

A second "Moroccan crisis" provoked by Berlin, increased European Great Power tensions, but the Treaty of Fez (signed on March 30, 1912) made Morocco a protectorate of France. By the same treaty, Spain assumed the role of protecting power over the northern and southern (Ifni) zones on November 27 that year. Spain was given control of pieces of Morocco in the far north (Protectorate of Tetuan) and south (Cape Juby). Tangier received special international status. From a strictly legal point of view, the treaty did not deprive Morocco of its status as a sovereign state. Theoretically, the sultan remained the sole source of sovereignty. He reigned, but he did not rule.

Under the protectorate, French civil servants allied themselves with the French settlers (*colons*) and with their supporters in France to prevent any moves in the direction of Moroccan autonomy. As pacification proceeded, the French government promoted economic development, particularly the exploitation of Morocco's mineral wealth, the creation of a modern transportation system, and the development of a modern agriculture sector geared to the French market. Tens of thousands of colons entered Morocco and bought up large amounts of the rich agricultural land. Interest groups that formed among these elements continually pressured France to increase its control over Morocco.

Opposition to European control

See also: French Morocco

The separatist Republic of the Rif was declared on 18 September 1921, by the people of the Rif. It would be dissolved by Spanish and French forces on 27 May 1926.



In December 1934, a small group of nationalists—members of the newly formed Moroccan Action Committee (Comité d'Action Marocaine —CAM)—proposed a Plan of Reforms that called for a return to indirect rule as envisaged by the Treaty of Fès, admission of Moroccans to government positions, and establishment of representative councils. The moderate tactics used by the CAM to obtain consideration of reform

—petitions, newspaper editorials, and personal appeals to French officials—proved inadequate, and the tensions created in the CAM by the failure of the plan caused it to split. The CAM was reconstituted as a nationalist political party to gain mass support for more radical demands, but the French suppressed the party in 1937.

Morocco riots overrun Casablanca due to discontent with French rule. Universal Newsreel, 21 July 1955

Nationalist political parties, which subsequently arose under the French protectorate, based their arguments for Moroccan independence on such World War II declarations as the Atlantic Charter (a joint U.S.-British statement that set forth, among other things, the right of all people to choose the form of government under which they live).

Many Moroccan Goumiere assisted the Americans in both World War I and World War II. During World War II, the badly divided nationalist movement became more cohesive, and informed Moroccans dared to consider the real possibility of political change in the post-war era. However, the nationalists were disappointed in their belief that the Allied victory in Morocco would pave the way for independence. In January 1944, the Istiqlal (Independence) Party, which subsequently provided most of the leadership for the nationalist movement, released a manifesto demanding full independence, national reunification, and a democratic constitution. The sultan had approved the manifesto before its submission to the French resident general, who answered that no basic change in the protectorate status was being considered. The general sympathy of the sultan for the nationalists had become evident by the end of the war, although he still hoped to see complete independence achieved gradually. By contrast, the residency, supported by French economic interests and vigorously backed by most of the *colons*, adamantly refused to consider even reforms short of independence. Official intransigence contributed to increased animosity between the nationalists and the colons and gradually widened the split between the sultan and the resident general.

In December 1952, a riot broke out in Casablanca over the murder of a Tunisian labor leader; this event marked a watershed in relations between Moroccan political parties and French authorities. In the aftermath of the rioting, the residency outlawed the new Moroccan Communist Party and the Istiqlal.[10]

France's exile of the highly respected Sultan Mohammed V to Madagascar in 1953 and his replacement by the unpopular Mohammed Ben Aarafa, whose reign was perceived as illegitimate, sparked active opposition to the French protectorate both from nationalists and those who saw the sultan as a religious leader. Two years later, faced with a united Moroccan demand for the sultan's return, rising violence in Morocco, and the deteriorating situation in Algeria, the French government brought Mohammed V back to Morocco. The negotiations that led to Moroccan independence began the following year.

Independence in 1956



The Mausoleum of Mohammed V in Rabat

In late 1955, Mohammed V successfully negotiated the gradual restoration of Moroccan independence within a framework of French-Moroccan interdependence. The sultan agreed to institute reforms that would transform Morocco into a constitutional monarchy with a democratic form of government. In February 1956, Morocco acquired limited home rule. Further negotiations for full independence



Casablanca in 1950s

culminated in the Spanish-Moroccan Agreement signed in Paris on March 2, 1956.[10] On April 7 of that year France officially relinquished its protectorate in Morocco. The internationalized city of Tangier was reintegrated with the signing of the Tangier Protocol on October 29, 1956. The abolition of the Spanish protectorate and the recognition of Moroccan independence by Spain were negotiated separately and made final in the Joint Declaration of April 1956.[10] Through this agreement with Spain in 1956 and another in 1958, Moroccan control over certain Spanish-ruled areas was restored, though attempts to claim other Spanish possessions through military action were less successful.

Almost all speakers of the Judeo-Berber language left Morocco in the years following its independence.

In the months that followed independence, Mohammed V proceeded to build a modern governmental structure under a constitutional monarchy in which the sultan would exercise an active political role. He acted cautiously, having no intention of permitting more radical elements in the nationalist movement to overthrow the established order. He was also intent on preventing the Istiqlal from consolidating its control and establishing a single-party state. In August 1957, Mohammed V assumed the title of king.

The reign of Hassan II

Hassan II became King of Morocco on March 3, 1961. His rule would be marked by political unrest, and the ruthless government response earned the period the name "the years of lead". The new king took personal control of the government as prime minister and named a new cabinet. Aided by an advisory council, he drew up a new constitution, which was approved overwhelmingly in a December 1962 referendum. Under its provisions, the king remained the central figure in the executive branch of the government, but legislative power was vested in a bicameral parliament, and an independent judiciary was guaranteed. In May 1963, legislative elections took place for the first time, and the royalist coalition secured a small plurality of seats. However, following a period of political upheaval in June 1965, Hassan II assumed full legislative and executive powers under a "state of exception," which remained in effect until 1970. Subsequently, a reform constitution was approved, restoring limited parliamentary government, and new elections were held. However, dissent remained, revolving around complaints of widespread corruption and malfeasance in government. In July 1971 and again in August 1972, the regime was challenged by two attempted military coups. The atmosphere in the country remained tense.

After neighbouring Algeria's 1962 independence from France, border skirmishes in the Tindouf area of south-western Algeria, escalated in 1963 into what is known as the Sand War. Morocco invaded to claim the areas for Greater Morocco, but the fighting stalemated within weeks, and Morocco was forced to retreat with no border adjustments. The border remained a contentious issue, but was later demarcated, and Morocco no longer makes any formal claim on Algerian territory.

Despite serious domestic turmoil, the patriotism engendered by Morocco’s participation in the Middle East conflict and by the events in Western Sahara contributed to Hassan’s popularity and strengthened his hand politically. The king had dispatched Moroccan troops to the Sinai front after the outbreak of Arab-Israeli War in October 1973. Although they arrived too late to engage in hostilities, the action won Morocco goodwill among other Arab states. Shortly thereafter, the attention of the government turned to the acquisition of Western Sahara from Spain, an issue on which all major domestic parties agreed.[10]

The Western Sahara conflict

Main article: History of Western Sahara

The Spanish enclave of Ifni in the south became part of the new Morocco in 1969, but other Spanish possessions

in the north (Ceuta, Melilla and some small islands) remain under Madrid's control, with Morocco viewing them as occupied territory.

A defining theme of Moroccan history and foreign policy is the bitter struggle over Western Sahara. Moroccan claims to Western Sahara date to the 11th century. However, in August 1974, Spain formally acknowledged the 1966 United Nations (UN) resolution calling for a referendum on the future status of Western Sahara and requested that a plebiscite be conducted under UN supervision. A UN visiting mission reported in October 1975 that an overwhelming majority of the Saharan people desired independence. Morocco protested the proposed referendum and took its case to the International Court of Justice at The Hague, which ruled that despite historical “ties of allegiance” between Morocco and the tribes of Western Sahara, there was no legal justification for departing from the UN position on self-determination. Spain, meanwhile, had declared that even in the absence of a referendum, it intended to surrender political control of Western Sahara, and Spain, Morocco, and Mauritania convened a tripartite conference to resolve the territory’s future. But Madrid also announced that it was opening independence talks with the Algerian-backed Saharan independence movement known as the Polisario Front.[10]

In early 1976, Spain ceded Western Sahara administration's to Morocco and Mauritania. Morocco assumed control over the northern two-thirds of the territory and conceded the remaining portion in the south to Mauritania. An assembly of Saharan tribal leaders duly acknowledged Moroccan sovereignty. However, buoyed by the increasing defection of the chiefs to its cause, the Polisario drew up a constitution and announced the formation of the Saharawi Arab Democratic Republic (SADR). A new dimension was thereby added to the dispute because the liberation movement could now present its claims as a government-in-exile.[10]

Morocco eventually sent a large portion of its combat forces into Western Sahara to confront the Polisario’s forces, which were relatively small but well-equipped, highly mobile, and resourceful, using Algerian bases for quick strikes against targets deep inside Morocco and Mauritania as well as for operations in Western Sahara. In August 1979, after suffering military losses, Mauritania renounced its claim to Western Sahara and signed a peace treaty with the Polisario. Morocco then annexed the entire territory and, in 1985, built a 2,500-kilometer sand berm around three-quarters of it. In 1988, Morocco and the Polisario Front finally agreed on a United Nations (UN) peace plan, and a cease-fire and settlement plan went into effect in 1991. Even though the UN Security Council created a peacekeeping force to implement a referendum on self-determination for Western Sahara, it has yet to be held, periodic negotiations have failed, and the status of the territory remains unresolved.[10]

More than any other issue since independence, the objective of securing Western Sahara had unified the Moroccan nation. Because of the firm stand the king had taken, it also enhanced his popularity in the country. But the war against the Polisario guerrillas put severe strains on the economy, and Morocco found itself increasingly isolated diplomatically. Successive governments showed little inclination to move seriously against pressing economic and social issues. As a result, popular discontent with social and economic conditions persisted. Political parties continued to proliferate but produced only a divided and weakly organized opposition or were suppressed. Through the force of his strong personality, the legacy of the monarchy, and the application of political repression, the king succeeded in asserting his authority and controlling the forces threatening the existing social order. Gradual political reforms in the 1990s culminated in the constitutional reform of 1996, which created a new bicameral legislature with expanded, although still limited, powers. Although reportedly marred by irregularities, elections for the Chamber of Representatives were held in 1997.[10]

The reign of Mohammed VI

Gradual political reforms in the 1990s resulted in the establishment of a bicameral legislature in 1997, and with

the death of King Hassan II of Morocco in 1999, the more liberal-minded Crown Prince Sidi Mohammed, who assumed the title of Mohammed VI, took the throne. He has since enacted successive reforms to modernize Morocco, and the country has seen a marked improvement in its human rights record. One of the new king's first acts was to free some 8,000 political prisoners and reduce the sentences of another 30,000. He also established a commission to compensate families of missing political activists and others subjected to arbitrary detention. In September 2002, new legislative elections were held, and the Socialist Union of Popular Forces (Union Socialiste des Forces Populaires—USFP) led all other parties in the voting. International observers regarded the elections as free and fair, noting the lack of irregularities that had plagued the 1997 elections. Under Muhammad VI, Morocco has continued down a path toward economic, political, and social reform and modernization. In May 2003, in honor of the birth of a son and heir to the throne, the king ordered the release of 9,000 prisoners and the reduction of 38,000 sentences. Also in 2003, Berber-language instruction was introduced in primary schools, prior to introducing it at all educational levels. In 2004, the government implemented reforms of the family code improving the status of women—first proposed in 2000—despite the objections of traditionalists.[10]

In March 2000, women's groups organised demonstrations in Casablanca proposing reforms to the legal status of women in the country. 40,000 women attended, calling for a ban on polygamy and the introduction of civil divorce law (divorce being a purely religious procedure at that time). Although a counter-demonstration attracted half a million participants, the movement for change started in 2000 was influential on King Mohammed, and he enacted a new *Mudawana*, or family law, in early 2004, meeting some of the demands of women's rights activists.

In July 2002, a crisis broke with Spain over an uninhabited small island lying just less than 200 meters from the Moroccan coast, named Toura or Leila by Moroccans, and Isla Perejil by Spain. After mediation by the United States, Both Morocco and Spain agreed to return to the status quo by which the Island remains deserted and almost a no man's land.

Internationally, Morocco has maintained a moderate stance, with strong ties to the West. It was one of the first Arab and Islamic states to denounce the 9/11 terrorist attacks on the United States. In May 2003, Morocco itself was subjected to the more radical forces at work in the Arab world when Islamist suicide bombers simultaneously struck a series of sites in Casablanca, killing 45 and injuring more than 100 others. The Moroccan government responded with a crackdown against Islamist extremists, ultimately arresting several thousand, prosecuting 1,200, and sentencing about 900. Additional arrests followed in June 2004. That same month, the United States designated Morocco a major non-North Atlantic Treaty Organization ally in recognition of its efforts to thwart international terrorism. On January 1, 2006, a comprehensive bilateral free trade agreement between the United States and Morocco took effect.[10] The agreement had been signed in 2004 along with a similar agreement with the European Union, its main trade partner.

See also

- History of Africa
- History of North Africa
- Imperial cities of Morocco
- List of Kings of Morocco
- Moroccan Wall
- Mauretania Tingitana
- Politics of Morocco
- Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic

Notes

List of rulers of Morocco

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

This is a partial **list of rulers of Morocco**, including the historical precursors to the modern state. The common and formal titles of these rulers has varied, depending on the time period. Since 1957, the designation King has been used.

Contents

- 1 Idrisid dynasty
- 2 Almoravid dynasty
- 3 Almohad dynasty
- 4 Marinid dynasty
- 5 Wattasid Dynasty
- 6 Saadi Dynasty
- 7 Alaouite Dynasty
- 8 See also
- 9 External links

King of Morocco

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Morocco



Incumbent:

Mohammed VI of Morocco

since 23 July 1999

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Prince Moulay Hassan
First monarch:	Idriss ibn Abdallah (Idrisid dynasty) Al-Rashid ibn Sharif (Alaouite dynasty)
Formation:	789 (Idrisid dynasty) 1666 (Alaouite Dynasty)
Residence:	Touarga district, Rabat

Idrisid dynasty

- Idriss I (788–791)
- Idriss II (791–828)
- Muhammad ibn Idris (828–836)
- Ali ibn Idris (836–848)
- Yahya ibn Muhammad (848–864)
- Yahya ibn Yahya (864–874)
- Ali ibn Umar (874–883)
- Yahya ibn Al-Qassim (883–904)
- Yahya ibn Idris ibn Umar (904–917)

The first period of Fatimid overlordship lasted from 922 to 925.

- Hassan I al-Hajam (925–927)

The second period of Fatimid overlordship lasted from 927 to 937.

- Al Qasim Gannum (937–948)
- Abu l-Aish Ahmad (948–954)
- Al-Hasan ben Kannun (954–974)

In 974 the sultan Al-Hasan ben Kannun was defeated by Cordobese Umayyads. A period of Umayyad overlordship followed then.

Almoravid dynasty

- Yusuf ibn Tashfin (1061–1106)
- Ali ibn Yusuf (1106–1142)
- Tashfin ibn Ali (1142–1146)
- Ibrahim ibn Tashfin (1146)
- Is'haq ibn Ali (1146–1147)

Almohad dynasty

- 'Abdul-Mu'min (1145–1163)
- Abu Yaqub Yusuf I (1163–1184)
- Aby Yusuf Yaqub al-Mansur (1184–1199)
- Muhammad an-Nasir (1199–1213)
- Abu Yaqub Yusuf II (1213–1224)
- Abdul-Wahid I (1224)
- Abdallah al-Adil (1224–1227)
- Yahya (1227–1235)
- Idris I (1227–1232)
- Abdul-Wahid II (1232–1242)
- Ali (1242–1248)
- Umar (1248–1266)
- Idris II (1266–1269)

Marinid dynasty

- Abd al-Haqq I (1195–1217)
- Uthman I (1217–1240)
- Muhammad I (1240–1244)
- Abu Yahya ibn Abd al-Haqq (1244–1258)
- Umar (1258–1259)
- Abu Yusuf Yaqub (1259–1286)
- Abu Yaqub Yusuf (1286–1306)
- Abu Thabit (1307–1308)
- Abu l-Rabia (1308–1310)
- Abu Said Uthman II. (1310–1331)
- Abu Al-Hasan ibn Othman (1331–1348)
- Abu Inan Faris (1348–1358)
- Muhammad II. as Said (1359)
- Abu Salim Ali II. (1359–1361)
- Abu Umar Taschufin (1361)
- Abu Zayyan Muhammad III. (1362–1366)
- Abu l-Fariz Abdul Aziz I. (1366–1372)
- Abu l-Abbas Ahmad (1372–1374)
- Abu Zayyan Muhammad IV. (1384–1386)
- Muhammad V. (1386–1387)
- Abu l-Abbas Ahmad (1387–1393)
- Abdul Aziz II. (1393–1398)
- Abdullah (1398–1399)

- Abu Said Uthman III. (1399–1420)
- Abdalhaqq II. (1420–1465)

Wattasid Dynasty

- Abu Zakariya Muhammad al-Saih al-Mahdi (1472–1505)
- Abu Abdallah Muhammad I (1505–1524)
- Abul Abbas Ahmad (1524–1545)
- Nasir ad-Din al-Qasri (1545–1547)
- Abul Abbas Ahmad (second time, 1547–1549)
- Ali Abu Hassun (1549–1554)

Saadi Dynasty

Saadian princes of Southern Morocco (1509-1554):

- Abu Abdallah al-Qaim (1509–1517)
- Ahmad al-Araj (1517–1544)
- Mohammed ash-Sheikh (1544–1554)

Saadian sultans of Morocco:

- Mohammed ash-Sheikh (1554-1557)
- Abdallah al-Ghalib (1557–1574)
- Abu Abdallah Mohammed II (1574–1576)
- Abu Marwan Abd al-Malik I (1576–1578)
- Ahmad I al-Mansur (1578–1603)
- Abou Fares Abdallah (born 1564) (1603–1608 in parts of Morocco)
- Zidan Abu Maali (1603–1627)
- Abu Marwan Abd al-Malik II (1627–1631)
- Al Walid ben Zidan (1631–1636)
- Mohammed Ech Sheik el Seghir (1636–1655)
- Ahmad el Abbas (1655–1659)

Saadian rulers based in Fes (1603–1627, with only local power):

- Mohammed esh Sheikh el Mamun (born 1560), (1604–1613)
- Abdallah II (1613–1623)
- Abd el Malek (1623–1627)

Alaouite Dynasty

Alaouite princes of Tafilalt (1631-1666):

Image	Name	Date of birth	Monarch From	Monarch Until	Date of death

	Muhammad I	9 November 1589	1631	1636 (*abdicated*)	5 June 1659
	Muhammad II	?	1636	2 August 1664 (*killed in the Battle of Angad*)	
	**Al-Rashid**	1631	1664	1666 (*proclaimed Sultan of Morocco*)	1672

Alaouite sultans of Morocco:

Image	Name	Date of birth	Monarch From	Monarch Until	Date of death
	**Al-Rashid**	1631	1666	1672	
	**Ismail Ibn Sharif**	1634/1645	1672	22 March 1727	
	Abu'l Abbas Ahmad II (*first time*)	1677	22 March 1727	March 1728 (*deposed*)	5 March 1729
	Abdalmalik	?	March 1728	July 1728 (*deposed*)	1728

	Abu'l Abbas Ahmad II (*second time*)	1677	July 1728	5 March 1729	
	Abdallah (*first time*)	1678	5 March 1729	28 September 1734 (*deposed*)	10 November 1757
	Ali	?	28 September 1734	14 February 1736 (*deposed*)	April 1737
	Abdallah (*second time*)	1678	14 February 1736	8 August 1736 (*deposed*)	10 November 1757
	Mohammed II	1694	8 August 1736	18 June 1738 (*deposed*)	?
	Al-Mostadi (*first time*)	?	18 June 1738	February 1740 (*deposed*)	1759
	Abdallah (*third time*)	1678	February 1740	13 June 1741 (*deposed*)	10 November 1757
	Zin al-Abidin	?	13 June 1741	24 November 1741 (*deposed*)	?

	Abdallah (*fourth time*)	1678	24 November 1741	3 February 1742 (*deposed*)	10 November 1757
	Al-Mostadi (*second time*)	?	3 February 1742	May 1743 (*deposed*)	1759
	Abdallah (*fifth time*)	1678	May 1743	July 1747 (*deposed*)	10 November 1757
	Al-Mostadi (*third time*)	?	July 1747	October 1748 (*deposed*)	1759
	Abdallah (*sixth time*)	1678	October 1748	10 November 1757	
	**Mohammed III**	1710	10 November 1757	1790	
	Yazid	1750	1790	1792	
	Slimane	1760	1792	1822	
	**Abderrahmane**	1778	1822	24 August 1859	

	**Mohammed IV**	1802	24 August 1859	1873	
	**Hassan I**	1836	1873	7 June 1894	
	**Abdelaziz**	1878	7 June 1894	4 January 1908 (*deposed*)	1943
	**Abdelhafid**	1873	4 January 1908	12 August 1912 (*abdicated*)	4 April 1937

Under French Protectorate (1912–1956):

Image	Name	Date of birth	Monarch From	Monarch Until	Date of death
	**Yusef**	1882	13 August 1912	17 November 1927	
	**Mohammed V** (*first time*)	10 August 1909	17 November 1927	20 August 1953 (*deposed*)	26 February 1961

	Mohammed Ben Aarafa	1889	20 August 1953	30 October 1955 (*abdicated*)	1976
	**Mohammed V** (*second time*)	10 August 1909	16 November 1955	14 August 1957 (*proclaimed King of Morocco*)	26 February 1961

Alaouite kings of Morocco:

Image	Name	Date of birth	Monarch From	Monarch Until	Date of death
	**Mohammed V**	10 August 1909	14 August 1957	26 February 1961	
	**Hassan II**	9 July 1929	3 March 1961	23 July 1999	

	**Mohammed VI**	21 August 1963	23 July 1999	

See also

- Line of succession to the Moroccan Throne
- History of Morocco
- Politics of Morocco

External links

- The Alawi Dynasty (http://4dw.net/royalark/index.html) Royal Ark

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=List_of_rulers_of_Morocco&oldid=474244362"
Categories: Kings of Morocco | Sultans of Morocco | Morocco-related lists | Lists of rulers

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Mohammed VI of Morocco

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Mohammed VI (Arabic: محمد السادس, born 21 August 1963)[1] is the present King of Morocco and Amir al-Mu'minin (commander of the faithful). He acceded to the throne on 23 July 1999 upon the death of his father.[2]

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- 2 Social reform and liberalization
- 3 Wealth and allegations of personal corruption
- 4 Family
- 5 Decorations
- 6 Styles
- 7 References
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Mohammed VI
محمد السادس



King of Morocco

Reign	23 July 1999 – present
Predecessor	Hassan II
Heir apparent	Moulay Hassan
Prime Ministers	***See list***
Spouse	Salma Bennani
Issue	***Detail***
Moulay Hassan Lalla Khadija	
House	House of Alaouite
Father	Hassan II
Mother	Lalla Latifa Hammou
Born	21 August 1963 Rabat, Morocco
Religion	Sunni Islam

Education

On the day of his birth, he was appointed Heir Apparent and Crown Prince.[3] His father, King Hassan II, was keen on giving him a religious and political education from an early age. At the age of four, he started attending the Qur'anic school at the Royal Palace,[1] and received a religious and traditional education.

After primary and secondary studies at Royal College and after he received his Baccalaureate in 1981, Mohammed obtained in 1985 a Bachelor's degree in law at the College of law of the Mohammed V University at Agdal in Rabat. His research paper dealt with "the Arab-African Union and the Strategy of the Kingdom of Morocco in matters of International Relations".[1] He has also frequented the Imperial College and University of Rabat.[3] In the same year of 1985 he was appointed President of the Pan Arab Games and commissioned Colonel Major of the Royal Moroccan Army on 26 November, and Coordinator of the Offices and Services of the Royal Armed Forces until 1994.[3]

In 1987 he obtained his first *Certificat d'Études Supérieures* (CES) in Political Sciences and in July 1988 he obtained a *Diplôme d'Études Approfondies* DEA in Public Law.[1]

In November 1988 he trained in Brussels with Jacques Delors, then President of the European Commission.[1]

He obtained his doctorate in law (PhD) with distinction on 29 October 1993 from the French University of Nice Sophia Antipolis for his thesis on "EEC-Maghreb Relations".[1]

Mohammed was promoted to the rank of Major General on 12 July 1994, the same year he became President of the High Council of Culture and Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Moroccan Army until 1999, the year he succeeded his father on 23 July, being enthroned at Rabat on 30 July.[3]

He received an honorary degree (doctor honoris causa) from George Washington University on 22 June 2000 for his promotion of democracy in Morocco.

Social reform and liberalization



Mohammed VI talks with U.S. President George W. Bush in Washington, 23 April 2002

Shortly after he took the throne, he addressed his nation via television, promising to take on poverty and corruption, while creating jobs and improving Morocco's human rights record. Mohammed VI is generally opposed by Islamist conservatives, and some of his reforms have angered fundamentalists. He also created a new family code, or Mudawana, which granted women more power.[4] The law came into effect in February, 2004.

In December 2010 Wikileaks published diplomatic cables which alleged high-level corruption involving the King himself.[5]

Mohammed VI also created the so-called Instance Equité et Réconciliation (IER), a commission, which was supposed to research human rights violations under Hassan II. The commission was however not allowed to report about human rights violations until 1999, when Mohammed was enthroned. This move was welcomed by many as a move towards democracy, but also criticized because reports of human rights violations could not name the perpetrators. According to human rights organisations, abuses still exist in Morocco.[6][7][8] The 2011 Moroccan protests were motivated by corruption and general discontentment towards politicians in general and by the desire of better life conditions motivated by the economic crisis. The King has answered the protesters with the promise of further reforms.

Moroccan Royal Family



- **HM The King**
  HRH The Princess Consort
    - HRH The Crown Prince
    - HRH Princess Lalla Khadija
- HRH Princess Lalla Meryem
- HRH Princess Lalla Asma
- HRH Princess Lalla Hasna
- HRH Prince Moulay Rachid

In a speech delivered on 9 March 2011 the King said that parliament would receive "new powers that enable it to discharge its representative, legislative, and regulatory mission". In addition to the powers of the judiciary being granted independence from the King. And the king announced that he was impaneling a committee of legal scholars to produce a draft constitution by June.[9]

On July 1 voters approved a set of political reforms that the King proposed. The reforms consisted of the following:[10]

- The Amazigh language[11] is an official state language along with Arabic.[12]
- The state preserves and protects the Hassānīya language and all the linguistic components of the Moroccan culture as a heritage of the nation[12]
- The king has the obligation to appoint a prime minister from the party that wins the most seats in the parliamentary elections. Previously, he could nominate a technocrat in this position if no party has a decisive advantage, over the other parties, in terms of the number of seats in the parliament.[10][13][14]
- The king is no longer "sacred" but the "integrity of his person" is "inviolable" [15]
- High administrative and diplomatic posts (including ambassadors, CEOs of state-owned companies, provincial and regional governors), are now appointed by the prime minister and the ministerial council which is presided by the king, previously the latter exclusively held this power.[16][17]
- The prime minister is the head of government and president of the council of government, he has the power to dissolve the parliament.[18]



Mohammed VI with former Brazilian president Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva

- The prime minister will preside over the council of Government, which prepares the general policy of the state. Previously the king held this position.[18]
- The parliament has the power of granting amnesty. Previously this was exclusively held by the king [19]
- The judiciary system is independent from the legislative and executive branch, the king guarantees this independence[18][20]
- Women are guaranteed "civic and social" equality with men. Previously, only "political" equality was guaranteed, though the 1996 constitution grants all citizens equality in terms of rights and before the law[14]
- The King would retain complete control of the armed forces, foreign policy and the judiciary;[21] authority for choosing and dismissing prime ministers[22] and he would retain control of matters pertaining to religion.
- All citizens have the freedom of: thought, ideas, artistic expression and creation. Previously only free-speech and the freedom of circulation and association were guaranteed.[14][23]



King Mohamed VI inaugurating the way El jabha-Tetouan, 06 September 2007

Wealth and allegations of personal corruption

Until recently the king and his family held stock in the Omnium Nord Africain (ONA Group), a holding company with a diverse portfolio (mining, food processing, retail and financial services, etc.), although a new constitutional implementation disallowed this. Mohammed is estimated by Forbes magazine to be worth $2 billion and the Moroccan Royal Family has one of the largest fortunes in the world. His palace's daily operating budget is reported by Forbes to be $960,000, owing much of it to the expense of clothes and car repair.[24]

Royal involvement in business is a hot topic in Morocco but public discussion of it is sensitive. The US embassy in Rabat reported to Washington in a separate cable that "corruption is prevalent at all levels of Moroccan society".[5]

Corruption allegedly reaches the highest levels in Morocco, where the business interests of King Mohammed VI and some of his advisors influence 'every large housing project,' according to WikiLeaks documents quoted by Britain's Guardian newspaper.[25] The documents released by the whistleblower website also quote the case of a businessman working for a US consortium, whose plans in Morocco were paralysed for months after he refused to join forces with a company linked with the royal palace. Decisions on big investments in the kingdom were taken by only three people, the documents quote one of the executives of a company belonging to the royal family as saying.

The three are the king, his secretary Mounir Majidi, and the monarch's close friend, the politician Fouad Ali Himma, the executive said at a meeting with potential investors in a Gulf country. The corruption affects especially the housing sector, the WikiLeaks documents show.[26]

Family

Mohammed, who was born in Rabat, has one brother, Prince Moulay Rachid, and three sisters, Princess Lalla Meryem, Princess Lalla Asma, and Princess Lalla Hasna.

On 21 March 2002 in Rabat,[3] he married Salma Bennani (now H.R.H. Princess Lalla Salma) in Rabat, and she was granted the personal title of Princess with the style of Her Royal Highness on her marriage. They have two children, Crown Prince Moulay Hassan, who was born on 8 May 2003, and Princess Lalla Khadija, who was born on 28 February 2007.[4]

Decorations

Include:

- Grand Officer of the Order of the Equatorial Star of Gabon (7 July 1977)
- Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (27 October 1980)
- Grand Cross of the Order of the Chrysanthemum of Japan (7 March 1987)
- Grand Cross of the Order of the Republic of Tunisia (x August 1987)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic of Italy (18 March 1997) with Collar (11 April 2000)
- Collar of the Order of Hussein ibn 'Ali of Jordan (x March 2000)
- Grand Collar of the Order of the Seventh of November of Tunisia (x May 2000)
- Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour of France (19 March 2000)
- Grand Cross of the Order of National Merit of Mauritania (x April 2000)
- Grand Cross of the National Order of Mali of Mali with Collar (14 June 2000)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Isabella the Catholic of Spain with Collar (16 September 2000)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Oumayid of Syria (9 April 2001)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Merit of the Lebanon of the Lebanon Special Class (13 June 2001)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Abu Bakar Siddiq of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement (29 June 2001)
- Grand Collar of the Order of al-Khalifa of Bahrain (28 July 2001)
- Collar of the Order of Mubarak the Great of Kuwait (22 October 2002)
- Grand Cross of the Order of the Independence of Qatar (25 October 2002)

- Grand Cross of the Order of the Nile of Egypt (28 October 2002)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Pakistan First Class (Nishan-e-Pakistan) of Pakistan (19 July 2003)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Valour of the Cameroon of the Cameroon (17 June 2004)
- Grand Cross of the Order of the Equatorial Star of Gabon (21 June 2004)
- Grand Cross of the National Order of the Niger of the Niger (24 June 2004)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Leopold I of Belgium (5 October 2004)
- Grand Collar of the Order of the Southern Cross of Brazil (26 November 2004)
- Medal of Honour of the Congress of Peru of Peru (1 December 2004)
- Grand Collar of the Order of Bernardo O'Higgins of Chile (3 December 2004)
- Grand Collar of the Order of the Liberator General San Martin of Argentina (7 December 2004)
- Grand Collar of the Order of the Aztec Eagle of Mexico (11 February 2005)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Burkinabé of Burkina Faso (1 March 2005)
- Collar of the Order of the Chrysanthemum of Japan (28 November 2005)
- Grand Cross of the Order of the Republic of The Gambia (20 February 2006)
- Grand Cross of the Order of Merit of the Congo of the Congo-Brazzaville (22 February 2006)
- Grand Cross of the Order of the National Heroes of the Democratic Republic of the Congo of Congo-Kinshasa (28 February 2006)
- Latvia: Commander Grand Cross with Chain of the Order of Three Stars (14 May 2007)

Styles

The official style of the King is *His Majesty the King Mohammed the Sixth, Commander of the Faithful, may God grant him victory* (صاحب الجلالة الملك محمد السادس أمير المؤمنين نصره الله *Ṣāḥib al-Jalālah al-Malik Muḥammad al-Sādis, 'Amīr al-Mu'minīn, Naṣṣarahu-Illāh*). In contexts wherein he is executing a duty regarding the Royal Moroccan Armed Forces, he is generally entitled the "Commander-in-Chief."

Royal styles of

King Mohammed VI of Morocco



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	Sir

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External links

- Morocco Alaoui dynasty (http://www.usa-morocco.org/alaoui.htm)
- History of Morocco (http://www.mincom.gov.ma/english/generalities/history/history.html)
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Mohammed VI **House of Alaouite** **Born:** 21 August 1963		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Hassan II**	**King of Morocco** 1999–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Moulay Hassan*

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Alaouite dynasty

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Alaouite Dynasty** is the name of the current Moroccan royal family. The name Alaouite comes from the *ʻAlī* of its founder Moulay Ali Cherif who became Prince of Tafilalt in 1631. His son Mulay r-Rshid (1664–1672) was able to unite and pacify the country. The Alaouite family claim descent from Muhammad through the line of Fāṭimah az-Zahrah, Muhammad's daughter, and her husband, the Fourth Caliph ʻAlī ibn Abī Ṭālib.

Alaouite Dynasty



Country	Morocco
Ancestral house	Sharifian
Founder	Moulay Ali Cherif
Founding	1631

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- 2 List of Alaouite rulers
- 3 See also
- 4 Further reading
- 5 External links

Conquest



Empire of Morocco, by Thomas Kitchin (1718–1784)

According to some legends the Alaouites entered Morocco at the end of the 13th century when Al Hassan Addakhil, who lived then in the town of Yanbu in the Hejaz, was brought to Morocco by the inhabitants of Tafilalet to be their imām. They were hoping that, as he was a descendant of Muhammad, his presence would help to improve their date palm crops thanks to his *barakah* "blessing", an Arabic term meaning a sense of divine presence or charisma. His descendants began to increase their power in southern Morocco after the death of the Saʿdī ruler Ahmad al-Mansur (1578–1603). In 1669, the last Saʿdī sultan was overthrown in the conquest of Marrakesh by Mulay r-Rshid (1664–1672). After the victory over the zāwiya of Dila, who controlled northern Morocco, he was able to unite and pacify the country.

The organization of the sultanate developed under Ismail Ibn Sharif

History of Morocco



This article is part of **a series**

Ancient Morocco

Early Islamic Morocco
(7th C. – 11th C.)

Empire of Morocco
(since 11th C.)

European Protectorate
(1912–1956)

Modern Morocco
(since 1956)

Moroccan dynasties

Related Topics

Morocco Portal

(1672–1727), who, against the opposition of local tribes began to create a unified state. {{Reference necessary|Because the Alaouites had difficult relations with many of the country's Berber and Bedouin-Arab tribes, Isma'īl formed a new army of black slaves, the Black Guard. However, the unity of Morocco did not survive his death—in the ensuing power struggles the tribes became a political and military force once again.

Only with Muhammad III (1757–1790) could the kingdom be pacified again and the administration reorganized. A renewed attempt at centralization was abandoned and the tribes allowed to preserve their autonomy. Under Abderrahmane (1822–1859) Morocco fell under the influence of the European powers. When Morocco supported the Algerian independence movement of the Emir Abd al-Qadir, it was heavily defeated by the French in 1844 at the Battle of Isly and made to abandon its support.

From Muhammad IV (1859–1873) and Hassan I (1873–1894) the Alaouites tried to foster trading links, above all with European countries and the United States. The army and administration were also modernised, to improve control over the Berber and Bedouin tribes. With the war against Spain (1859–1860) came direct involvement in European affairs—although the independence of Morocco was guaranteed in the Conference of Madrid (1880), the French gained ever greater influence. German attempts to counter this growing influence led to the First Moroccan Crisis of 1905-1906 and the Second Moroccan Crisis (1911). Eventually the Moroccans were forced to recognise the French Protectorate through the Treaty of Fez, signed on December 3, 1912. At the same time the Rif area of northern Morocco submitted to Spain.

Under the protectorate (1912–1956) the infrastructure was invested in heavily in order to link the cities of the Atlantic coast to the hinterland, thus creating a single economic area for Morocco. However the regime faced the opposition of the tribes—when the Berbers were required to come under the jurisdiction of French courts in 1930 it marked the beginning of the independence movement. In 1944, the independence party Istiqlāl was founded, supported by the Sultan Muhammad V (1927–1961). France was obliged to grant Morocco independence on March 2, 1956, leaving behind both a legacy of urbanisation and industrial economy in some cities, and destruction and isolation in the areas that hosted the Berber resistance against France and Spain between 1912 and 1933.

List of Alaouite rulers

See also: List of rulers of Morocco

From 1631 to 1666 as princes of Tafilalt.

- Muhammad I (1631–1635)
- Muhammad II (1635–1664)

Sultan Mulay Muhammad al-Rashid bin Sharif, 1st Sultan of Morocco, etc., b. at Sijilmasa (Rissani), Tafilalt, 1631, second son of Sultan Abul Amlak Sidi Muhammad I as-Sharif bin 'Ali, Sultan of Tafilalt, educ. privately. Proclaimed at Toza, on the death of his elder half-brother as Sultan of Tafilalt, 2 August 1664. Proclaimed as Sultan of Morocco, etc. at Fez, 22 October 1664.

- Al-Rashid (1666–1672)
- Mawlay Ismail Ibn Sharif (1672–1727)
- Abu'l Abbas Ahmad II (1727–1728) (*first time*)
- Abdalmalik (1728)
- Abu'l Abbas Ahmad II (1728–1729) (*second time*)
- Abdallah (1729–1734) (*first time*)
- Ali (1734–1736)
- Abdallah (1736) (*second time*)

- Mohammed II (1736–1738)
- Al-Mostadi (1738–1740) (*first time*)
- Abdallah (1740–1741) (*third time*)
- Zin al-Abidin (1741)
- Abdallah (1741–1742) (*fourth time*)
- Al-Mostadi (1742–1743) (*second time*)
- Abdallah (1743–1747) (*fifth time*)
- Al-Mostadi (1747–1748) (*third time*)
- Abdallah (1748–1757) (*sixth time*)
- Mohammed III (1757–1790)
- Yazid (1790–1792)
- Slimane of Morocco (1792–1822)
- Abderrahmane (1822–1859)
- Mohammed IV (1859–1873)
- Hassan I (1873–1894)
- Abdelaziz (1894–1908)
- Abdelhafid (1908–1912)

Under French Protectorate (1912–1956):

- Yusef (1912–1927)
- King Mohammed V (1927–1961), changed title of ruler from Sultan to King in 1957. Deposed and exiled to Corsica and Madagascar (1953–1955)
- Mohammed Ben Aarafa, French Puppet (1953–1955)

Restored Independence (1956 onwards):

- King Mohammed V (1955–1961)
- King Hassan II (1961–1999)
- King Mohammed VI (1999–Present)

See also

- List of rulers of Morocco
- History of Morocco
- Order of Ouissam Alaouite
- List of Sunni Muslim dynasties

Further reading

- Waterbury, John. *Commander of the Faithful*

External links

- Royal Ark (http://4dw.net/royalark/index.html)
- Morocco Alaoui dynasty (http://www.usa-morocco.org/alaoui.htm)
- History of Morocco (http://www.mincom.gov.ma/english/generalities/history/history.html)
- A brief History of the Alaouite Dynasty (http://www.maroc-hebdo.press.ma/MHinternet/Archives_436/html_436/grandeur.html) (French).

— Royal house — House of Alaoui		
Preceded by **Saadi Dynasty**	**Ruling house of Morocco** 1666 – present	**Incumbent**

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Oman

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Oman (/oʊˈmɑːn/ *oh-MAAN*; Arabic: عمان *'Umān*), officially called the **Sultanate of Oman** (Arabic: سلطنة عُمان *Salṭanat 'Umān*), is an Arab state in southwest Asia on the southeast coast of the Arabian Peninsula. It is bordered by the United Arab Emirates (UAE) to the northwest, Saudi Arabia to the west, and Yemen to the southwest. The coast is formed by the Arabian Sea on the southeast and the Gulf of Oman on the northeast. The Madha and Musandam enclaves are surrounded by the UAE on their land borders, with the Strait of Hormuz and Gulf of Oman forming Musandam's coastal boundaries.

For a period, Oman was a moderate regional power, formerly having a sultanate extending across the Strait of Hormuz to Iran, and modern day Pakistan, and far south to Zanzibar on the coat of south-east Africa. Over time, as its power declined, the sultanate came under heavy influence from the United Kingdom, though Oman was never formally part of the British Empire, or a British protectorate. The Omani royal family claim that Oman has been ruled by the Al Said dynasty since 1744, although without substantial proof. Oman has long-standing military and political ties with the United Kingdom and the United States, although it maintains an independent foreign policy.[6]

Oman is an absolute monarchy in which the Sultan of Oman exercises ultimate authority but its parliament has some legislative and oversight powers.[7] In November 2010, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) listed Oman, from among 135 countries worldwide, as the nation most-improved during the preceding 40 years.[8] According to international indices, Oman is one of the most developed and stable countries in the Arab World.[9]

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Sultanate of Oman
سلطنة عُمان
Salṭanat 'Umān



Flag



National emblem

Anthem: *Nashid as-Salaam as-Sultani*
National anthem of Oman



Capital (and largest city)	Muscat 23°36′N 58°33′E
Official language(s)	Arabic
Demonym	Omani
Government	Unitary Islamic Absolute monarchy
- Sultan	Qaboos bin Said al Said
- Deputy Prime Minister	Fahd bin Mahmoud al Said[1]
Legislature	Council of Oman
Establishment	
- Imamate established[2]	751
Area	
- Total	309,501 km^2 (70th) 119,498 sq mi
- Water (%)	negligible

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Population	
- 2010 census	2,773,479 [3]
- Density	9.2/km^2 (220th) 23.8/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$80.022 billion[4]
- Per capita	$25,953[4]
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$66.048 billion[4]
- Per capita	$21,421[4]
HDI (2011)	▼ 0.705[5] (high) (89th)
Currency	Rial (OMR)
Time zone	(UTC+4)
- Summer (DST)	(UTC+4)
Drives on the	Right.
ISO 3166 code	OM
Internet TLD	.om
Calling code	968

1 Population estimate includes 816,143 non-nationals.

History

Main article: History of Oman

Stone Age

Dereaze, located in the city of Ibri, is the oldest known human settlement in the area, dating back as many as 8,000 years to the late Stone Age.[*citation needed*] Archaeological remains have been discovered here from the Stone Age and the Bronze Age; findings have included stone implements, animal bones, shells and fire hearths, with the later dating back to 7615 BC as the oldest signs of human settlement in the area. Other discoveries include hand-moulded pottery bearing distinguishing pre-Bronze Age marks, heavy flint implements, pointed



World Heritage Graves in Al Ayn, Oman

tools and scrapers.

On a mountain rock-face in the same district, animal drawings have been discovered. Similar drawings have also been found in the Wadi Sahtan and Wadi Bani Kharus areas of Rustaq, consisting of human figures carrying weapons and being confronted by wild animals. Siwan in Haima is another Stone Age location and some of the archaeologists have found arrowheads, knives, chisels and circular stones which may have been used to hunt animals.

Sumerian tablets refer to a country called Magan or Makan, a name believed to refer to Oman's ancient copper mines. Mazoon, another name used for the region, is derived from the word *muzn*, which means heavy clouds which carry abundant water. The present-day name of the country, Oman, is believed to originate from the Arab tribes who migrated to its territory from the Uman region of Yemen; many such tribes settled in Oman, making a living by fishing, herding or stock breeding, and many present day Omani families are able to trace their ancestral roots to other parts of Arabia.



Wadi Shab, Oman, 2004

From the 6th century BC to the arrival of Islam in the 7th century AD, Oman was controlled and/or influenced by three Persian dynasties, the Achaemenids, Parthians and Sassanids. In the 6th century BC, the Achaemenids exerted a strong degree of control over the Omani peninsula, most likely ruling from a coastal center such as Sohar. By about 250 BC, the Parthian dynasty had brought the Persian Gulf under their control and extended their influence as far as Oman, establishing garrisons in Oman to help control the trade routes in the Persian Gulf. In the 3rd century AD, the Sassanids succeeded the Parthians and held the area until the rise of Islam four centuries later.[10]

Arrival of Islam



The Bahla Fort is a UNESCO World Heritage site

Omanis were among the first people to embrace Islam.[11] The conversion of the Omanis is usually ascribed to Amr ibn al-As, who was sent by Muhammad around 630 AD to invite Jayfar and 'Abd, the joint rulers of Oman at that time, to accept the faith. In accepting Islam, Oman became an Ibadhi state, ruled by an elected leader, the Imam. During the early years of the Islamic mission, Oman played a major role in the Wars of Apostasy that occurred after the death of Muhammad, and also took part in the great Islamic conquests by land and sea in Iraq, Persia and beyond. Oman's most prominent role in this respect was through its extensive trading and seafaring activities in East Africa and the Far East, particularly during the 19th century, when it propagated Islam to many of East Africa's coastal regions, certain areas of Central Africa, India, Southeast Asia and China. After its conversion to Islam, Oman was ruled by Umayyads between 661–750, Abbasids between 750–931, 932–933 and 934–967, Qarmatians between 931–932 and 933–934, Buyids between 967–1053, and the Seljuks of Kirman between 1053–1154.

Portuguese colonization

A decade after Vasco da Gama discovered the seaway to India in 1498, Portuguese explorers arrived in Oman and occupied Muscat for a 140-year period, between 1508 and 1648. In need of an outpost to protect their sea lanes, the Portuguese colonists built up and fortified the city, where remnants of their colonial architectural style still remain.

Rebellious tribes eventually drove out the Portuguese, but were pushed out themselves about a century later, in 1741, by the leader of a Yemeni tribe leading a massive army from various allied tribes, beginning the current line of ruling sultans. Excepting a brief Persian invasion in the late 1740s, Oman has been self-governing ever since.

No foreign power controlled the entirety of what is now Oman. The majority of the territory was always ruled by tribes, with colonial control contained to a few strategic port cities. Oman, as it exists now was never under the total sway of European colonization, unlike true "colonies" such as the British in India.

Oman, East Africa and the Indian Ocean

In the 1690s, Saif bin Sultan, the Imam of Oman, pressed down the East African coast. A major obstacle to his progress was Fort Jesus, housing the garrison of a Portuguese settlement at Mombasa. After a two-year siege, the fort fell to bin Sultan in 1698. Thereafter the Omanis easily ejected the Portuguese from Zanzibar and from all other coastal regions north of Mozambique, with the aid of the Somalis. Zanzibar was a valuable property as the main slave market of the East African coast, and became an increasingly important part of the Omani empire, a fact reflected by the decision of the 19th century Sultan of Oman, Sa'id ibn Sultan, to make it his main place of residence in 1837. Sa'id built impressive palaces and gardens in Zanzibar. Rivalry between his two sons was resolved, with the help of forceful British diplomacy, when one of them, Majid, succeeded to Zanzibar and to the many regions claimed by the family on the East African coast. The other son, Thuwaini, inherited Muscat and Oman.



The Sultan's Palace in Zanzibar, which was once Oman's capital and residence of its Sultans.

A History of Omani presence is also known in Comoros archipelago in the Indian ocean, which led to a great influence in the Comorian culture from the clothing, to the wedding ceremenies. It is said that the capital of Comoros, Moroni, was once the capital of the Omani sultanate empire and a centre of trade for the empire.

Oman and Gwadar

Main article: Gwadar

In 1783, Oman's Saiad Sultan, defeated ruler of Muscat, was granted sovereignty over Gwadar, a coastal city located in the Makran region of what is now the far southwestern corner of Pakistan, near the present-day border of Iran and at the mouth of the Gulf of Oman.[note 1][12] He was to continue this sovereignty, via an appointed *wali* (or "governor"), after regaining control of Muscat, and he maintained close relations with the Emirs of Sindh. The Sultans of Muscat retained sovereignty over Gwadar until the 1950s. In 1955, Makran acceded to Pakistan and was made a district – although Gwadar, at the time, was not included in Makran. In 1958, Gwadar and its surrounding areas were returned to Pakistan by Muscat, and were given the status of Tahsil of the Makran district.[note 2][13]

Dhofar rebellion

Main article: Dhofar Rebellion

The Dhofar Rebellion was launched in the province of Dhofar against the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman and Britain from 1962 to 1975. As the rebellion threatened to overthrow the Sultan's rule in Dhofar, Sultan Said bin Taimur was deposed by his son Qaboos bin Said, who introduced major social reforms and modernised the state's administration. The rebellion was ended by the intervention of Iranian Imperial forces, Pakistani Baluchistan Imperial ground forces, British Royal Air Force air power and major offensives by the expanded Sultan of Oman's Armed Forces.

2011 Omani protests

Main article: 2011 Omani protests

Politics

Main articles: Politics of Oman and Human rights in Oman



The Sultan's Al Alam Palace in Old Muscat

The head of state and of the government is the hereditary sultan, Qaboos bin Said Al Said, who appoints a cabinet called the "Diwans" to assist him. In the early 1990s, the sultan instituted an elected council, the Consultative Assembly of Oman, It had advisory roles until 2011, when Sultan Qaboos decided to give legislative powers to the council, allowing the newly elected parliament to question ministers, propose laws and suggest changes to government regulations.[14]

There are no legal political parties in Oman. As more and more young Omanis return from education abroad, it seems likely that the traditional, tribal-based political system will have to be adjusted.[15] A State Consultative Council, established in 1981, consisted of 55 appointed representatives of government, the private sector, and regional interests.

Foreign policy

Main article: Foreign relations of Oman

Since 1970, Oman has pursued a moderate foreign policy and expanded its diplomatic relations dramatically. Oman is among the very few Arab countries that have maintained friendly ties with Iran.[16][17] Wikileaks disclosed US diplomatic cables which have shown that cordial relations between Oman and Iran have borne fruit for the United Kingdom (in helping release British sailors imprisoned by Iran).[18] The same cables also portray the Omani government as wishing to maintain cordial relations with Iran and as having continuously turned down US diplomats requesting Oman to take a sterner stance against Iran.[19][20][21][22]

Military

Main article: Sultan of Oman's Armed Forces

Oman's armed forces, the Sultan's Armed Forces (SAF), including Royal Household troops, numbered 120,000 in 2010, consisting of: 105,000 personnel in the Royal Army of Oman (RAO), equipped with over 120 main battle tanks and 37 Scorpion tanks; 8,100 personnel in the Royal Air Force of Oman (RAFO) operating 180–200 combat aircraft, trainers, transports and helicopters; and 6,200 personnel in the Royal Navy of Oman (RNO)

sailing 64 patrol and coastal vessels. Paramilitary units include the Tribal Home Guard (Firqats) of 8,000 personnel organized in small tribal teams, a Royal Oman Police (ROP) coast guard of 400, and a small ROP air wing. Funded directly by the Sultan, the elite Royal Household brigade, naval unit, and air unit number 6,400, including two special forces regiments. Oman holds one of the world's largest amounts of Scud missiles, ranging at an estimate of over 30,000 ballistic missiles. In 2008 Oman spent 7.7% of GDP on military expenditures.[23] According to *Times Online*, Oman is home to the world's only camel-backed bagpipe military band.

Geography


Coast of Sur, Oman

Main articles: Geography of Oman and Geology of Oman

Geography of Oman	
Coastline	2,092 km
Bordering countries	Saudi Arabia, UAE and Yemen

Oman lies between latitudes 16° and 28° N, and longitudes 52° and 60° E.

A vast gravel desert plain covers most of central Oman, with mountain ranges along the north (Al Hajar Mountains) and southeast coast, where the country's main cities are also located: the capital city Muscat, Sohar and Sur in the north, and Salalah in the south. Oman's climate is hot and dry in the interior and humid along the coast. During past epochs Oman was covered by ocean, witnessed by the large numbers of fossilized shells existing in areas of the desert away from the modern coastline.


Desert landscape in Oman

The peninsula of Musandam (Musandem) exclave, which has a strategic location on the Strait of Hormuz, is separated from the rest of Oman by the United Arab Emirates.[24] The series of small towns known collectively as Dibba are the gateway to the Musandam peninsula on land and the fishing villages of Musandam by sea, with boats available for hire at Khasab for trips into the Musandam peninsula by sea.

Oman's other exclave, inside UAE territory, known as Madha, located halfway between the Musandam Peninsula and the main body of Oman,[24] is part of the Musandam governorate, covering approximately 75 km^2 (29 sq mi). Madha's boundary was settled in 1969, with the north-east corner of Madha barely 10 m (32.8 ft) from the Fujairah road. Within the Madha exclave is a UAE enclave called Nahwa, belonging to the Emirate of Sharjah, situated about 8 km (5 mi) along a dirt track west of the town of New Madha, consisting of about forty houses with a clinic and telephone exchange.[25]

Climate

Main article: Climate of Oman

Oman has a hot climate and very little rainfall. Annual rainfall in Muscat averages 100 mm (3.9 in), falling mostly in January. Dhofar is subject to the southwest monsoon, and rainfall up to 640 mm (25.2 in) has been recorded in the rainy season from late June to October.[*citation needed*] While the mountain areas receive more plentiful rainfall, some parts of the coast, particularly near the island of Masirah, sometimes receive no rain at all within the course of a year. The climate generally is very hot, with temperatures reaching around 50 °C (122.0 °F) (peak) in the hot season, from May to September.

Climate data for Oman													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Average high °F (°C)	81 (27)	79 (26)	84 (29)	93 (34)	102 (39)	104 (40)	100 (38)	97 (36)	97 (36)	95 (35)	86 (30)	81 (27)	91.5 (33.1)
Average low °F (°C)	63 (17)	63 (17)	70 (21)	75 (24)	84 (29)	88 (31)	86 (30)	82 (28)	81 (27)	75 (24)	70 (21)	64 (18)	75.1 (23.9)
Precipitation inches (mm)	0.5 (12.7)	1 (25.4)	0.598 (15.2)	0.701 (17.8)	0.299 (7.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.299 (7.6)	0.5 (12.7)	3.9 (99)
Source: weather.com[26]													

Flora and fauna

Desert shrub and desert grass, common to southern Arabia, are found, but vegetation is sparse in the interior plateau, which is largely gravel desert.



Nakhal palm tree farms in the Batina Region, Sultanate of Oman

The greater monsoon rainfall in Dhofar and the mountains makes the growth there more luxuriant during summer; coconut palms grow plentifully in the coastal plains of Dhofar and frankincense is produced in the hills, with abundant oleander and varieties of acacia.

The Al Hajar Mountains are a distinct ecoregion, the highest points in eastern Arabia with wildlife including the Arabian tahr.

Indigenous mammals include the leopard, hyena, fox, wolf, and hare, oryx and ibex. Birds include the vulture, eagle, stork, bustard, Arabian partridge, bee eater, falcon and sunbird. in 2001 Oman had nine endangered species of mammals and five endangered types of birds[*citation needed*] and nineteen threatened plant species. Decrees have been passed to protect endangered species, including the Arabian leopard, Arabian Oryx, Mountain gazelle, Goitered Gazelle, Arabian tahr, Green sea turtle, Hawksbill Turtle and Olive ridley turtle, but UNESCO have de-listed the Oman Arabian Oryx sanctuary from the World Heritage list due to the government's decision to reduce the site to 10% of its former size.[27]

Administrative divisions

Main article: Regions and governorates of Oman

Since 28 October 2011, Oman is divided into eleven governorates (*muhafazah*):[28][29][30]

- Ad Dakhiliyah
- Ad Dhahirah North
- Al Batinah North
- Al Batinah South
- Al Buraimi
- Al Wusta
- Ash Sharqiyah North
- Ash Sharqiyah South
- Dhofar
- Masqat
- Musandam

Below the governorates, Oman is divided into provinces (*wilayat*).

Environment

Drought and limited rainfall contribute to shortages in the nation's water supply, so maintaining an adequate supply of water for agricultural and domestic use is one of Oman's most pressing environmental problems, with limited renewable water resources; 94% of available water is used in farming and 2% for industrial activity, with the majority sourced from fossil water in the desert areas and spring water in hills and mountains. Drinking water is available throughout the country, either piped or delivered.

The soil in coastal plains, such as Salalah, have shown increased levels of salinity, due to over exploitation of ground water and encroachment by seawater in the water table. Pollution of beaches and other coastal areas by oil tanker traffic through the Strait of Hormuz and Gulf of Oman is also a persistent risk.

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Oman

Demographics of Oman	
Languages	Arabic,Balochi, English
Religion	Ibadi Islam
Ethnic groups	Arab, Baloch, South Asian and African
Life expectancy	73.13 years

According to the 2010 census, the total population was 2.773 million and of those, 1.96 million were Omanis. The population has grown from 2.340 million in the 2003 census. In Oman, about 50% of the population lives in Muscat and the Batinah coastal plain northwest of the capital; about 200,000 live in the Dhofar (southern) region, and about 30,000 live in the remote Musandam Peninsula on the Strait of Hormuz.

Some 600,000 foreigners live in Oman, most of whom are guest workers from Pakistan, Bangladesh, Egypt, India and the Philippines.

Religion



The Sultan Qaboos Grand Mosque is the largest Mosque in Oman and one of the largest in the world.

Around 75% of the population consists of Ibadhi, a form of Islam distinct from the Sunni and Shia denominations, 24% Sunni Muslims and the Shiia forming the remaining 1% of the Omani population. The Oman government does not keep statistics on religious affiliation, but most citizens are Muslims.[31] Non-Muslim religious communities individually constitute less than 5% of the population and include various groups of Hindus, Buddhists, Zoroastrians, Sikhs, Baha'is, and Christians. Christian communities are centered in the major urban areas of Muscat, Sohar, and Salalah and include Roman Catholic, Eastern Orthodox, and various Protestant congregations, organizing along linguistic and ethnic lines. More than 50 different Christian groups, fellowships, and assemblies are active in the Muscat metropolitan area, formed by migrant workers from Southeast Asia, although there are small communities of ethnic Indian Hindus and Christians that have been naturalized.[*citation needed*] Many of the non-Muslims in Oman are due to the historical and cultural influence of India.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Oman

Economy of Oman

Oman's Basic Statute of the State expresses in Article 11 that, "The National Economy is based on justice and the principles of a free economy."

Omani citizens enjoy good living standards, but the future is uncertain with Oman's limited oil reserves.[31] Other sources of income, agriculture and industry, are small in comparison and count for less than 1% of the country's exports, but diversification is seen as a priority in the government of Oman. Agriculture, often subsistence in its character, produces dates, limes, grains and vegetables, but with less than 1% of the country under cultivation Oman is likely to remain a net importer of food.

Since the slump in oil prices in 1998, Oman has made active plans to diversify its economy and is placing a greater emphasis on other areas of industry, such as tourism.



The Central Bank of Oman

Currency	Omani Riyal (R$, OMR)
Fiscal year	Calendar year
Central Bank	Central Bank of Oman
Stock Market	Muscat Stock Market (http://www.msm.gov.om)

Oil and gas



Petrochemical tanks in Sohar

Oman's proved reserves of petroleum total about 5.5 billion barrels, 24th largest in the world.[32] Oil is extracted and processed by Petroleum Development Oman (PDO), with proven oil reserves holding approximately steady, although oil production has been declining.[33][34] In 2009, production was estimated at 816,000 barrels per day.[35]

Commercial export of oil began in 1967 and since Sultan Qaboos' accession to the throne in 1970, many more oil fields have been found and developed. In June 1999, PDO discovered a new oil field in southern Oman after drilling and testing three wells which demonstrated the commercial viability of the reservoir.

Work is continuing on the RO 503.876 million (US$1.3 billion) oil refinery project in Sohar, which was due to go into operation in 2006 with a 116,400 barrels per day (18,510 m^3/d) refining capacity, with the short to mid-term future of Oman resting on the project. In 2004 the Oman Oil Refinery was supplied with about 78,200 barrels per day (12,430 m^3/d) for refining, while PDO began using steam injection technology in several wells to increase their productivity.

Natural gas has increased greatly in importance due to the exploitation of gas fields and the opening of a processing plant at Sur, on the coast south of Muscat. Oman's natural gas reserves are estimated at 849.5 billion cubic meters, ranking 28th in the world, and production in 2008 was about 24 billion cubic meters per year.[36]

Mineral resources

Oman's mineral resources include chromite, dolomite, zinc, limestone, gypsum, silicon, copper, gold, cobalt and iron. Several industries have grown up around them as part of the national development process which, in turn, have boosted the minerals sector's contribution to the nation’s GDP as well as providing jobs for Omanis. The mineral sector's operations include mining and quarrying, with several projects recently completed, including: an economic feasibility study on silica ore in Wadi Buwa and Abutan in the Wusta Region, which confirmed that there were exploitable reserves of around 28 million tonnes at the two sites; a feasibility study on the production

of magnesium metal from dolomite ore; a draft study on processing limestone derivatives; a project to produce geological maps of the Sharqiyah Region; economic feasibility studies on the exploitation of gold and copper ores in the Ghaizeen area; a study on raw materials in the wilayats of Duqm and Sur for use in the Sultanate's cement industry; and a study on the construction of a new minerals laboratory at Ghala in the Governorate of Muscat.

Industry

The industrial sector is a cornerstone of the Sultanate's long-term (1996–2020) development strategy for diversifying the sources of national income and reducing dependence on oil; it is also capable of helping to meet Oman's social development needs and generate greater added value for national resources by processing them into manufactured products.

The Seventh Five-Year Development Plan creates the conditions for an attractive investment climate, providing a strategy for the industrial sector aiming to develop the information technology and telecommunications industries. The Knowledge Oasis Muscat complex has been set up and expanded, and Omani companies are developing their technological potential through collaboration with various Japanese and German institutions.

There are industrial estates in Sohar, Sur, Salalah, Nizwa and Buraimi providing industries with the resources for expansion. Provision of Natural gas to the industrial estates in Sohar and Salalah, help to promote expansion of those industries reliant on large quantities of energy; tax exemptions are given as an incentive to encourage their expansion and development, with the industrial sector expected to contribute 15% to the country's GDP by 2020.[*citation needed*]

Development plans

The Omani economy has been radically transformed over a series of development plans beginning with the First Five-year Plan (1976–1980). At Sultan Qaboos's instruction, "Vision 2020", a plan for Oman's economic future up to the year 2020, was set out at the end of the first phase of the country's development, from 1970–1995, outlining the country's economic and social goals over the 25 years of the second phase of the development process (1996–2020).



Sohar port is expected to transform Oman's economy

Oman 2020, held in June 1995, has developed the following aims with regard to securing Oman's future prosperity and growth:

- To have economic and financial stability
- To reshape the role of the Government in the economy and to broaden private sector participation
- To diversify the economic base and sources of national income
- To globalize the Omani economy
- To upgrade the skills of the Omani workforce and develop human resources

A free-trade agreement with the United States took effect 1 January 2009, eliminating tariff barriers on all consumer and industrial products, also providing strong protections for foreign businesses investing in Oman.[37]

Tourism

Main article: Tourism in Oman


Al-Bustan Palace Hotel

Oman is known for its popular tourist attractions. Wadis, deserts, beaches, and mountains are areas which make Oman unique among its neighboring Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf (GCC) nations (wadis in particular). With a coastline of 1700 km, Oman offers clean beaches popular with visitors. Few beaches are private, except some attached to the beach resort hotels, or those adjoining military or official property. Wadis are green, lush oases of palm trees, grasses, and flowers. Some wadis have year-round running water, with deep, cool pools in which it is quite safe to swim if the currents are slow. A *Falaj* (pl. aflaaj) is a system for the distribution of water and is commonly used to describe irrigation channel systems downstream of water sources. Some *aflaaj* in Oman were built more than 1,500 years ago, whilst others were built at the beginning of the 20th century. In many areas, the only water available is attained by drilling wells to depths of dozens of meters. [*citation needed*]

Numerous forts and castles are included among Oman's cultural landmarks and, together with its towers and city walls, have historically been used as defensive bastions or look-out points, as well as the seats of administrative and judicial authority. There are over 500 forts, castles, and towers in various architectural styles, built to defend more than 3200 km coastline from potential invaders.


Inside of Grand Hyatt at Muscat

Souqs can be found in many of the towns throughout the country. One of the oldest preserved souqs in Oman is Muttrah, on the Corniche, consisting of a maze of pathways; gold and silver jewelry is found in abundance as well as numerous wooden carvings, ornaments and spices and traditional implements. Household goods make up the bulk of the wares. Today the capital area also has a number of Western European-style Shopping Malls, mainly situated in Qurum, but also extending to the Al Khuwair area of Muscat, where a variety of shops, ranging from boutiques to chain stores, can be found.[38] The largest mall in the country is the Muscat City Centre which includes a French Carrefour hypermarket. Another mall namely the Muscat Grand Mall is expected to open soon and it will be the largest mall in Oman.Now 10 other big hypermarkets are there in Oman named Lulu Hypermarket.

Other popular tourist activities include sand skiing in the desert, scuba diving, rock climbing, trekking, surfing & sailing, cave exploration, birdwatching, bull fighting, and camel races. The Sohar Music Festival happening in Sohar every October/November attracts more and more tourists each year. The Muscat Festival, usually held in January and February, is similar to the Dubai Shopping Festival, but smaller in scale, where traditional dances are held, temporary theme parks open, and concerts take place. Another popular event is The Khareef Festival held in Salalah, Dhofar, which is 1,200 km from the capital city of Muscat, during the monsoon season (August) and is similar to Muscat Festival. During this latter event the mountains surrounding Salalah are popular with tourists as a result of the cool weather and lush greenery, rarely found anywhere else in Oman.[39]

Labor

The estimated workforce was 920,000 in 2002. These days average pay is around 100 OMR to 150 OMR per month. A large proportion of the indigenous population were still engaged in subsistence agriculture or fishing. The skilled local labor force is small, and many of the larger industries depend on foreign workers from Pakistan, Bangladesh, Philippines, India, and Sri Lanka. Oman's foreign workers send an estimated US$30 billion annually to their Asian and African home states, more than half of them earning a monthly wage of less than US$400[40].

The largest foreign community is from the south Indian states of Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka or come from Maharastra, Gujarat and the Punjab[41], representing more than half of entire workforce in Oman. Salaries for overseas workers are known to be less than for Omani nationals, though still from two to five times higher than for the equivalent job in India[40].

The minimum working age for Omani citizens is 13, but this provision is not enforced against the employment of children in family businesses or on family farms. The minimum working age for foreign workers is 21. The minimum wage for non-professional workers was US$260 per month in 2002. However, many classes of workers (domestic servants, farmers, government employees) are not required to receive the minimum wage and the government is not consistent in its enforcement of the minimum wage law. The private sector working week is 40 to 45 hours long, while government officials have a 35-hour working week.[*citation needed*]

Labor unions

Oman Law was amended during February 2010 to allow the formation of labor unions. There are now approximately 70 Labor Unions within the Sultanate. The law actually allows peaceful protests. Collective bargaining is not permitted, however there exist labor-management committees in firms with more than 50 workers. These committees are not authorized to discuss conditions of employment, including hours and wages. The Labor Welfare Board provides a venue for grievances.[*citation needed*]

Inflation

As oil prices have risen to a record high, so has inflation. The government depends mostly on oil revenue, more than on tax returns from companies and other government-owned companies. The government is also Oman's largest employer, so the high interest that government gets increases the prices of food and construction equipment. The government did support the fuel prices so it doesn't increase the inflation and to make the price suitable for people on low wages.

The minimum wage has been changed from 120 Rials a month to 140 Rials because of high records of inflation driven by high prices of oil.[*citation needed*] In February 2011, the minimum wage was increased from 140 Rials per month to 200 Rials per month.[*citation needed*]

Transportation

Main article: Transport in Oman

Oman maintains the following road links to its neighboring countries:

- United Arab Emirates: Oman has several good road connections at Buraimi (Al Ain), Waddi Hatta (Wajaja), Khamat Mulahah (Fujairah) and Bukha.
- Yemen: Route 47: Raysut to Sarfait in Oman – Yemen border. The road then goes to Hawf, Al Faydami, Al Ghaydah. Another road is from Thumrait to Al Mazyonah in Oman – Yemen border.The road then goes to Shisan, Al Kurah, Al Ghaydah.
- Saudi Arabia: Desert road through Al Mashash. There is also a new road under construction to link the two countries.

Oman National Transport Company or ONTC is the Oman's public bus service company. Muscat International Airport and Salalah Airport are the two main airports in Oman. A rail link has been proposed connecting all major GCC nations and Oman is party to this project. The Muscat Port or Port Sultan Qaboos (Mina Qaboos as its locally known) is the prime maritime gateway of Oman. Other ports have been built in Salalah and Sohar. The

Sohar port will be one of the largest in the region once construction completely finishes. Oman is also constructing the Al Duqm Port & Drydock and drydock.

Oman Air is the national carrier of Oman. Formerly Gulf Air was the national carrier of the Sultanate, but as other Arab nations withdrew from the joint venture, Oman too withdrew. It was the last country to do so.

The Oman Ferries Company maintains the two diesel-powered, high-speed, car ferries – Shinas and Hormouz. The ferries are used for travel between Muscat and Khasab. Khasab is strategically located in Musandam on the southern tip of the Strait of Hormuz and is controlled by Oman. Mainland Oman is separated by a small strip of UAE territory from Musandam.[42]

Education

Main article: Education in Oman

Before 1970, only three formal schools existed in the whole country with fewer than 1000 students receiving education in them. Since Sultan Qaboos came to power in 1970, the government has given high priority to education to develop a domestic work force, which the government considers a vital factor in the country's economic and social progress. Today there are over 1000 state schools and about 650,000 students. In 1986, Oman's first university, Sultan Qaboos University, opened. University of Nizwa is also one of the fastest growing Universities in Oman with a newly completed research center and a growing department of Information Systems. The department of Information Systems of the University of Nizwa is perhaps the biggest in the Gulf in terms of students' population. Among notable American Professors include Dr. Richmond Adebiaye who is considered an expert in Information Systems and Security. Other post-secondary institutions in Oman include Higher College of Technology and its six other colleges of technology, six colleges of applied sciences (including a teacher's training college), a college of banking and financial studies, an institute of Sharia sciences, and several nursing institutes. Some 200 scholarships are awarded each year for study abroad.

University of Nizwa

The University of Nizwa was established in 2002 by the Decree of His Majesty the Sultan Qaboos as the first non-profit university in the Sultanate of Oman; it remains the only institution of its kind in the nation. Upon the satisfaction of all requirements set forth by the Ministry of Higher Education and the Higher Education Council, the University of Nizwa was granted legal status by ministerial decision No. 1/2004 on 3 January 2004. On 16 October 2004, the University of Nizwa opened the doors to its inaugural class of 1,200 students, 88% of whom were Omani women. The current campus is located near the base of the famous Jabal al-Akhdhar in Birkat al-Mouz, 20 km NW of Nizwa. The construction of a new campus, located near the new Farq-Hail highwa began in March 2010. The university is currently in the final stage of institutional accreditation in accordance with the academic standards established by the Oman Academic Accreditation Authority.

Though the student body comprises native Arabic speakers, the official language of academic instruction is English, making the university a bilingual institution. English language proficiency is achieved in a year-long intensive course as part of the academic General Foundation Program.

Pre-university education in Oman has three stages: primary, preparatory, and secondary. Six years of primary schooling are followed by preparatory school. Academic results of the preparatory exams determine the type of secondary education the student will receive. Nine private colleges exist, providing two-year post secondary diplomas. Since 1999, the government has embarked on reforms in higher education designed to meet the needs of a growing population, only a small percentage of which are currently admitted to Higher Education Institutions. Under the reformed system, four public regional universities will be created, and incentives are

provided by the government to promote the upgrading of the existing nine private colleges and the creation of other degree-granting private colleges.[*citation needed*]

The adult illiteracy rate was estimated at 28.1% for the year 2000 (males, 19.6%; females, 38.3%). In 1998, there were 411 primary schools with 313,516 students and 12,052 teachers. Student-to-teacher ratio stood at 26 to 1. In secondary schools in 1998, there were 12,436 teachers and 217,246 students. As of 1999, 65% of primary-school-age children were enrolled in school, while 59% of those eligible attended secondary school. In the same year, public expenditure on education was estimated at 3.9% of GDP. In 1993, there were 252 literacy centers and 176 adult education centers. Three teachers' colleges were functioning as of 1986. The Institute of Agriculture at Nazwa became a full college by 1985. Sultan Qaboos University opened in 1986. In 1998, all higher-level institutions had 1,307 teachers and 16,032 students.

Apart from the schools for Omani nationals, various other schools are present in Oman too that accommodate the children of the huge expatriate population of Oman. These include Indian Schools, Bangaldeshi Schools, Sri Lankan Schools, Pakistani Schools, The American School in Muscat, The American British Academy and the Philippine School Muscat.

Science and technology

Most research conducted in Oman has been done at the behest of the government; agriculture, minerals, water resources, and marine sciences have drawn the most attention. Sultan Qaboos University, founded in 1985, has colleges of science, medicine, engineering, and agriculture. In 1987–97, science and engineering students accounted for 13% of college and university enrollments.



A water oasis in Oman provides a source of drinking water for animals and humans.

The Institute of Health Sciences, under the Ministry of Health, was founded in 1982. Muscat Technical Industrial College (later renamed the Higher College of Technology), founded in 1984, has departments of computing and mathematics, laboratory science, and electrical, construction, and mechanical engineering.[*citation needed*] The Oman Natural History Museum, founded in 1983, includes the national herbarium and the national shell collection. All of these organizations are located in Muscat.

Meteorites

The central desert of Oman is an important source of meteorites for scientific analysis.[43] Since 1999, search campaigns in Oman have provided about 20% of the world's meteorites.[*citation needed*] These include rare meteorites from Mars and the Moon. The meteorite accumulations in the gravelly central desert play an important role in increasing knowledge of conditions in the early solar system.

Health

As of 1999, there were an estimated 1.3 physicians and 2.2 hospital beds per 1,000 people. In 1993, 89% of the population had access to health care services. In 2000, 99% of the population had access to health care services.[*citation needed*] During the last three decades, the Oman health care system has demonstrated and reported great achievements in health care services and preventive and curative medicine. In 2001, Oman was ranked number 8 by the World Health Organization.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Oman

See also: Islam in Oman, List of traditional games in Oman, Music of Oman, Cinema of Oman, and Women in Oman

Although Arabic is Oman's official language, there are native speakers of different dialects, as well as Balochi (the language of the Baloch from Baluchistan western-Pakistan, eastern Iran), and southern Afghanistan or offshoots of Southern Arabian, and some descendants of Sindhi sailors. Also spoken in Oman are Semitic languages only distantly related to Arabic, but closely related to Semitic languages in Eritrea and Ethiopia. Swahili and English are also widely spoken in the country due to the historical relations between Oman and Zanzibar the two languages have been linked historically. The dominant indigenous language is a dialect of Arabic and the country has also adopted English as a second language. Almost all signs and writings appear in both Arabic and English.[*citation needed*] A significant number also speak Urdu, due to the influx of Pakistani migrants during the late 1980s and the 1990s.

Oman is famous for its khanjar knives, which are curved daggers worn during holidays as part of ceremonial dress. During the Medieval era, khanjars became highly popular as they symbolized Muslim sailors, and later various types of khanjars were made, representing various sailing nations in the Muslim world. Today, traditional clothing is worn by most Omani men. This typically consists of an ankle-length, collarless robe called a *dishdasha* that buttons at the neck with a tassel hanging down. Traditionally, this tassel would be dipped in perfume. Today the tassel is merely a traditional part of the *dishdasha*.



Khanjar knife, traditional dagger of Oman, circa 1924

Women wear the hijab and abaya. Some women cover their faces and hands, but most do not.[*citation needed*] The abaya is a traditional dress and currently comes in different styles. The Sultan has forbidden the covering of faces in universities. On holidays, such as Eid, the women wear traditional dress, which is often very brightly colored and consists of a mid-calf length tunic over trousers. The Abaya is mostly worn in the capital, whereas in the interior regions brightly colored dresses are the usual attire.[*citation needed*]

Food

Main article: Cuisine of Oman

The main daily meal is usually eaten at midday, while the evening meal is lighter. During Ramadan, dinner is served after the Taraweeh prayers, sometimes as late as 11 pm. *Maqbous* is a rice dish, with yellow rice and saffron served and cooked over spicy red or white meat. *Arsia* is a festival meal, served during celebrations, which consists of mashed rice flavoured with spices. Another popular festival meal is *shuwa*, which is meat cooked very slowly (sometimes for up to 2 days) in an underground clay oven. The meat becomes extremely tender and it is infused with spices and herbs before cooking to give it a very distinct taste. Fish is often used in main dishes too, and the kingfish is a popular ingredient. *Mashuai* is a meal consisting of a whole spit-roasted kingfish served with lemon rice. *Rukhal* bread is a thin, round bread originally baked over a fire made from palm leaves. It is eaten at any meal, typically served with Omani honey for breakfast or crumbled over curry for dinner. Chicken, fish and mutton are regularly used in dishes.

Although spices, herbs, onion, garlic and lime are liberally used in traditional Omani Cuisine, unlike similar Asian food, it is not hot or spicy. Omani Cuisine is also distinct from the Indigenous foods of other Arab states of the Arabian Peninsula and even varies within the Sultanate's different regions.[*citation needed*] There are also significant differences in cuisine between different regions of Oman.

Sport

The government aims to give young people a fully rounded education by providing activities and experience in the sporting, cultural, intellectual, social and scientific spheres, and to excel internationally in these areas and for this reason, in October 2004, the government created a Ministry of Sports Affairs to replace the General Organization for youth, sports and cultural affairs.

Sports of Oman

Popular sports	Football, volleyball, handball, basketball and hockey.
National sports teams	5
National sports clubs	48
National colors	Red, white, green

The 2009 Gulf Cup of Nations, the 19th edition, took place in Muscat, from 4 to 17 January 2009 and was won by the Omani national football team.

The International Olympic Committee awarded the former GOYSCA its prestigious prize for Sporting excellence in recognition of its contributions to youth and sports and its efforts to promote the Olympic spirit and goals.

The Oman Olympic Committee played a major part in organizing the highly successful 2003 Olympic Days, which were of great benefit to the sports associations, clubs and young participants. The football association took part, along with the handball, basketball, rugby union, hockey, volleyball, athletics, swimming, and tennis associations. In 2010, Muscat hosted the 2010 Asian Beach Games.



Ali Al-Habsi is an Omani professional association football player. He currently plays in the Premier League as a goalkeeper for Wigan Athletic.[44]

They also host tennis tournaments in different age divisions each year. Inside the Sultan Qaboos Sports Complex stadium contains a 50 meter pool for swimming which is used for international tournaments from different schools in different countries. The Tour of Oman, a professional cycling 6-day stage race, is held in February.

Oman also hosted the Asian 2011 FIFA Beach Soccer World Cup qualifiers, where 11 teams are competing for 3 spots at the FIFA World Cup.

Oman is perhaps the only Gulf nation to have bullfighting events organised in its territories. Al-Batena area is prominent for such events. Wide audiences turn up to see the events unfold. Omani bullfighting is however not a violent event. The origins of Bullfighting in Oman are unknown though many locals here believe it was brought to Oman by the Moors of Spanish origin. Yet others say it has a direct connection with Portugal which colonized the Omani coastline for nearly 2 centuries.[45]

Gallery



Mumtaz Mahal Restaurant-Al Khuwair, Muscat.



Corridor Next to Muscat Old Palace.



Al Alam Palace, Muscat



Al Khuwair – The two Khanjar's (left of image) mark the entrance to the Ministries Street which houses all the Ministries of Oman



Al Khuwair – The Zawawi Mosque can be seen here



Muscat Harbor – A traditional Omani Dhow lays anchored in the Muscat Harbor (World's largest natural harbor)



Muscat Port – The Sultan's Yacht can be seen anchored at the Port.



Mutrah Corniche



Mutrah Corniche



The Muscat Fort (Built by the Portuguese in the 16th century) overlooks the Muscat harbor, Mutrah and the Al Alam Palace



Riyam Park – as seen in Amazing Race 9 – is very near to the Muscat Harbor



The Mutrah Corniche was renovated to undo the destruction done by Cyclone Gonu



Dust storms are rare in Muscat



The Sultan Qaboos Grand Mosque



Muscat Clock Tower, MBD, Ruwi -The oldest Monument in Modern Oman



Omani crowds watching their national football team hosting the Gulf of Nations Cup, which the team went on to win



The Headquarters and Petroleum Refinery of PDO in Muscat



A typical long beach with cliffs in the capital, Muscat



Qantab Beach





Qurum Beach – Crowne Plaza Muscat can be seen in the distance (on the cliff-top)



Gates decorate routes throughout Muscat



Muscat Boat Club



The Headquarters of Omantel (Oman's Public Telecommunication Provider) can be seen in CBD, Ruwi (Tower like building)



Torrential rains can last for days in Oman



Ruwi – The Commercial hub of Muscat includes a marketplace – The Ruwi High Street



Bullfighting in Oman

See also

- Outline of Oman
- Index of Oman-related articles
- List of cities in Oman
- Telecommunications in Oman
- Foreign relations of Oman
- Royal Oman Police
- Human rights in Oman
- 2011 Oman protests
- Transport in Oman
- Tourism in Oman
- Scouting and Guiding in Oman
- Theweek
- Cyclone Gonu
- Al Nuaim
- Muscat Daily

Notes

1. ^ In 1783, when Saiad Said succeeded to the "masnad" of Muscat and Oman (an independent state founded in 1749), he fell out with his brother Saiad Sultan, who fled to safety in Makran and entered into communication with Nasir Khan of Kalat. Saiad was granted the Kalat share of the revenues of Gwadar and lived there until 1797 when he achieved the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman.
2. ^ Gwadar remained an Omani possession as part of the sultanate until September 1958

References

1. ^ "Cabinet Ministers" (http://www.omanet.om/english/government/ministers.asp?cat=gov) . Government of Oman. http://www.omanet.om/english/government/ministers.asp?cat=gov. Retrieved 13 October 2010.
2. ^ http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761561099_7/Oman.html#s28 Fourth line down from the top of the history section: "In 751 Ibadi Muslims, a moderate branch of the Kharijites, established an imamate in Oman. Despite interruptions, the Ibadi imamate survived until the mid-20th century.". Archived (http://www.webcitation.org/query?id=1257037559642205) 1 November 2009.

History of Oman

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Contents

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- 5 1970s
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Nakhal Fort, one of the best-preserved forts in Oman.

Prehistory

Main articles: Archaeology of Oman, Magan, and A'ad



World Heritage Grave at Al Ayn in Oman

Prehistoric migration of Homo Sapiens is likely to have taken place around 100,000 years ago and to have followed the coastlines from Africa along Yemen and the sea shores of Oman. Archaeological sites in Yemen and Oman have yielded a stone tool style that is distinct from the East African tradition. That raises the possibility that humans were established on the southern part of the Arabian Peninsula beginning as far back as 100,000 years ago or more. The oldest Home sapiens, known as H. sapiens idaltu, was found to be 160,000 years old, found at the Middle Awash site in Ethiopia. Then between 80k-125 k years ago, modern humans began appearing in the middle east.



Archaeologists excavating a Middle Stone Age complex in the Dhofar Mountains.

The Negrito represent the first migration of anatomically modern Homo sapiens out of Africa while the Arab with the Brown skin are Veddoids who are the descendants of the second wave of migration back from Persian side after the flood 7000 years back. The departure of mankind from Africa to colonise the rest of the world involved them crossing the Straits of Bab el Mandab in the southern Red Sea and moving along the green coastlines around Arabia and thence to the rest of Eurasia. That crossing became possible when sea level had fallen by more than 80m to expose much of the shelf between southern Eritrea and Yemen; a level that was reached during a glacial stadial from 60 to 70 ka as climate cooled erratically to reach the last glacial maximum. From 135,000 to 90,000 years ago tropical Africa had megadroughts which drove the humans from the land towards the sea shores and forced them to cross over to other continents.The researchers used radiocarbon dating techniques on pollen grains trapped in lake bottom mud to establish vegetation over the ages of the Malawi lake

in Africa. The researchers took samples at 300-year-intervals. Samples from the megadrought times had little pollen or charcoal, suggesting sparse vegetation with little to burn. The area around Lake Malawi, which today is heavily forested was a desert 135000 to 90000 years ago.

There have been discoveries of Palaeolithic stone tools in caves in southern and central Oman, and in the United Arab Emirates close to the Straits of Hormuz at the outlet of the Persian Gulf (UAE site (Jebel Faya), Ref: Armitage, S.J. et al. 2011. Ref2: The southern route ‘out of Africa’: evidence for an early expansion of modern humans into Arabia. Science, v. 331, p. 453-456). The stone tools, some up to 125,000 years old, resemble those made by humans in Africa around the same period. Luminescence dating is a technique that measures naturally occurring radiation stored in the sand. Luminescence dating data showed that 130,000 years ago, the Arabian Peninsula was relatively more warm which caused more rainfall, turning it into a series of lush habitable land. During this period the southern Red Sea’s levels dropped and was only 2.5 miles or 4 km wide. This offered a brief window of time for humans to easily cross the sea and cross the Peninsula to opposing sites like Jebel Faya. These early migrants running away from the climate change in Africa, crossed the Red Sea into Yemen and Oman, trekked across Arabia during favourable climate conditions. 2,000 kilometres of inhospitable desert lie between the Red Sea and Jebel Faya in UAE. But around 130,000 years ago the world was at the end of an ice age. The Red Sea was shallow enough to be crossed on foot or on a small raft, and the Arabian peninsula was being transformed from a parched desert into a green land.

Antiquity

Main articles: Pre-Islamic Arabia, Sassanid Empire, and Parthia

Achaemenid (6th to 4th century BC), an Iranian dynasty, controlled and/or influenced the Omani peninsula. This influential control was most likely exerted from a coastal center such as Sohar.[1]

From the 3rd century BC to the arrival of Islam in the 7th century AD, Oman was controlled by two other Iranian dynasties, the Parthians and the Sassanids. During this period Oman's administrative name was Mazun.[1] By about 250 BC, the Parthian dynasty brought the Persian Gulf under their control and extended their influence as far as Oman. Because they needed to control the Persian Gulf trade route, the Parthians established garrisons in Oman. In the 3rd century AD, the Sassanids succeeded the Parthians and held area until the rise of Islam four centuries later. This agricultural and military contact gave people exposure to Persian culture, as reflected in certain irrigation techniques still used in Oman.[2]

Early Islamic period

See also: Oman proper

Oman adopted Islam in the 7th century, during the lifetime of the prophet Muhammad. Ibadism became the dominant religious sect in Oman by the 8th century; Oman is currently the only country in the Islamic world with a majority Ibadi population. Ibadhism is known for its "moderate conservatism". One distinguishing feature of Ibadism is the choice of ruler by communal consensus and consent.

The relatively recent name of "Muscat and Oman" (which was abolished in 1970 in favor of "Sultanate of Oman"), implies two historically irreconcilable political cultures: the coastal tradition, the more cosmopolitan, secular, Muscat tradition of the coast ruled by the sultan; and the interior tradition of insularity, tribal in origin and ruled by an imam according to the ideological tenets of Ibadism. The more cosmopolitan has been the ascending political culture since the founding of the Al Said dynasty in 1744, although the imamate tradition has found intermittent expression.[3]

Several millennia ago, Arab tribes migrated eastward to Oman, coinciding with the increasing presence in the region of peoples from present-day Iran. In the 6th century, Arabs succeeded in repelling encroachments of these ethnic groups; the conversion of Arab tribes to Islam in the 7th century resulted in the displacement of the settlers from Iran. The introduction of Ibadism vested power in the imam, the leader nominated by the ulema.[3] The imam's position was confirmed when the imam—having gained the allegiance of the tribal sheiks—received the bay'ah (oath of allegiance) from the public.[*citation needed*]



Vestiges in Nizwa

In 751 Ibadi Muslims, a moderate branch of the Kharijites, established an imamate in Oman. Despite interruptions, the Ibadi imamate survived until the mid-20th century.[4]

But Oman was nonetheless conquered by several foreign powers, having been controlled by the Qarmatians between 931–932 and then again between 933–934.Between 967 and 1053, Oman was part of the domain of the Iranian Buyyids, and between 1053 and 1154, Oman was part of the Great Seljuk empire.

In 1154, the indigenous Nabhani dynasty took control of Oman, and the Nabhani kings ruled Oman until 1470, with an interruption of 37 years between 1406 and 1443.



Wall of the Jabrin Castle

Muscat was taken by the Portuguese on 1 April 1515, and was held until 26 January 1650, although the Ottomans controlled Muscat between 1550–1551 and 1581–1588. In about the year 1600, Nabhani rule was temporarily restored to Oman, although that lasted only to 1624, when fifth imamate, which is also known as the Yarubid Imamate. The latter recaptured Muscat from the Portuguese in 1650 after a colonial presence on the northeastern coast of Oman dating to 1508. The Yarubid dynasty expanded, acquiring former Portuguese colonies in East Africa and engaging in the slave trade. By 1719 dynastic succession led to the nomination of Saif ibn Sultan II. His candidacy prompted a rivalry among the ulama and a civil war between the two major tribes, the Hinawi and the Ghafiri, with the Ghafiri supporting Saif ibn Sultan II. He assumed power in 1748 after the leaders of both factions had been killed in battle, but the rivalry continued, with the factionalization working in favor of the Iranians, who occupied Muscat and Sohar in 1743.[3]

The Iranians had occupied the coast before—indeed the coast was often the possession of various empires. These empires brought order to the religious and ethnic diversity of the population of this cosmopolitan region. Yet the intervention on behalf of an unpopular dynasty brought about a revolt. The leader of the revolt, Ahmad ibn Said al Said, was elected sultan of Muscat upon the expulsion of the Persians. The position of Sultan of Muscat would remain in the possession of the Al Said clan even when the imamate of Oman remained out of reach.[*citation needed*]

The Al Said clan became a royal dynasty when Ahmad ibn Said Al Said was elected imam following the expulsion of the Iranians from Muscat in 1744. Like its predecessors, Al Said dynastic rule has been characterized by a history of internecine family struggle, fratricide, and usurpation. Apart from threats within the ruling family, there was the omnipresent challenge from the independent tribes of the interior who rejected the authority of the sultan, recognizing the imam as the sole legitimate leader and pressing, by resort to arms, for the

restoration of the imamate.[3]

Schisms within the ruling family were apparent before Ahmad ibn Said's death in 1783 and were later manifest with the division of the family into two main lines, the Sultan ibn Ahmad Al Said (r. 1792–1806) line controlling the maritime state, with nominal control over the entire country; and the Qais branch, with authority over the Al Batinah and Ar Rustaq areas. During the period of Sultan Said ibn Sultan Al Said's rule (1806–1856), Oman cultivated its East African colonies, profiting from the slave trade. As a regional commercial power in the 19th century, Oman held territories on the island of Zanzibar off the coast of East Africa, the area along the coast of East Africa known as Zanj including Mombasa and Dar es Salaam, and until 1958 in Gwadar (in present-day Pakistan) on the coast of the Arabian Sea. But when the British declared slavery illegal in the mid-19th century, the sultanate's fortunes reversed. The economy collapsed, and many Omani families migrated to Zanzibar. The population of Muscat fell from 55,000 to 8,000 between the 1850s and 1870s.[3] Most of the overseas possessions were seized by the United Kingdom and by 1850 Oman was an isolated and poor area of the world.

Late 19th and early 20th centuries

Main article: Muscat and Oman

When Sultan Sa'id bin Sultan Al-Busaid died in 1856, his sons quarreled over the succession. As a result of this struggle, the empire—through the mediation of the British Government under the Canning Award—was divided in 1861 into two separate principalities: Zanzibar (with its East African dependencies), and Muscat and Oman.

The death of Sa'id bin Sultan in 1856 prompted a further division: the descendants of the late sultan ruled Muscat and Oman (Thuwaini ibn Said Al-Busaid, r. 1856–1866) and Zanzibar (Mayid ibn Said Al-Busaid, r. 1856–1870); the Qais branch intermittently allied itself with the ulama to restore imamate legitimacy. In 1868 Azzam ibn Qais Al-Busaid (r. 1868–1871) emerged as self-declared imam. Although a significant number of Hinawi tribes recognized him as imam, the public neither elected him nor acclaimed him as such.[3]

Imam Azzan understood that to unify the country a strong, central authority had to be established with control over the interior tribes of Oman. His rule was jeopardized by the British, who interpreted his policy of bringing the interior tribes under the central government as a move against their established order. In resorting to military means to unify Muscat and Oman, Imam Azzam alienated members of the Ghafiri tribes, who revolted in the 1870–1871 period. The British gave Imam Azzam's rival, Turki ibn Said Al-Busaid, financial and political support. Turki ibn Said succeeded in defeating the forces of Imam Azzam, who was killed in battle outside Matrah in January 1871.[3]

Muscat and Oman was the object of Franco-British rivalry throughout the 18th century. During the 19th century, Muscat and Oman and the United Kingdom concluded several treaties of friendship and commerce. In 1908 the British entered into an agreement of friendship. Their traditional association was confirmed in 1951 through a new treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation by which the United Kingdom recognized the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman as a fully independent state.

During the late 19th century and early 20th century, there were tensions between the sultan in Muscat and the Ibadi Imam in Nizwa. This conflict was resolved temporarily by the Treaty of Seeb, which granted the imam rule in the interior Imamate of Oman, while recognising the sovereignty of the sultan in Muscat and its surroundings.

In 1954, the conflict flared up again, when the Treaty of Seeb was broken by the sultan after oil was discovered in the lands of the Imam. The new imam (Ghalib bin Ali) led a 5-year rebellion against the sultan's attack. The Sultan was aided by the colonial British forces and the Shah of Iran. In the early 1960s, the Imam, exiled to Saudi Arabia, obtained support from his hosts and other Arab governments, but this support ended in the 1980s.

The case of the Imam was argued at the United Nations as well, but no significant measures were taken.

Zanzibar paid an annual subsidy to Muscat and Oman until its independence in early 1964.

In 1964, a separatist revolt began in Dhofar province. Aided by Communist and leftist governments such as the former South Yemen (People's Democratic Republic of Yemen), the rebels formed the Dhofar Liberation Front, which later merged with the Marxist-dominated Popular Front for the Liberation of Oman and the Arab Gulf (PFLOAG). The PFLOAG's declared intention was to overthrow all traditional Persian Gulf régimes. In mid-1974, the Bahrain branch of the PFLOAG was established as a separate organisation and the Omani branch changed its name to the Popular Front for the Liberation of Oman (PFLO), while continuing the Dhofar Rebellion.

1970s

In 1970, Qaboos bin Said Al Said ousted his father, Sa'id bin Taymur, who later died in exile in London. Al Said has ruled as sultan ever since. The new sultan confronted insurgency in a country plagued by endemic disease, illiteracy, and poverty. One of the new sultan's first measures was to abolish many of his father's harsh restrictions, which had caused thousands of Omanis to leave the country, and to offer amnesty to opponents of the previous régime, many of whom returned to Oman. He also established a modern government structure and launched a major development programme to upgrade educational and health facilities, build a modern infrastructure, and develop the country's natural resources.

In an effort to curb the Dhofar insurgency, Sultan Qaboos expanded and re-equipped the armed forces and granted amnesty to all surrendering rebels while vigorously prosecuting the war in Dhofar. He obtained direct military support from the UK, Iran, and Jordan. By early 1975, the guerrillas were confined to a 50-square-kilometer (19 sq mi) area near the Yemeni border and shortly thereafter were defeated. As the war drew to a close, civil action programs were given priority throughout Dhofar and helped win the allegiance of the people. The PFLO threat diminished further with the establishment of diplomatic relations in October 1983 between South Yemen and Oman, and South Yemen subsequently lessened propaganda and subversive activities against Oman. In late 1987 Oman opened an embassy in Aden, South Yemen, and appointed its first resident ambassador to the country.

Since his accession in 1970, Sultan Qaboos has balanced tribal, regional, and ethnic interests in composing the national administration. The Council of Ministers, which functions as a cabinet, consists of 26 ministers, all directly appointed by Qaboos. The *Majlis Al-Shura* (Consultative Council) has the mandate of reviewing legislation pertaining to economic development and social services prior to its becoming law. The *Majlis Al-Shura* may request ministers to appear before it.

1990s

In November 1996, Sultan Qaboos presented his people with the "Basic Statutes of the State", Oman's first written "constitution". It guarantees various rights within the framework of Qur'anic and customary law. It partially resuscitated long dormant conflict-of-interest measures by banning cabinet ministers from being officers of public shareholding firms. Perhaps most importantly, the Basic Statutes provide rules for setting Sultan Qaboos' succession.

Oman occupies a strategic location on the Strait of Hormuz at the entrance to the Persian Gulf, 35 miles (56 km) directly opposite Iran. Oman has concerns with regional stability and security, given tensions in the region, the proximity of Iran and Iraq, and the potential threat of political Islam. Oman maintained its diplomatic relations

with Iraq throughout the Gulf War while supporting the United Nations allies by sending a contingent of troops to join coalition forces and by opening up to pre-positioning of weapons and supplies.

2000s

In September 2000, about 100,000 Omani men and women elected 83 candidates, including two women, to seats in the *Majlis Al-Shura*. In December 2000, Sultan Qaboos appointed the 48-member *Majlis Al Dowla*, or State Council, including five women, which acts as the upper chamber in Oman's bicameral representative body.

Al Said's extensive modernization program has opened the country to the outside world and has preserved a long-standing political and military relationship with the United Kingdom, the United States, and others. Oman's moderate, independent foreign policy has sought to maintain good relations with all Middle Eastern countries.

Rulers of Oman

Main article: List of rulers of Oman

- Said bin Sultan (November 20, 1804 – June 4, 1856) – (Sultan of Zanzibar and Oman)
- Thuwaini bin Said (October 19, 1856 – February 11, 1866)
- Salim bin Thuwaini (February 11, 1866 – October 1868)
- Azzan bin Qais (October 1868 – January 30, 1871)
- Turki bin Said (January 30, 1871 – June 4, 1888)
- Faisal bin Turki (June 4, 1888 – October 15, 1913)
- Taimur bin Faisal (October 15, 1913 – February 10, 1932)
- Said bin Taimur (February 10, 1932 – July 23, 1970)
- Qaboos Bin Said (July 23, 1970 to present)



Standard of the Sultan of Oman

See also

- British Persian Gulf Residency
- History of Asia
- History of the Middle East
- List of Sultans of Oman
- Oman
- Politics of Oman

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4. ^ http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761561099_7/Oman.html#s28 Fourth line down from the top of the history section: "In 751 Ibadi Muslims, a moderate branch of the Kharijites, established an imamate in Oman. Despite interruptions, the Ibadi imamate survived until the mid-20th century.". Archived (http://www.webcitation.org /5kwqlratp) 2009-10-31.

List of rulers of Oman

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

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Sultan of Oman
سلطان عمان
MONARCHY



Arms of His Majesty the Sultan of Oman



Incumbent:
Qaboos bin Said al Said
since 23 July 1970

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	None currently designated
First monarch:	Al-Julanda bin Mas'ood (imamate) Ahmad bin Said (Al Bu Said dynasty)
Formation:	751 (imamate) 1744 (Al Said Dynasty)
Residence:	Several palaces
Website:	http://www.oman.om/

List of Imams (751–1406)

Imams		Tribe	Residence	Began to reign	Reference
Transliteration of the Arab names	**Names in Arab script**				
Al-Julanda bin Mas'ood	الجلندى بن مسعود	Azd	?	751	[1]
Mohammed bin Abi Affan	محمد بن أبي عفان	Azd	Nizwa	?	[2]
Al-Warith bin Ka'ab	الوارث بن كعب	Yahmad	Nizwa	801	[3]
Ghassan bin Abdullah	غسان بن عبد الله	Yahmad	Nizwa	807	[4]

Abdulmalik bin Humaid	عبد المالك بن حميد	Azd	?	824	[5]
Al-Muhanna bin Jayfar	المهنا بن جيفر	Yahmad	Nizwa	840	[6]
Al-Salt bin Malik	الصلت بن مالك	Azd	?	851	[7]
Rashid bin Al-Nadhar	راشد بن النظر	?	?	886	[8]
Azzan bin Tamim	عزان بن تميم	?	Nizwa	890	[9]
Mohammed bin Al-Hassan	محمد بن الحسن	Azd	?	897	[10]
Azzan bin Al-Hazbar	عزان بن الهزبر	Yahmad	?	898	[11]
Abdullah bin Mohammed	عبد الله بن محمد	?	?	899	[12]
Al-Salt bin Al-Qasim	الصلت بن القاسم	?	?	900	[13]
Al-Husn bin Said	الحسن بن سعيد	?	?	900	[14]
Al-Hawari bin Matraf	الحواري بن مطرف	?	?	904	[15]
Omar bin Mohammed	عمر بن محمد	?	?	912	[16]
Mohammed bin Yazid	محمد بن يزيد	Kinda	?	?	[17]
Al-Hakm bin Al-Milaa Al-Bahri	الحكم بن الملا البحري	?	Nizwa	?	[18]
Said bin Abdullah	سعيد بن عبد الله	?	?	939	[19]
Rashid bin Waleed	راشد بن الوليد	?	Nizwa	?	[20]
Al-Khalil bin Shadhan	الخليل بن شاذان	?	?	1002	[21]
Rashid bin Said	راشد بن سعيد	?	?	1032	[22]
Hafs bin Rashid	حفص بن راشد	?	?	1068	[23]
Rashid bin Ali	راشد بن علي	?	?	1054	[24]
Musa bin Jabir	ابن جابر موسى	?	Nizwa	1154	[25]
Malik bin Aly	مالك بن علي	?	?	1406	[26]

List of Imams and Sayyids of Oman (1406–Present)

Name	Reign start	Reign end	Notes
Nabhan Dynasty (1406–1624)			
Makhzum bin al Fallah	1406	1435	
Abul Hassan of Oman	1435	1451	
Omar bin al Khattab	1451	1490	
Omar al Sharif	1490	1500	
Muhammad bin Ismail	1500	1529	Portuguese Protectorate imposed on 15 April 1515



Standard of the Sultan of Oman

Bakarat bin Muhammad	1529	1560	
Abdulla bin Muhammad	1560	1624	

Ya'ariba Dynasty (first reign, 1624–1724)

Nasir bin Murshid	1624	1649	
Sultan I bin Saif	1649	1688	Portuguese expelled on 1 January 1650
Bil'arb bin Sultan	1688	1692	
Saif I bin Sultan "Qayd al-Ard"	1692	15 October 1711	
Sultan II bin Saif	15 October 1711	1719	
Saif II bin Sultan (first reign)	1719	2 October 1724	

Banu Ghafir Dynasty (1724–1728)

Muhammad bin Nasir	2 October 1724	11 March 1728	

Ya'ariba Dynasty (second reign, 1728–1749)

Saif II bin Sultan (second reign)	11 March 1728	20 June 1743	Co-Ruler with Sultan III bin Murshid bin Adi since February 1742
Bal'arab bin Himayr ibn Sultan	20 June 1743	10 June 1749	

Al Said Dynasty (1749–Present)

Abu Hilal Ahmad bin Said	10 June 1744	15 December 1783	
Said bin Ahmad	15 December 1783	1784	Last direct male descendant of Al Bu Said to hold the office of Imam. He abdicated secular

			power to his son Hamid and retired to Rustaq where he died in 1803.[27]
Hamad bin Said	1784	13 March 1792	
Sultan bin Ahmad	13 March 1792	20 November 1804	
Salim I bin Sultan and Said II bin Sultan	20 November 1804	14 September 1806	Co-Rulers
Said II bin Sultan	14 September 1806	19 October 1856	Sole Ruler
Thuwaini bin Said	19 October 1856	11 February 1866	Killed
Salim II bin Thuwaini	11 February 1866	3 October 1868	Killed
Azzan bin Qais	3 October 1868	30 January 1871	Killed
Turki bin Said	30 January 1871	4 June 1888	
Faisal bin Turki	4 June 1888	9 October 1913	British protectorate imposed on 20 March 1891[28][29]
Taimur bin Feisal	9 October 1913	10 February 1932	Abdicated
Said III bin Taimur	10 February 1932	23 July 1970	Deposed
Qaboos bin Said	23 July 1970	Present	British protectorate ended on 2 December 1971

See also

- History of Oman
- List of Sultans of Zanzibar
- Muscat and Oman
- Oman proper

References

Qaboos bin Said al Said

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Qaboos bin Said Al Said (Arabic: قابوس بن سعيد آل سعيد *Qābūs bin Saʿīd ʾĀl Saʿīd*; born 18 November 1940[1]) is the Sultan of Oman and its Dependencies. He rose to power after overthrowing his father, Said bin Taimur, in a palace coup in 1970. He is the 14th-generation descendant of the founder of the Al Bu Sa'idi dynasty.[2]

Qaboos bin Said Al Said



Sultan of Oman

Reign	23 July 1970 – present
Predecessor	Said bin Taimur
Spouse	Sayyidah Nawwal bint Tariq
House	Al Said
Father	Said bin Taimur
Mother	Mazwon bint Ahmad
Born	18 November 1940 Salalah, Oman
Religion	Ibadi Islam

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Early life

Sultan Qaboos bin Sa‘id was born in Salalah in Dhofar on 18 November 1940. He is the only son of Sultan Said bin Taimur and princess Mazoon al-Mashani. He received his primary and secondary education at Salalah and Pune [Maharashtra, India] and was sent to a private educational establishment in England at age sixteen.[3] At 20 he entered the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst. After graduating from Sandhurst, he joined the British Army and was posted to the 1st Battalion The Cameronians (Scottish Rifles), serving in Germany for one year. He also held a staff appointment with the British Army.

After his military service, Sultan Qaboos studied local government subjects in England and, after a world tour, returned home to Salalah where he studied Islam and the history of his country. Sultan Qaboos ibn Sa‘id is a Muslim of the Ibadi school of jurisprudence, which has traditionally ruled Oman.[4] A religious liberal, he has financed the construction or maintenance of a number of mosques, notably the Sultan Qaboos Grand Mosque, as well as the holy places of other religions.

In 1976 Qaboos bin Said married his cousin, Kamila, née Sayyidah Nawwal bint Tariq (born 1951), daughter of HH Sayyid Tariq ibn Taymur.[5] However, the marriage soon ended in divorce and he has never remarried or

had any children.[6]

Qaboos bin Said is an avid fan and promoter of classical music. His 120-member orchestra has a high reputation in the Middle East. The orchestra consists entirely of young Omanis who, since 1986, audition as children and grow up as members of the symphonic ensemble. They play locally and travel abroad with the sultan.[7] Argentine composer Lalo Schifrin was commissioned to compose a work entitled *Symphonic Impressions of Oman*[8] and the Sultan is particularly enthusiastic about the pipe organ.[9]

The Sultan's birthday, 18 November, is celebrated as Oman's national holiday. The first day of his reign, 23 July, is celebrated as Renaissance Day.

Rise to power

For six years prior to Said bin-Taymur's overthrow, Qaboos experienced virtual house-arrest in the Royal Palace of Salalah. In July 1970, soldiers supporting Qaboos clashed with forces loyal to Said bin-Taymur and deposed him. Qaboos maintains that his father abdicated the throne.[7] The British government helped to consolidate Qaboos' power.

Qaboos acceded to the throne on 23 July 1970 after deposing his father in a palace coup with the aim of ending the country's isolation and using its oil revenue for modernization and development,[10] moving to Muscat. There he declared that the country would no longer be known as Muscat and Oman, but would change its name to "the Sultanate of Oman" in order to better reflect its political unity.

The first pressing problem that Qaboos bin Said faced as Sultan was an armed communist insurgency from South Yemen, the Dhofar Rebellion (1965–1975). The Sultanate eventually defeated the incursion with help from the Shah of Iran, Jordanian troops sent from his friend King Hussein of Jordan, British Special Forces, and the Royal Air Force.

Reign as Sultan

The political system which Qaboos established is that of an absolute monarchy. Unlike the situation in neighbouring Saudi Arabia, Qaboos' decisions are not subject to modification by other members of Oman's royal family. Government decisions are said to be made through a process of decision-making by "consensus" with provincial, local and tribal representatives, though critics allege that Qaboos exercises *de facto* control of this process.[*citation needed*] Qaboos also regularly engages in tours of his realm, in which any citizen with a grievance or request is allowed to appeal to the Sultan in person.[11]

Styles of
The Sultan of Oman



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Sire*

More recently, Qaboos has allowed parliamentary elections (in which women have voted and stood as candidates) and pledged greater openness and participation in government. The parliament enjoys legislative and oversight powers.[12] In 1979 Oman was the only Arab state to recognize Egyptian President Anwar Sadat's peace agreement with Israel.[13]

Qaboos' supporters point to his relative success in governing the country. By Gulf standards, Oman boasts good public order,[14] middling prosperity,[15] and a relatively permissive society.[16] Since he acceded to the throne,

Oman has broadened international relations, allowed newspapers, established high schools, built highways, opened hotels and shopping malls and spends a substantial portion of its dwindling oil revenues on health care and education.[7]

In September 1995, he was involved in a car accident in Salalah just out side his palace, which claimed the life of one of his most prominent and influential ministers and his right hand man, Qais Bin Abdul Munaim Al Zawawi.

In October 1998, Qaboos bin Said was presented with the International Peace Award by the National Council on US-Arab Relations.[17] He also forges and maintains good relations with other Arab states and partners in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC).[18]



Sultan Qaboos meets with United States Vice President Dick Cheney during his visit to the Middle East in 2002.

Foreign policy

Qaboos officially keeps Oman neutral, having contacts and normal relations with Iran while being an ally of western states like Britain and America. In talks with American officials released by wikileaks, Qaboos dodged requests by the Americans for Oman to invest in Iraq and Afghanistan, switching to other topics. Qaboos was against Americans withdrawing quickly from Iraq.

Oman has more normal relations with Iran than the other Gulf Arab states, careful to appear neutral and maintain a balance between the West and Iran.[19]

Views on Ideology

Qaboos criticized the Arab Nationalist leader Gamal Abdel Nasser in private discussions with American officials which were released by Wikileaks. He claimed Nasser deliberately used inflammatory speeches and rhetoric to make his people stupid, and accused Nasser of having "set the region back", holding a position of "anti-everything". Qaboos concluded that the Muslim Brotherhood obtained support from the uneducated people.[20]

Palaces

Name	City	Area	Coordinates	Features
Al Alam Palace	Muscat	1.4kmX1.4 km	23°36′52.86″N 58°35′43.90″E	Contains two Helipads, Super Yacht Berth and several ultra Luxurious residences.
Bait Barka	Barka	3kmX4km	23°42′28.19″N 58°05′37.37″E	Sultan's Retreat contains six Helipads, Super Yacht Berth and ultra Luxurious residences, massive garage and splendid infinity pools in lush landscape gardens.
Hisn Al Shomoukh	Manah	4kmX4km	22°45′18.22″N 57°33′44.50″E	Recently built Royal Camp with 4 Helipads. Currently most of the royal delegates are routed to here. Satellite images assures heavy construction for further expansion.

Name	City	Area	Coordinates	Features
Royal Court	Seeb	2kmX3km	23°40′15.40″N 58°10′16.40″E	The most heavily guarded zone in Oman, this splendid palace contains its own private Landing strip or airport. There's a large stable containing the royal equestrian facilities.
Hisn Salalah	Salalah	2kmX1.8 km	16°59′54.90″N 54°05′38.04″E	Sultan's birth place. This waterfront palace has 4 Helipads. It contains two mosques and many villas.
Sohar Palace	Sohar	2kmX3km	24°19′11.06″N 56°46′19.22″E	Sultan's farm in Sohar. Going through extensive renovation and expansion. Contains camel, cow, goat and horse farms. Several green houses for vegetable production.
Qasr Mamoora	Salalah	2kmX2km	17°03′36.25″N 54°13′54.43″E	By far the most private palace with its own double runway landing strip, three Helipads as well as two private flyovers connected to his private Razat farm.
Razat Farm	Salalah	3kmX3km	17°02′15.40″N 54°12′35.76″E	Private farm that supplies him with fresh dairy products, fruits and vegetables. Contains one Helipad

Super yachts

Name	Length (m)	Shipyard	Year	Description
Al Said	155[21]	Lürssen	2007	Contains a Helipad, an orchestra and swimming pool. Berthed most of the time in Mutrah port.
Fulk al Salamah[22]	136	Lürssen	1987	It has participated in Ship for World Youth.[23]
Loaloat Al Behar	103.85	Picchiotti Italy	1982	Largest yacht built in Italy in the 1980s
Zinat al Bihaar	61	Oman Royal Yacht Squadron[24]	1988	Luxury sailing yacht with worlds largest sail built in Oman with imported engine from Siemens.
Al-Noores	33.5[25]	K. Damen Netherlands	1982	Specialized tug boat for the other royal yachts.

Succession

Unlike the heads of other Gulf Arab states, Qaboos bin Sa‘id has not publicly named an heir. Article 6 of the constitution (http://www.servat.unibe.ch/icl/mu00000_.html) actually provides that the Ruling Family Council chooses the successor after the throne becomes vacant, and that the Sultan's preference, to be expressed in an official letter (which Qaboos says has already been sealed and delivered to the defence minister), is only resorted to in the event of lack of familial consensus.

Qaboos bin Sa‘id has no children and has three sisters; there are other male members of the Omani Royal

Family including several paternal uncles and their families. Using primogeniture the successor to Qaboos would appear to be the children of his late uncle, His Royal Highness Sayyid Tariq bin Taimur Al Said, the former, first and only Prime Minister in Oman's history.[26]

Military ranks

Qaboos holds the following ranks:[27]

- Field Marshal, Royal Army of Oman
- Admiral of the Fleet, Royal Navy of Oman
- Marshal of the Royal Air Force of Oman
- Supreme Commander, Royal Oman Police
- Honorary General, British Army

Foreign honours

- Austria: Grand Star of the Decoration of Honour for Services to the Republic of Austria (31 March 2001)[28]
- Bahrain: Order of Al Khalifa, 1st Class[28]
- Brunei: Royal Family Order of the Crown of Brunei (15 December 1984)[28]
- Egypt: Grand Collar of the Order of the Nile (1976)[28]
- France: Legion of Honour (31 May 1989)[28]
- Germany: Grand Cross special class of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany[28]
- India: Jawaharlal Nehru Award for International Understanding (2004) (Award yet to be presented)[29]
- Indonesia: Order of the Star, 1st Class or Adipurna[28]
- Iran: Grand Collar of the Order of Pahlavi (3 March 1974)[28]
- Italy: Knight Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic (22 April 1974)[28]
- Japan: Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum[28]
- Jordan: Collar of the Order of Hussein ibn Ali[28]
- Kuwait: Order of Mubarak the Great (28 December 2009)[28]
- Lebanon: Collar of the Order of Merit[28]
- Malaysia: Order of the State Crown of Malaysia
- Netherlands: Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion (2012)
- Pakistan: Nishan-e-Pakistan, 1st Class[28]
- Qatar: Collar of the Order of the Independence[28]
- Saudi Arabia: The Badr Chain[28]
- Saudi Arabia: Collar of the Order of Abdulaziz al Saud (23 December 2006)[28]
- Singapore: Order of Temasek, 1st Class (12/3/2009)[28]
- Spain: Knight of the Collar of the Order of Isabella the Catholic (18 December 1985)[28]
- Syria: Collar of the Order of Omayyad[28]
- Tunisia: Collar of the Order of Independence[28]
- UAE: Collar of the Order of Etihad[28]
- United Kingdom: Honorary Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath (18 March 1982)[28]
- United Kingdom: Honorary Knight Grand Cross of the Order of St Michael and St George

(8/7/1976)[28]

- United Kingdom: Honorary Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order (28 February 1979)[28]
- United Kingdom: Royal Victorian Chain (27 November 2010)[28]
- United Kingdom: Knight of the Venerable Order of Saint John (8/10/1976))[28]
- United Kingdom: Bailiff Grand Cross of the Venerable Order of Saint John (19 March 1984)[28]

See also

- Oman
- Sultan of Oman
- List of national leaders

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External links

- Official account of the Sultan's reign (http://www.omanet.om/english/government/hmspage/tribute.asp)
- Oman Net (http://www.omanet.om/english/history/sultan.asp)
- Oman-Qaboos (http://www.oman-qaboos.net)

Qaboos bin Said al Said **House of Al Said** **Born:** 18 November 1940		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Said Bin Taimur**	**Sultan of Oman** 1970–present	**Incumbent**

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Al Said

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

House of Al Busaid



Country	Sultanate of Oman
Titles	Sultan
Founder	Ahmed bin Said
Current head	Qaboos bin Said
Founding	1744

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  - 2.2 Said bin Sultan (Said the Great)
  - 2.3 Treaty with the United States
  - 2.4 End of Said's Reign
- 3 Division of Zanzibar and Oman
  - 3.1 Recent history
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Origins

The tribe traces its roots to a band of Al Azd, (through patrilineal ancestor al-'Atik b. al-Asad b. Imran) that settled in Dibba (Dabá), north of Sohar (which was once the capital of Oman), and came to be known as the Azd of Daba. Like other Qahtani, the Azd originally hailed from Yemen and migrated north after the destruction of the Marib Dam. Archeological evidence points to the Sasanid era, around the third or fourth century AD, a period of admittedly weak Persian rule. Their ascendancy to positions of power was in tandem with special relationships established with Persian rulers, who recognized the Azdites as "The kings of the Arabs"citation needed, as seen in a number of inscriptions from the sixth century CE. The head of the Azd confederation was given the title of Buland (Perso-Arabic: بُلند), a Sasanid appellation derived from the Middle Persian word for eminence and stature, later Arabized in the form of Al-Julandā (Arabic: الجُلندا) to identify the early rulers of Oman.

With the arrival of Islam, the Sasanians in Oman conflicted with the Azd kings, the balance in this conflict swung in favour of the Arabs when they were joined by Muslim forces sent by the Prophet Muhammad from al-Madîna and in the resulting military campaigns the Sasanian citadels were overwhelmed and their forces expelled by 630 AD. With the rise of Islam, the Azd established themselves into a leading force in the ensuing Muslim conquests and later in the realms of the Umayyad Caliphate through the celebrated general Al Muhallab ibn Abi Suffrah (Abu Said) "the Conqueror of the Kharejites" and progenitor of the Al Busaid tribe. Significantly, it is with the Azd that most early sections of pre-Islamic universal chronicles of Arabs begin.

Rise to power

Ahmad bin Said Al Busaidi, a shrewd military tactician was the governor of Sohar when a Persian fleet attacked the town, he held out for nine months, finally forcing the Persian commander of Nader Shah's army to come to terms and leave the country altogether within a few years; he was elected imam in 1744, marking the last time Oman was occupied by foreign parties and the beginning of a new unified state. It was also the start of a dynasty that has lasted to the present day consequently making it one of the oldest surviving royal dynasties in Arabia and the first to gain independence. His descendants took the title not of Imam with its connotations of religious leadership, but that of Sayyid, a honorific title held by members of the royal family to this day; thus relinquising all pretense of spiritual authority while fostering Muslim scholars and promoting Islamic scholarship.

Trade flourished during Ahmed's Thirty-nine year reign and the Omani navy developed into a formidable force in the Indian Ocean second only to Great Britain and capable of purging Persians forces from the entire region and protecting Ottoman vessels in the Gulf of Oman, Indian Ocean and the Pirate Coast of Trucial Oman. When he died in 1778, the ulema replaced Ahmed with his son, Said bin Ahmed, who was very religious but shrank from administrative duties and since the tenants of Ibadhism allowed for the division of duties between leaders along religious, administrative and military lines, he removed himself to Rustaq until his death in 1811 and turned over the hands of government to his son Hamad bin Said, who in 1783 changed the capital from Rustaq in the interior to the coastal city of Muscat and took the title of Sultan, implying purely coercive power. He was a capable leader for eight years, who facilitated reform policy in the initial stages of the transition but died suddenly in 1792 of smallpox.

Alliance with the British Empire

Sultan bin Ahmed assumed control of the government after the death of his nephew and strengthened the already powerful fleet by adding numerous gunships and sleek cargo vessels, he also needed a strong ally to help him regain control of Mombasa from the Mazrui clan, fight off the movement spreading from what is now Saudi Arabia and to keep the Qasimi tribes from the Persian city of Lingeh out of Oman. He found this able ally in Great Britain, who by this time was a powerful maritime nation with an empire expanding all over the world. In the late 18th century, the second British Empire was at war with France and knew that the French emperor, Napoleon Bonaparte, was planning to march through Persia and capture Muscat on his way to invade India. In 1798 Britain and Oman agreed a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

Sultan bin Ahmed pledged himself to British interests in India, and his territories became out of bounds to the French. He allowed the British East India Company to establish the first trading station in the Persian Gulf, and a British consul was posted to Muscat. As well as defeating Bonaparte, the British had another motive for the treaty with Oman: they wanted to put pressure on the sultan to end slavery, which had been declared illegal in England in 1772. At this time, the trade from Africa to Oman was still buoyant and Zanzibar's position as an important trade centre was bolstered further when the supply of ivory from Mozambique to India collapsed because of excessive Portuguese export duties. The traders simply shipped their ivory through Zanzibar instead. Omani warships were in constant skirmishes up and down the gulf, which kept Sultan preoccupied. It was in the course of one of his sorties during an incursion abroad a ship in the Persian Gulf in 1804 that Sayyid Sultan was shot in the head by a stray bullet, he was buried in Lingeh.

Said bin Sultan (Said the Great)

The death of Sultan bin Ahmed sent the country into a state of shock, Inter-family rivalries, dissident tribes, and outside agitators who all conspired to make the role of supreme commander a speculative proposition at best. Sultan's eldest son Said was merely thirteen, too young to take the reins of his country, "so the elders called upon another nephew Badr bin Saif to act as regent in the boy's behalf until he came of age." Emily Ruete, née Sayyida Salma bint Said in Memoirs of an Arabian Princess, 1886).

The decision to enlist Badr was unfortunately a bad one as he had political aspirations of his own and his infidelities turned the royal house against him. He refused to relinquish his hold of power without a struggle and Said, now sixteen, conspired to have him assassinated. On a pretext to inspect the munitions at Nakhal Fort, Badr went to Barka and met Said at Bait al Nu'man castle. There he was killed in a dramatic duel to the death with daggers. A wounded Badr escaped but was finished off by Said's horsemen. Said immediately assumed the government and held it until his death fifty two-years later. He announced to the British that he had assumed power, but they were slow to respond. They acknowledged the young monarch a year later when they realized that their fortunes were best served by courting him. During the reign of the renowned Sultan Said bin Sultan, the progenitor of the House of Al Said,he took Oman to its zenith as a commercial and political maritime power: extending its borders to include Mombasa and parts of the east African coast, Zanzibar, Pemba Island, Mafia Island, Lamu Archipelago, Cape Delgado (northern border of the current Mozambique), Bandar-Abbas and the southern Iranian coast, Gwadar province of Balochistan (bought by Pakistan in 1958) and, for a short time Bahrain. He was counted among the best leaders as his reputation spread to the crown heads of Europe and became known as Said the great. Few Arab leaders of any time were as well known and respected as Sayyid Said. Trade flourished and Muscat became a key market for the Persian Gulf. The celebrated explorer Richard Francis Burton called him "as shrewd, liberal and enlightened a prince as Arabia has ever produced," and an Italian physician who served him for a time said: "His constant love of justice, and distinguished clemency, the effects of which are felt, not only by his own subjects, but even by his domestic slaves."

In 1832, he made the island of Zanzibar his second capital and set about establishing what is present-day Stone Town. A merchant prince and capable warrior, he spent much of his time at sea depending on mercantile and maritime resources for his power in both Oman and Zanzibar. Recognizing the suitability of Zanzibar climate and soil, he initiated large scale cultivation of cloves (an essential meat preservative in Europe prior to the advent of refrigeration) and soon after sought slaves as cheap labor to plant and harvest the biennial crop. He is also noted for revitalizing the production of rice and sugar cane as well as the export of ivory and gum copal. Such was his enterprise and commercial skill that it could probably be said that he established the first International market on the Island of Zanzibar; subsequently many countries signed commercial treaties and opened Consulates. He even introduced a copper coinage to amplify the existing silver coinage of Maria Theresa thalers and Spanish dollars.

Treaty with the United States

On September 21, 1833 a historical treaty of friendship and trade was signed with the United States of America. It was the second treaty formulated by the U.S. and an Arab state (Morocco being the first in 1820). The United States and Oman both stood to benefit as the U.S., unlike Britain and France, had no territorial ambitions in the Middle East and was solely interested in commerce. On April 13, 1840, the ship *Al-Sultanah* docked at New York making it the first Arab envoy to ever visit the New World. Her crew of fifty six Arab sailors caused a flurry of excitement among the three hundred thousand residents of that thriving metropolis. *Al-Sultanah* carried ivory, Persian rugs, spices, coffee and dates, as well as lavish gifts for President Martin Van Buren. The visit of *Al-Sultanah* lasted nearly four months, in which time the emissary, Ahmed Bin Na'aman (whose portrait can still be seen in the Oman and Zanzibar display of the Peabody Museum in Massachusetts) and his officers were entertained by state and city dignitaries. They received resolutions passed by official bodies, were given tours of New York City and saw sections which would, a few decades later, become colonies of Arabic speaking immigrants. Among Bin Na'aman's hosts was Commodore Cornelius Vanderbilt in whose home he met Governor William H. Seward and Vice President Richard Mentor Johnson. The visit of Ahmed Bin Na'aman to America was a happy one, and when he prepared to leave, the United States completely repaired *Al-Sultanah* and presented him with gifts for his Sultan.

End of Said's Reign

Said made periodic visits to Muscat, leaving his eldest son Khaled as Governor of Zanzibar in his absence.

Khalid had a predilection for French goods and named his principal country estate Marseilles, after the French Mediterranean port. When Khalid died of tuberculosis in November 1854, an order came from Said in Muscat appointing another son, the 20-year-old Majid, as governor.

In September 1856, Said sailed for Zanzibar on his ship *Kitorie* in the company of his son nineteen year old son, Barghash bin Said. He began to suffer severe pains from an old battle wound in his thigh followed by an attack of dysentery. He died on board the ship on 19 October 1856 at the age of sixty-five.

Division of Zanzibar and Oman

Schisms within the ruling family were apparent after the death of Sultan Said bin Sultan, as his sons who had their own rivalries and ambitions for controlling the throne quarreled over the empire. Realizing that Majid would be unaware of their father's death, Bargash came ashore secretly and tried to take control of the palace at Mtoni and the fort in Zanzibar town, but he was unable to muster enough supporters and his attempt was thwarted.

On 28 October 1856, Majid proclaimed himself Sultan of Zanzibar. A ship was sent to Oman with the news, but Said's elder son Thuwaini, who was appointed heir apparent on the 23rd July 1844 and had long acted as his father's Governor in Muscat and commander-in-chief of the Saidi forces refused to acknowledge Majid and immediately tried to regain Zanzibar by force of arms. As a direct result of this struggle, the government of British India, concerned with the stability in the area, acted as arbitrator in the dispute. The Governor-General of British India, Lord Canning ruled in his arbitration that the empire was to be divided into two separate Sultanates: The Sultanate of Zanzibar with its dependencies to Majid bin Said, Said's former Governor of the East African dominions, and The Sultanate of Muscat and Oman to Thuwaini bin Said. On the 10th of March 1862, The Zanzibar Guarantee Treaty was signed in Paris by Britain and France, whereby both parties agreed to respect the independence of the Sultan of Oman and the Sultan of Zanzibar. Recognizing the economic loss caused to Oman by the severance of the Zanzibar connection, Thuwaini insisted Majid pay 40,000 Maria Theresa thalers annually as compensation but the payment fell into arrears and ceased a year later.

Recent history

State rule shifted consecutively in Zanzibar from the hands of Majid who had no heirs to three of his brothers until the Zanzibar revolution of 1964 led by the island's black African citizens, saw the overthrow of the last Sultan of Zanzibar, Jamshid bin Abdullah. Zanzibar became a Marxist Republic overnight, the clove industry was nationalised and the Sultan's Hospital was consequently renamed the Vladmir Illych Lenin Hospital (now known by the politically neutral name of the Coconut Palm Infirmary). Jamshid and his family fled to Oman in 1964 then settled into exile in a modest home in Portsmouth, England. He was pardoned by Zanzibar President Salmin Amour on the 46th anniversary of the 1964 uprising and declared free to return as an ordinary Zanzibari citizen, but remains barred from settling in Oman.

In 1868, the Royal House in Oman took a brief turn through a distant line of the family, when Imam Azzan bin Qais started rebelling against Thuwaini bin Said with the help and encouragement of the Wahhabis in 1864. Azzan eventually managed to expel Thuwaini's eldest son Salim bin Thuwaini, seizing power in October 1868. Under Azzan, the country briefly reverted to being an imamate rather than a sultanate and although he was accepted by a significant portion of the al-hinai tribe, his subsequent attempts to subdue the interior alienated the Ghafiri tribe who in 1870 instigated a general revolt led by Salim's uncle Sayyid Turki bin Said. Turki contrived to keep the office within the immediate family and re-establish his father's sultanate; having secured the political and financial backing of the British, he managed to execute Azzan, bringing the revolt to a successful end in January 1871. Succession continues through his great-grandson, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said, the present ruler of Oman and the incarnation of the country's renaissance, who has presided over an era of socio-economic

modernization since 1970.

List of Rulers

Imams of Oman

- 1744–1778 Imam Ahmed bin Said
  - 1778–1783 Imam Said bin Ahmed

Sultans of Oman

- 1783–1792 Sultan Hamad bin Said
  - 1792–1804 Sultan Sultan bin Ahmed
    - 1805–1806 Sultan Badr bin Seif
      - 1806–1856 Sultan Said bin Sultan
        - 1856–1866 Sultan Thuwaini bin Said
          - 1866–1868 Sultan Salim bin Thuwaini
            - 1868–1871 Imam Azzan bin Qais
              - 1871–1888 Sultan Turki bin Said
                - 1888–1913 Sultan Faisal bin Turki
                  - 1913–1932 Sultan Taimur bin Faisal
                    - 1932–1970 Sultan Said bin Taimur
                      - 1970–present Sultan Qaboos bin Said

Sultans of Zanzibar

- 1856–1870 Sultan Majid bin Said
  - 1870–1888 Sultan Barghash bin Said
    - 1888–1890 Sultan Khalifa bin Said
      - 1890–1893 Sultan Ali bin Said
        - 1893–1896 Sultan Hamad bin Thuwaini
          - 26 Aug 1896 Sultan Khalid bin Bargash
            - 1896–1902 Sultan Hamud bin Mohammed
              - 1902–1911 Sultan Ali bin Hamud
                - 1911–1960 Sultan Khalifa bin Harub
                  - 1960–1963 Sultan Abdullah bin Khalifa
                    - 1963–1964 Sultan Jamshid bin Abdullah

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Arpetan
□ □ □ □ □ □
Asturianu
Azərbaycanca
□ □ □ □ □
Bân-lâm-gú
Беларуская
Беларуская (тарашкевіца)

Qatar

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Qatar (/ˈ kɑː tɑr/ or /kəˈ tɑr/;[4][5] Arabic: قطر [ˈ qɑtˤ ɑr]; local vernacular pronunciation: [gɪ tˤ ɑr][6]), also known as the country or **State of Qatar** or locally **Dawlat Qaṭ ar**, is a sovereign Arab state, located in the Middle East, occupying the small Qatar Peninsula on the northeasterly coast of the much larger Arabian Peninsula. Its sole land border is with Saudi Arabia to the south, with the rest of its territory surrounded by the Persian Gulf. A strait of the Persian Gulf separates Qatar from the nearby island state of Bahrain.

Qatar has been ruled as an absolute monarchy by the Al Thani family since the mid-19th century. Formerly a British protectorate noted mainly for pearling, it became independent in 1971, and has become one of the region's wealthiest states due to its enormous oil and natural gas revenues. In 1995, Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani became Emir when he seized power from his father, Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani, in a peaceful coup d'état.[7] The most important positions in Qatar are held by the members of the Al Thani family, or close confidants of the al- Thani family. Beginning in 1992, Qatar has built intimate military ties with the United States, and is now the location of U.S. Central Command's Forward Headquarters and the Combined Air Operations Center.

Qatar has the world's highest per capita GDP and proven reserves of oil and natural gas. Qatar tops the list of World's richest countries by Forbes. In 2010, Qatar had the world's highest GDP per capita, while the economy grew by 19.40%, the fastest in the world. The main drivers for this rapid growth are attributed to ongoing increases in production and exports of liquefied natural gas, oil, petrochemicals and related industries. Qatar has the second-highest human development in the Arab World after the United Arab Emirates. In 2009, Qatar was the United States' fifth-largest export market in the Middle East, trailing behind the U.A.E., Israel, Saudi Arabia and Egypt. With a small citizen population of less than 300,000 people, Qatar workforce comprises expatriates from other Arab nations (20% of population), the Indian subcontinent (India 20%, Nepal 13%, Pakistan 7%, Sri Lanka 5%), Southeast Asia (Philippines 10%), and other countries (5%).[8] Qatar has attracted an estimated $100 billion in investment, with approximately $60–70 billion coming from the U.S in the energy sector. It is estimated that Qatar will invest over $120 billion in the energy sector in the next ten years.[9]

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  2.3 20th and 21st centuries
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4 Geography

State of Qatar
دولة قطر
Dawlat Qaṭ ar



Flag



Emblem

Anthem: السلام الأميري (Arabic)
"As Salam al Amiri" (transliteration)
Amiri Salute



Capital (and largest city)	Doha 25°18′N 51°31′E
Official language(s)	Arabic
Demonym	Qatari
Government	Absolute monarchy
-Emir	Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani
-Crown Prince	Tamim bin Hamad Al Thani
-Prime Minister	Hamad bin Jassim bin Jaber Al Thani
Legislature	Consultative Assembly of Qatar
Independence	
-from the Ottoman Empire	1913
-from United Kingdom	3 September 1971
Area	
-Total	11,437 km² (164th) 4,416 sq mi
-Water (%)	negligible
Population	
-2010 census	1,853,563[1] (148th)
-Density	123.2/km² (123rd) 319.1/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
-Total	$182.591 billion[2] (57th)
-Per capita	$103,275[2] (1st)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate

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Bosanski
Brezhoneg
Català
Чӑ вашла
Cebuano
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Gàidhlig
Galego
ગુજરાતી
Hak-kâ-fa
Хальмг
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עברית
Basa Jawa
Kalaallisut
ಕನ್ನಡ
Kapampangan
ქართული
Қазақша

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-Total	$194.270 billion[2] (49th)
-Per capita	$109,881[2] (2nd)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.831 [3] (very high) (37th)
Currency	Riyal (QAR)
Time zone -Summer (DST)	AST (UTC+3) (not observed) (UTC+3)
Drives on the	Right
ISO 3166 code	QA
Internet TLD	.qa, .قطر
Calling code	974

العربية

This article contains Arabic text, written from right to left in a cursive style with some letters joined. Without proper rendering support, you may see unjoined Arabic letters written left-to-right instead of right-to-left or other symbols instead of Arabic script.

Etymology [edit]

The name may derive from "Qatara", believed to refer to the Qatari town of Zubara, an important trading port and town in the region in ancient times. It is from the Persian word "Gwadar" which means, a port, a bay-port. There are similar places in the region with that name.

In Standard Arabic the name is pronounced [ˈ qa tˤ a r], while in the local dialect it is [ˈ g itˤ ar].[6] In English-language broadcast media within Qatar—for example, television commercials for Qatar Airways and advertisements concerning economic development in Qatar—the name is pronounced "KA-tar" (not "KAT-ar").

History [edit]

Pre-history [edit]

Main article: History of Qatar



Zubara fort

Recent discoveries in Wadi Debay'an, a site located a few kilometers south of Zubara, indicate human presence from 7500 years ago - the earliest known date for human occupation in Qatar. Amongst the findings were a wall built of stone, possibly used as a fish trap.[10] Discovery of a 6th millennium BC site at Shagra, in southeastern Qatar revealed the key role the sea (the Persian Gulf) played in the lives of Shagra's inhabitants. Excavations at Al Khor in northeastern Qatar, Bir Zekrit and Ras Abaruk, and the discovery there of pottery, flint, flint-scraper tools, and painted ceramic vessels indicates Qatar's connection with the Al-Ubaid civilisation, which flourished in the land between the Tigris and the Euphrates rivers in present-day Iraq during the period of 5th–4th millennium BC. It is thought that Mesoptamian fisherman working the rich fishing banks off the Arabian coast visited local settlements, bringing pottery with them and exchanging it for fresh meat in an improvised barter-based trade system.[11] The first potsherds of the Ubaid Mesopotamia were found by a Danish expidition in Al Da'asa in 1961, but not identified until later. A second expedition was held in 1973-74 led by Beatrice De Cardi.[12] Contact between the people of Mesopotamia and the eastern Arabian coast (including Qatar) continued over centuries.

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Nederlands
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Piemontèis
Plattdüütsch
Polski
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Qırımtatarca
Română
Runa Simi
Русский
Саха тыла
Sámegiella
संस्कृतम्
Scots
Shqip
Sicilianu
Simple English

In the early 3rd millennium, Sumerians settled on Tarut Island, off the Saudi coast, approximately 100 kilometers north-west of Qatar. Later, from 2450-1700 BC, Dilmun, a peaceful trading civilization, was centered in Bahrain.[13] Evidence that Qatar was part of the complex trading network is found from the presence of Barbar pottery, a product of the Dilmun civilization, in Ras Abrouk.[14]

Islam was spread in the entire Arabian region by the end of the 7th century resulting in the Islamization of the native Arabian pagans. With the spread of Islam in Qatar, the Islamic prophet Muhammad sent his first military envoy, Al Ala Al-Hadrami, to Al-Mundhir Ibn Sawa Al-Tamimi, the ruler of Bahrain (which extended from the coast of Kuwait to the south of Qatar, including Al-Hasa and Bahrain Islands), in the year 628, inviting him to accept Islam as he had invited other kingdoms and empires of his time such as Byzantium and Persia. Mundhir, in response to Muhammad, announced his acceptance of Islam, and the inhabitants of Qatar became Muslim, heralding the beginning of the Islamic era in Qatar. However, it is likely that some settled populations in Qatar did not instantaneously convert. An important seventh-century saint and mystic, named Isaac of Qatar, became a leader in the Syrian church.[15]

Middle ages [edit]

In medieval times, Qatar was more often than not independent and a participant in the great Persian Gulf–Indian Ocean commerce. Many races and ideas were introduced into the peninsula from the sailors of Sindh, East Africa, South and Southeast Asia, as well as the Malay archipelago. Today, the traces of these early interactions with the oceanic world of the Indian Ocean survive in the small minorities of races, peoples, languages and religions, such as the presence of Africans and Shihus.

Although the peninsula land mass that makes up Qatar has sustained humans for thousands of years, for the bulk of its history, the arid climate fostered only short-term settlements by nomadic tribes. The Abbasid era (750–1258) saw the rise of several settlements, including Murwab. The Portuguese ruled from 1517 to 1538, when they lost to the Ottomans.[*citation needed*]

Qatar did not emerge as a separate political entity until the mid-19th Century when the British recognized Sheik Mohamed bin Thani.[16]

Under military and political pressure from the Governor of the Ottoman province of Baghdad, Midhat Pasha, the The Al-Thani shaykhs in Qatar submitted to Ottoman rule in 1871.[17] By the end of that year, Ottoman rule extended from Kuwait to Qatar.[17] The Ottoman government imposed reformist (Tanzimat) measures concerning taxation and land registration to fully integrate these areas into the empire.[17]

In March 1893, at the Battle of Wajbah (10 miles west of Doha), Shaikh Jassim defeated the Ottomans and banished them for good from Qatar.[18] This date is a landmark in Qatari history, one that marks the emergence of modern Qatar as a nation.

The British initially sought out Qatar and the Persian Gulf as an intermediary vantage point *en route* to their colonial interests in India; although, the discovery of petroleum and other hydrocarbons in the early 20th century would re-invigorate their interest. During the 19th century, the time of Britain's formative ventures into the region, the Al Khalifa clan reigned over the northern Qatari peninsula from the nearby island of Bahrain to the west.

Although Qatar had the legal status of a dependency, resentment festered against the Bahraini Al Khalifas along the eastern seaboard of the Qatari peninsula. In 1867, the Al Khalifas launched a successful effort to crush the Qatari rebels, sending a massive naval force to Al Wakrah. However, the Bahraini aggression was in violation of the 1820 Anglo-Bahraini Treaty. The diplomatic response of the British to this violation set into motion the political forces that would eventuate in the founding of the state of Qatar on 18 December 1878 (for this reason, the date of 18 December is celebrated each year as the Qatar National Day). In addition to censuring Bahrain for its breach of agreement, the British Protectorate (per Colonel Lewis Pelly) asked to negotiate with a representative from Qatar.

The request carried with it a tacit recognition of Qatar's status as distinct from Bahrain. The Qataris chose as their negotiator the entrepreneur and long-time resident of Doha, Muhammed bin Thani. The Al Thanis had taken relatively little part in Persian Gulf politics, but the diplomatic foray ensured their participation in the movement towards independence and their hegemony as the future ruling family, a dynasty that continues to this day. The results of the negotiations left the nation with a new-found sense of political identity, although it did not gain official standing as a British protectorate until 1916.

20th and 21st centuries [edit]

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SiSwati
Slovenčina
Slovenščina
Ślůnski
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کوردی
Српски / Srpski
Srpskohrvatski / Српскохрватски
Basa Sunda
Suomi
Svenska
Tagalog
தமிழ்
Татарча/Tatarça
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Wolof
吴语
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Zazaki
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中文

The reach of the British Empire diminished after World War II, especially following Indian independence in 1947. Pressure for a British withdrawal from the Arab emirates in the Persian Gulf increased during the 1950s, and the British welcomed Kuwait's declaration of independence in 1961. When Britain officially announced in 1968 that it would disengage politically (though not economically) from the Persian Gulf in three years' time, Qatar joined Bahrain and seven other Trucial States in a federation. Regional disputes, however, quickly compelled Qatar to resign and declare independence from the coalition that would evolve into the seven-emirate United Arab Emirates. On 3 September 1971, Qatar became an independent sovereign state.


Diwan Al-Emiri

In 1991, Qatar played a significant role in the Persian Gulf War, particularly during the Battle of Khafji in which Qatari tanks rolled through the streets of the town providing fire support for Saudi Arabian National Guard units which were fighting against units of the Iraqi Army. Qatar also allowed Coalition troops from Canada to use the country as an airbase to launch aircraft on CAP duty.

Since 1995, Emir Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani has ruled Qatar, seizing control of the country from his father Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani while the latter vacationed in Switzerland. Under Emir Hamad, Qatar has experienced a notable amount of sociopolitical liberalization, including the endorsement of women's suffrage or right to vote, drafting a new constitution, and the launch of Al Jazeera, an outspoken news organization.

Qatar served as the headquarters and one of the main launching sites of the US invasion of Iraq[19] in 2003.

In December 2010, Qatar was selected to host the 2022 FIFA World Cup, and will be the first country in the Middle East to host the tournament.

National Day [edit]

Qatar National Day on December 18 is the day Qataris celebrate their national identity and history. On that day, expressions of affection and gratitude are conveyed to the people of Qatar who cooperated in solidarity and vowed allegiance and obedience to Shaikh Jassim bin Mohammed Al Thani as a leader in 1878[*citation needed*].

Geography [edit]

Main article: Geography of Qatar

The Qatari peninsula juts 100 miles (161 km) north into the Persian Gulf from Saudi Arabia. It lies between latitudes 24° and 27° N, and longitudes 50° and 52° E.


Desert landscape in Qatar

Much of the country consists of a low, barren plain, covered with sand. To the southeast lies the spectacular *Khor al Adaid* ("Inland Sea"), an area of rolling sand dunes surrounding an inlet of the Persian Gulf. There are mild winters and very hot, humid summers.

The highest point in Qatar is Qurayn Abu al Bawl at 103 metres (338 ft)[20] in the Jebel Dukhan to the west, a range of low limestone outcroppings running north-south from Zikrit through Umm Bab to the southern border. The Jebel Dukhan area also contains Qatar's main onshore oil deposits, while the natural gas fields lie offshore, to the northwest of the peninsula.



Map of Qatar

Government and politics [edit]

Main article: Politics of Qatar

Qatar has an unelected, monarchic, emirate-type government. The position of emir is hereditary.[20]

Council of Ministers [edit]

The Emir has the exclusive power to appoint and remove the prime minister and cabinet ministers who, together, comprise the Council of Ministers, which is the the supreme executive authority in the country.[21] The Council of Ministers also initiates legislation. Laws and decrees proposed by the Council of Ministers are referred to the Advisory Council (Majilis Al Shura) for discussion after which they are submitted to the Emir for ratification.[21]

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Legislative bodies [edit]

An Advisory Council or Majlis al-Shura has limited legislative authority to draft and approve laws, but the Emir has final say on all matters.[20] No legislative elections have been held since 1970 when there were partial elections to the body.[20]

In 2003, Qatar adopted a new constitution that provided for the direct election of 30 of the 45 members of Advisory Council.[22][20] As of 2012, the Council is comprised entirely of members appointed by the Emir.[20]

Elections to the Majlis al-Shurahave have been announced, and then postponed, several times.[22] In 2011, the emir announced that elections to the council would be held in the second half of 2013[23]

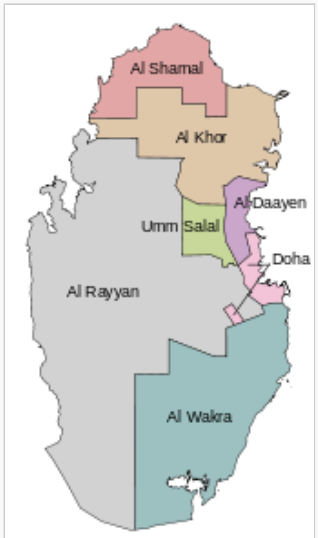
An elected 29-member Central Municipal Council (CMC) has limited consultative authority aimed at improving municipal services.[20] The CMC makes recommendations to the Ministry for Municipal Affairs and Agriculture. Disagreement between the CMC and the Ministry can be brought to the Council of Ministers for resolution.[22] Municipal elections are scheduled for every four years.[22] The most recent elections for the council were in May 2011.[20] Before 1999, members of the CMC were appointed by the government.

Administrative divisions [edit]

Main article: Municipalities of Qatar

Before 2004, Qatar was divided into ten *municipalities* (Arabic: *baladiyah*), also occasionally or rarely translated as *governorates* or *provinces*:

1. Doha (Ad Dawhah) الدوحة
2. Al Ghuwariyah الغويرية
3. Al Jumaliyah الجميلية
4. Al Khawr الخور
5. Al Wakrah الوكرة
6. Ar Rayyan الريان
7. Jariyan al Batnah جريان الباطنة
8. Madinat ash Shamal الشمال
9. Umm Salal أم صلال
10. Mesaieed مسيعيد



Map of the municipalities of Qatar, since 2004

Since 2004, Qatar has been divided into seven municipalities.[24] A new municipality, Al Daayen, was created under Resolution No. 13,[25] formed from parts of Umm Salal and Al Khawr; at the same time, Al Ghuwariyah was merged with Al Khawr; Al Jumaliyah was merged with Ar Rayyan; Jarayan al Batnah was split between Ar Rayyan and Al Wakrah; and Mesaieed was merged with Al Wakrah.

For statistical purposes, the municipalities are further subdivided into zones (87 in number as of 2004), which are in turn subdivided into blocks.[26]

Qatari law [edit]

Qatar is a civil law jurisdiction.[*citation needed*] However, *Shari'a* or Islamic law is applied to aspects of family law, inheritance and certain criminal acts.[27]

Labor laws [edit]

Many cases of ill-treatment of immigrant labour have been observed. Qatar does not maintain wage standards for its immigrant labor, and does not permit labour-unions. Under the provisions of Qatar's sponsorship law, sponsors have the unilateral power to cancel workers' residency permits, deny workers' ability to change employers, report a worker as "absconded" to police authorities, and deny permission to leave the country.[28] As a result, sponsors may restrict workers' movements and workers may be afraid to report abuses or claim their rights.[28]

Criminal Sanctions [edit]

As of 2005, certain provisions of the Qatari Criminal Code allowed punishments such as flogging and stoning to be imposed as criminal sanctions. The UN Committee Against Torture found that these practices constituted a breach of the obligations imposed by the UN Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.[29][30] Qatar retains the death penalty, mainly for threats against national security.

Laws governing alcohol and other dietary issues [edit]

Alcohol consumption is legal in Qatar, with many restrictions. Luxury hotels are allowed to sell alcohol to their adult non-Muslim customers.[31][32] Foreign nationals may obtain a permit to purchase alcohol for personal consumption. The Qatar Distribution Company (a subsidiary of Qatar Airways) is permitted to import alcohol and operates the only liquor stores in the country.[33] Pork is also legally imported through the Qatar Distribution Company, and may be purchased by holders of a liquor permit.

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Until recently, restaurants on the Pearl-Qatar (a manmade island near Doha) were allowed to serve alcoholic drinks.[31][32] In December 2011, however, restaurants on the Pearl were told to stop selling alcohol.[31][34] No explanation was given for the ban.[31][32] Speculation about the reason includes the government's desire to project a more pious image in advance of the country's first election of a royal advisory body and rumours of a financial dispute between the government and the resort's developers.[34]

Foreign relations [edit]

Main article: Foreign relations of Qatar

Qatar was also an early member of OPEC and a founding member of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). It is a member of the Arab League. The country has not accepted compulsory International Court of Justice jurisdiction.[20]

Qatar has bilateral relationships with a variety of foreign powers. It has allowed American forces to use an air base to send supplies to Iraq and Afghanistan.[35] It has also signed a defense cooperation agreement with Saudi Arabia,[36] with whom it shares the largest single non-associated gas field in the world. It was the second nation, the first being France, to have publicly announced its recognition of the Libyan opposition's National Transitional Council as the legitimate government of Libya amidst the 2011 Libyan civil war.[37]

The history of Qatar's alliances provides insight into the basis of their policy. Between 1760 and 1971, Qatar sought formal protection from the high transitory powers of the Ottomans, British, the Al-Khalifa's from Bahrain, the Persians, and the Wahhabis from Saudi Arabia.[38] It has undoubtedly been a powerless nation between influential nations and always fearful of losing their sovereignty. It was quickly determined that creating permanent alliances is not in Qatar's best interest and that it could not rest its security in the hands of another; the only thing that is permanent is Qatar's interests. Qatar sought to secure the growing threat of being in a volatile geographic region, with mistrust and nuclear threats within close proximity, by inviting the US to create a full-functioning military base . Sheikh Hamad's coup in 1995 reinvigorated its foreign policy, allowing it to step out of Saudi Arabia's shadow, and unaligned its policies from them, surprising the region. Speculation of a Saudi Arabian-,sponsored coup attempt in the late 1990s to reinstate the ousted Emir's father, and border disputes, led to obstreperous relations, resulting in Riyadh withdrawing diplomatic representation from 2002 to 2007. Launch of *Al-Jazeera* certainly did not help; it bred mistrust within the region, and brought into question the motives behind it and Qatar's road to modernity in relation to the various countries it affected.

In March 2005, a suicide bombing killed a British teacher at the Doha Players Theatre, shocking for a country that had not previously experienced acts of terrorism. The bombing was carried out by Omar Ahmed Abdullah Ali, an Egyptian residing in Qatar, who had suspected ties to Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula.[39][40] According to leaked documents published in *The New York Times*, Qatar's record of counterterrorism efforts was the "worst in the region" although Qatar had been a generous host to the American military.[41] The cable suggested that Qatar's security service was "hesitant to act against known terrorists out of concern for appearing to be aligned with the U.S. and provoking reprisals".[41]

Role in international community [edit]

Besides causing a stir in the media world, Qatar has also made a name for itself in the international arena, with its attempt to brand itself as a peaceful neutral world power. It has attempted to achieve that goal by acting as a mediator, and promoting peace in the region and beyond.

- Mediation

As of 2011, Qatar has engaged in mediation efforts in Western Sahara, Yemen, the Ethiopia-Eritrea conflict, Indonesia, Somalia, and famously in Darfur and Lebanon. In addition, Qatar has involved itself in deep negotiations between the Palestinian authorities, Hamas and Fatah. Qatar's involvement as a mediator in all of these situations may be vindicated by its lack of ties to any super-national or regional powers, and by the strategy of neutrality it has followed in order to be seen as an unbiased entity in conflicts.

- International Organizations and Conferences

Qatar has continued to take on more roles in the international organizational realm. In 1997 Qatar hosted the Middle East and North African summit, where it invited Israeli representation. In 2001, Qatar took the initiative and held a WTO ministerial meeting to further trade negotiations, commonly known as the 'Doha Round'. Most notably, Qatar held an elected seat for two years in the United Nations Security Council from 2005 to 2007, maximizing its exposure and solidifying its presence in the international community.

Qatar has hosted academic, religious, political and economic conferences. The 11th annual Doha Forum recently brought in key thinkers, professionals of various backgrounds, and political figures from all over the world to discuss democracy, media and information technology, free trade, and water security issues. This year was the first year the forum featured the Middle East Economic Future conference.[42]

Human rights [edit]

Main article: Human rights in Qatar

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Immigrant labor and human trafficking [edit]

Qatar is a destination for men and women from South Asia and Southeast Asia who migrate willingly, but are subsequently trafficked into involuntary servitude as domestic workers and labourers, and, to a lesser extent, commercial sexual exploitation. The most common offence was forcing workers to accept worse contract terms than those under which they were recruited. Other offences include bonded labour, withholding of pay, restrictions on movement, arbitrary detention, and physical, mental, and sexual abuse.[20]

According to the Trafficking in Persons Report by the US State Department, men and women who are lured into Qatar by promises of high wages are often forced into underpaid labour. The report states that Qatari laws against forced labour are rarely enforced, and that labour laws often result in the detention of victims in deportation centres, pending the completion of legal proceedings[*citation needed*]. The report places Qatar at tier 3, as one of the countries that neither satisfies the minimum standards, nor demonstrates significant efforts to come into compliance.[43][44]

The government maintains that it is setting the benchmark when it comes to human rights[45] and treatment of labourers.

In common with other Arab countries of the Persian Gulf, sponsorship laws exist in Qatar. These laws have been widely described as akin to modern-day slavery.[46] The sponsorship system (*kafeel* or *kafala*) exists throughout the GCC, apart from Bahrain, and means that a worker (not a tourist) may not enter the country without having a *kafeel*; cannot leave without the *kafeel*`s permission (an exit permit must first be awarded by the sponsor, or *kafeel*); and the sponsor has the right to ban the employee from entering Qatar within 2–5 years of his first departure. Various governmental sponsors have recently exercised their right to prevent employees from leaving the country, effectively holding them against their will for no good reason. Some individuals after resigning have not been issued with their exit permits, denying them their basic right to leave the country. Many sponsors do not allow the transfer of one employee to another sponsor. This does not apply to special sponsorship of a Qatar Financial Centre-sponsored worker, where it is encouraged and regulated that sponsorship should be uninhibited and assistance should be given to allow for such transfers of sponsorship.

Barwa, a Qatari contracting agency, is constructing a residential area for labourers known as Barwa Al Baraha (also called "Worker's City"). The project was launched after a recent scandal in Dubai's labour camps. The project aims to provide a reasonable standard of living as defined by the new Human Rights Legislation.[47] The Barwa Al Baraha will cost around $1.1 billion and will be a completely integrated city in the industrial area in Doha. Along with 4.25 square meters of living space per person, the residential project will provide parks, recreational areas, malls, and shops for labourers. Phase one of the project was set to be completed by the end of 2008, and the project itself is set to be completed by the middle of 2010.[48]

Women's rights [edit]

Women in Qatar vote and may run for public office. Qatar enfranchised women at the same time as men in connection with the 1999 elections for a Central Municipal Council.[49][22] These elections—the first ever in Qatar—were deliberately held on March 8, 1999, International Women's Day.[22]

Women hold leadership positions in a number of ministries/supreme councils.

Qatari women are allowed to go out and drive without related male companion. While most Qatari women wear the abaya, there does not seem to be any formal restrictions on what women can wear, although, as in most countries, dressing modestly is generally preferred.

Freedom of religion [edit]

The government uses Sunni law as the basis of its criminal and civil regulations. Some religious tolerance is granted. Foreign nationals are free to affiliate with their faiths other than Islam, e.g. Christianity, Hinduism, Sikhism, Buddhism, and Bahai, as long as they are religious in private and do not offend 'public order' or 'morality'.

In March 2008, a Roman Catholic church, Our Lady of the Rosary, was consecrated in Doha. No missionaries were allowed in the community. The church will have no bells, crosses or other Christian symbols on it and its premises.

Incidents [edit]

A Wikileaks report has revealed that letters signed by the deputy prime minister, Abdullah al-Attiyah, and sent to Royal Dutch Shell, ExxonMobil, and a number of other major oil companies, showed that the Qatar government demanded donations of up to $1.7 billion toward the cost of building a medical centre in 2007.[50]

Economy [edit]

Main article: Economy of Qatar

See also: List of tallest buildings in Doha, Qatar

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The economic growth of Qatar has been almost exclusively based on its petrol and natural gas industry, which began in 1940.[51] The country has experienced rapid growth over the last several years due to high oil prices, and in 2008 posted its eighth consecutive budget surplus. Economic policy is focused on developing Qatar's non-associated natural gas reserves and increasing private and foreign investment in non-energy sectors, but oil and gas still account for more than 50% of GDP; roughly 85% of export earnings, and 70% of government revenues.



Qatar's capital, Doha

Oil and gas have made Qatar one of the highest per-capita income countries, and one of the world's fastest growing. The World Factbook states that Qatar has the second-highest GDP per capita in the world, after Liechtenstein. Proved oil reserves of 15 billion barrels should enable continued output at current levels for 37 years. Qatar's proved reserves of natural gas are nearly 26 trillion cubic metres, about 14% of the world total and the third largest in the world.

Before the discovery of oil, the economy of the Qatari region focused on fishing and pearl hunting. After the introduction of the Japanese cultured pearl onto the world market in the 1920s and 1930s, Qatar's pearling industry crashed. However, the discovery of oil, beginning in the 1940s, completely transformed the state's economy. Now, the country has a high standard of living, with many social services offered to its citizens and all the amenities of any modern state. It relies heavily on foreign labour to grow its economy, to the extent that 94% of its labour is carried out by foreigners. Labour laws in Qatar have improved over recent years, and Qatar is now the only state in the GCC to allow labour unions.

Qatar's national income primarily derives from oil and natural gas exports. The country has oil reserves of 15 billion barrels, while gas reserves in the giant North Field (which straddles the border with Saudi Arabia and is almost as large as the peninsula itself) are estimated to be between 80 trillion cubic feet (2.3×10^{12} m^3) to 800 trillion cubic feet (23×10^{12} m^3) (1 trillion cubic feet of gas is equivalent to about 180 million barrels (29×10^6 m^3) of oil). Qataris' wealth and standard of living compare well with those of Western European states; Qatar has the highest GDP per capita in the Arab World, according to the International Monetary Fund (2010)[52] and the CIA World Factbook.[53] With no income tax, Qatar (along with Bahrain) is one of the countries with the lowest tax rates in the world.Qatar has been ranked as the world's richest country per capita in a new list compiled by US-based Forbes magazine. Blessed with the third-largest natural gas reserves in the world, the Arab Gulf emirate of 1.7 million people is benefitting from a rebound in oil prices. Adjusted for purchasing power (PPP), Qatar has an estimated gross domestic product per capita of $88,222.



West Bay in Doha

While oil and gas will probably remain the backbone of Qatar's economy for some time to come, the country seeks to stimulate the private sector and develop a "knowledge economy". In 2004, it established the Qatar Science & Technology Park to attract and serve technology-based companies and entrepreneurs, from overseas and within Qatar. Qatar also established Education City, which consists of international colleges. For the 15th Asian Games in Doha, it established Doha Sports City, consisting of Khalifa stadium, the Aspire Sports Academy, aquatic centres, exhibition centres and many other sports related buildings and centres. Following the success of the Asian Games, Doha kicked off an official bid to host the 2016 Summer Olympics in October 2007.[54] Its bid was finally eliminated from consideration in June 2008. Qatar also plans to build an "entertainment city" in the future.

The Qatari government hopes that large-scale investment in all social and economic sectors will lead to the development of a strong financial market.

The Qatar Financial Centre (QFC) provides financial institutions with world-class services in investment, margin and no-interest loans, and capital support. These platforms are situated in an economy founded on the development of its hydrocarbons resources, specifically its exportation of petroleum. It has been created with a long term perspective to support the development of Qatar and the wider region, develop local and regional markets, and strengthen the links between the energy based economies and global financial markets.

Apart from Qatar itself, which needs to raise capital to finance projects of more than $130 billion, the QFC also provides a conduit for financial institutions to access nearly $1.0 trillion of investments which stretch across the GCC (Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf) as a whole over the next decade. Commercial ties between the United States and Qatar have been expanding at a rapid pace over the last five years, with trade volumes growing by more than 340%, from $738 million in 2003 to $3.2 billion in 2009. Over the same period, U.S. exports increased 580 percent to $2.7 billion, making the United States the largest import partner for Qatar. US companies look to play key role in the $60 billion dollars that Qatar will invest in roads, infrastructure development, housing and real estate, health/medical and sanitation projects in the next decade.

The new town of Lusail, the largest project ever in Qatar, is under construction.

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Transportation [edit]

Main article: Transport in Qatar

The primary means of transportation in Qatar is by road, due to the very cheap price of petroleum. The country as a result has an advanced road system undergoing vast upgrades in response to the country's rapidly rising population, with several highways undergoing upgrades and new expressways within Doha under construction. A large bus network connects Doha with other towns in the country, and is the primary means of public transportation in the city.



Corniche

The Salwa International Highway currently connects Doha to the border with Saudi Arabia, and a causeway with both road and rail links to Bahrain at Zubarah is due to begin construction shortly. The causeway will become the largest in the world, and will be the second to connect Bahrain to the Arabian Peninsula.

Currently, no rail networks exist in the country. In November 2009, however, the government signed a $26 billion contract with the German company Deutsche Bahn to construct a railway system over the next 20 years. The network will connect the country itself, and will include an international link with neighbouring states as part of a larger rail network being constructed across the countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council. A railway link is also under construction between Qatar and Bahrain as part of the Qatar Bahrain Causeway.

Qatar's main airport is the Doha International Airport, which served almost 15,000,000 passengers in 2007. In comparison, the airport served only 2,000,000 passengers in 1998. As a result of the much larger volumes of passengers flying into and through the country today, the New Doha International Airport is currently under construction, and will replace the existing airport in 2012.

Climate [edit]

Main article: Climate of Qatar

Climate data for Qatar													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Average high °C (°F)	22 (72)	23 (73)	27 (81)	32 (90)	38 (100)	41 (106)	41 (106)	41 (106)	38 (100)	35 (95)	29 (84)	24 (75)	32.6 (90.6)
Average low °C (°F)	13 (55)	13 (55)	17 (63)	21 (70)	25 (77)	27 (81)	29 (84)	29 (84)	26 (79)	23 (73)	19 (66)	15 (59)	21.4 (70.6)
Precipitation mm (inches)	12.7 (0.5)	17.8 (0.701)	15.2 (0.598)	7.6 (0.299)	2.5 (0.098)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2.5 (0.098)	12.7 (0.5)	71 (2.8)
Source: weather.com[55]													

Environmental issues [edit]

In 2005, Qatar had the highest per-capita carbon dioxide emissions, at 55.5 metric tons per person.[56] This is almost double the next highest per-capita emitting country, which is Kuwait at 30.7 metric tons (2005) and they are three times those of the United States. By 2007, Qatar's emission rate increased to 69 tons per person per year.[57] Qatar had the highest per-capita carbon dioxide emissions for the past 18 years. These emissions are largely due to high rates of energy use in Qatar. Major uses of energy in Qatar include air conditioning, natural gas processing, water desalination and electricity production. Between 1995 and 2011 the electricity generating capacity of Qatar will have increased to six times the previous level. The fact that Qataris do not have to pay for either their water or electricity supplies is thought to contribute to their high rate of energy use. They are also one of the highest consumers of water per capita per day, using around 400 litres.[58]

Renee Richer, visiting professor of Biology at Weill Cornell Medical College in Qatar[59] lectures:

Social and economic changes are taking place at an alarming rate, putting at risk the natural and cultural resources of Qatar. However, such loss of natural and cultural heritage need not be the case and great economic benefits can be gained from ecologically based development. Qatar is in a unique position, given the financial resources and forward thinking leadership, to move ahead and be amongst the first countries ready to take advantage of the next economic revolution: the green revolution.[60]

Population [edit]

Main article: Demographics of Qatar

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Out of the total population of approximately 1.5 million (May 2008 est.), the make up of ethnic groups is as follows: Qatari (Arab) 20%; other Arab 20%; Indian 20%; Filipino 10%; Nepali 13%; Pakistani 7%; Sri Lankan 5%; other 5%.[8] Arabic, English, Malayalam, Hindi, Tamil, Tagalog, Urdu and Punjabi are the most widely spoken languages[*citation needed*].

Year	Population
1908 est.	22,000[61]
1939 est.	28,000[61]
late 1960s	70,000[62]
1986	369,079
1997	522,023[63]
2000	744,483
2001	769,152
2002	793,341
2003	817,052
2004	840,290
2005	863,051
2006	885,359
2007	1,207,229
2008	1,524,789[20]
2009	1,309,000[64]
2010	1,696,563
2011	1,692,262

Culture [edit]

See also: Music of Qatar

Qatari culture (music, art, dress, and cuisine) is similar to that of other Arab countries of the Persian Gulf; see Culture of the Arab States of the Persian Gulf. Arab tribes from Saudi Arabia migrated to Qatar and other places in the gulf; therefore, the culture in the Persian Gulf region varies little from country to country.

Qatar explicitly uses Sharia law as the basis of its government, and the vast majority of its citizens follow Hanbali Madhhab. Hanbali (Arabic: حنبلی) is one of the four schools (Madhhabs) of Fiqh or religious law within Sunni Islam (the other three being Hanafi, Maliki and Shafii). Sunni Muslims believe that all four schools have "correct guidance", and the differences between them lie not in the fundamentals of faith, but in finer judgments and jurisprudence, which are a result of the independent reasoning of the imams and the scholars who followed them. Because their individual methodologies of interpretation and extraction from the primary sources (usul) were different, they came to different judgments on particular matters. Shi'as comprise around 10% of the Muslim population in Qatar.[65]

Religion [edit]

Main article: Religion in Qatar

See also: Islam in Qatar and Christianity in Qatar

Islam is the predominant religion. According to the 2004 census, 77.5% of the population are Muslim, 8.5% are Christian and 14% are "Other".[20] About 5% of the Muslims living in Qatar are Shi'a.[65]

The majority of non-citizens are from South and Southeast Asian and Arab countries working on temporary employment contracts, accompanied by family members in some cases.[*citation needed*] Non-citizens can be Sunni or Shi'a Muslims, Protestant or Catholic Christians, Hindus, Sikhs, Buddhists, or Bahá'ís.

Religion is not a criterion for citizenship, according to the Nationality Law.

The Christian population consists nearly completely of foreigners. Active churches are Mar Thoma Church from Southern India, Arab Evangelicals from Syria and Palestine, and Anglicans,[66] about 50,000 Catholics and Copts from Egypt.[67] No foreign missionary groups operate openly in the country,[68] but the government allows churches to conduct Mass. Since 2008, Christians have been allowed to build churches on ground donated by the government.[69]

Sport [edit]

Main article: Sport in Qatar



Khalifa International Stadium, home stadium of the Qatar national football team.

Football is the most popular sport in Qatar, closely followed by cricket. The Qatar under-20 national football team finished second in the 1981 FIFA World Youth Championship after a 4–0 defeat to Germany in the final.

The Asian Football Confederation's 2011 AFC Asian Cup finals was held in Qatar in January 2011. It was the fifteenth time the tournament has been held, and the second time it has been hosted by Qatar, the other being the 1988 AFC Asian Cup.

Doha, Qatar is also home to Qatar Racing Club a Drag Racing facility. Sheik Khalid bin Hamad Al Thani is very involved in the sport and owner of Al-Anabi Racing.

Khalifa International Tennis and Squash Complex in Doha, Qatar hosted the WTA Tour Championships in women's tennis between 2008 and 2010. Doha holds the WTA Premier tournament Qatar Ladies Open annually.

On 2 December 2010, Qatar won their bid to host the 2022 FIFA World Cup.[70] Doha is currently bidding to host the 2020 Summer Olympics.[71]

Nasser Al-Attiyah of Qatar won the 2011 Dakar Rally and the Production World Rally Championship in 2006. In addition, he has also won gold medals at the 2002 Asian Games and 2010 Asian Games as part of the Qatari skeet shooting team, as well as a bronze medal in the individual skeet event at the 2010 Asian Games in Guangzhou.

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Since 2002 Qatar has hosted the annual Tour of Qatar, a cycling race in six stages. Every February riders are racing on the roads across Qatar's flat land for six days. Each stage covers a distance of more than 100 km, though the time trial usually is a shorter distance. Tour of Qatar is organised by the Qatar Cycling Federation for professional riders in the category of Elite Men.[72]

Education [edit]

Main article: Education in Qatar



Cornell University's Weill Medical College in Qatar

In recent years Qatar has placed great emphasis on education. Citizens are required to attend government-provided education from kindergarten through high school.[73] Qatar University was founded in 1973. More recently, with the support of the Qatar Foundation, a number of leading US universities have opened branch campuses in the Education City. These include

- Carnegie Mellon University
- Cornell University's Weill Cornell Medical College
- Georgetown University School of Foreign Service
- Houston Community College System
- Northwestern University
- Texas A&M University
- Virginia Commonwealth University School of the Arts

In 2008, Qatar established the Qatar Science & Technology Park at Education City to link those universities with industry. Education City is also home to a fully accredited International Baccalaureate school, Qatar Academy. Two Canadian institutions, the College of the North Atlantic and the University of Calgary, also operate campuses in Doha. Other for-profit universities have also established campuses in the city.[74]

In 2009 Qatar Foundation launched a non-profit radio station,QF Radio 93.7 FM [3], which offers a streaming online service providing regular programs about Education, Science, Community Development and the Arts in Qatar, to a global online audience. It also broadcasts to Doha, Qatar on 93.7 FM. The program is produced as 70% in Arabic and 30% in English.

In 2009, the Qatar Foundation launched the World Innovation Summit for Education – WISE – a global forum that brought together education stakeholders, opinion leaders and decision makers from all over the world to discuss educational issues. The first edition was held in Doha from 16 to 18 November 2009, the second from 7 to 9 December 2010. The third edition will be held from 1 to 3 November 2011.

Moreover, in 2007 the American Brookings Institution announced that it was opening the Brookings Doha Center to undertake research and programming on the socio-economic and geo-political issues facing the region.

In November 2002, the Emir Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani created the Supreme Education Council.[75] The Council directs and controls education for all ages from the pre-school level through the university level, including the "Education for a New Era"[76] reform initiative.

The Emir's second wife, Her Highness Sheikha Mozah Bint Nasser Al-Missned, has been instrumental in new education initiatives in Qatar. She chairs the Qatar Foundation, sits on the board of Qatar's Supreme Education Council, and is a major driving force behind the importation of Western expertise into the education system, particularly at the college level. In addition, The Qatar Foundation has supported the implementation of Arabic language programs in American public schools through the establishment of Qatar Foundation International, a U.S.-based non-profit dedicated to connecting the culture of American and Qatari students.

There are currently a total of 567 schools in operation within Qatar, both in the public and the private sector. A large number of new schools are also under construction, particularly public schools, in order to meet increased demand which arose as a result of the large increase in population that the country has seen of late. There are nine universities in the country, serving 12,480 students.

Health care [edit]

Hamad Medical Corporation (HMC)—affiliated with Cornell University—is the premier non-profit health care provider in Doha, Qatar. Established by the Emiri decree in 1979, HMC manages four highly specialised hospitals and a health care centre: Hamad General Hospital, Rumailah Hospital, Women's Hospital, Psychiatric Hospital and the Primary Health Care Centres. These hospitals are quite sophisticated by the standards of the region, with most hosting advanced fMRI and other scanning machines. Other private hospitals and polyclinics consist of Sidra Hospital, Al-Ahli Hospital, Doha Clinic, Al-Emadi Hospital, The American Hospital and Tadawi Medical. Qatar has among the highest rates in the world for obesity, diabetes and genetic disorders.[77] On the Qatar border, Saudi Arabia has set up the Salwa General Hospital, which is also serving all Qatari patients in good will of GCC.[*citation needed*]

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Communications [edit]

Qatar has a modern telecommunication system centered in Doha. Tropospheric scatter to Bahrain; microwave radio relay to Saudi Arabia and UAE; submarine cable to Bahrain and UAE; satellite earth stations – two Intelsat (one Atlantic Ocean and one Indian Ocean) and one Arabsat. Callers can call Qatar using submarine cable, satellite, or VoIP (Skype/ Internet calling). However, Qtel has interfered with VoIP systems in the past, and Skype's website has been blocked before. Following complaints from individuals, the website has been unblocked, and Paltalk has previously been blocked.

Qtel's ISP branch, Internet Qatar, uses SmartFilter to block websites they deem inappropriate to Qatari interests and morality.

In Qatar, ictQATAR (Supreme Council of Information and Communication Technology) is the government agency regulating telecommunication.

Vodafone Qatar, in partnership with the Qatar Foundation, received the second public mobile networks and services license in Qatar on 28 June 2008 and switched on their mobile network on 1 March 2009. They launched 7 July 2009, opening their online store first followed by retail and third party distribution locations throughout Doha. However, this was discontinued in 2010.

Al Jazeera (Arabic: الجزيرة *al-ǧazīrā* [aldʒ a' zi ː ra], "The Island") is a television network headquartered in Doha, Qatar. Al Jazeera initially launched as an Arabic news and current affairs satellite TV channel of the same name, but has since expanded into a network of several specialty TV channels.

Print media is going through expansion, with over three English dailies and Arabic titles. *Qatar Today* is the only monthly business magazine in the country. It is published by Oryx Advertising, which is the largest magazine publisher in Qatar. The group also publishes several titles such as *Qatar Al Youm*, the only monthly business magazine in Qatar in Arabic language, *Woman Today*, the only magazine for working women, and *GLAM*,[78] the only fashion magazine. In December 2009 Oryx launched *T Qatar*: *The New York Times* Style Magazine,[79] which marks the entry of an international magazine into Qatar.

Doha Stadium Plus is the only dedicated Sports magazine published out of the country. It covers a large variety of sports. It is published by ASPIRE Printing, Publishing and Distribution company. It is published every Wednesday and has been in existence since February, 2006. It brought out a special supplement for the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa as well as the 2011 AFC Asian Cup in Doha, Qatar, in addition to the weekly editions. They relaunched their website on 15 June 2011.

See also [edit]

- Outline of Qatar
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- The Scout and Guide Association of Qatar
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- Permanent Population Committee

Geography portal
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Book: Qatar
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VTE	**Foreign relations of Qatar**

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Diplomatic missions of / in Qatar

Geographic locale

VTE **Countries and dependencies of Asia**

Sovereign states	Afghanistan Armenia Azerbaijan Bahrain Bangladesh Bhutan Brunei Burma (Myanmar) Cambodia China Cyprus Egypt Georgia India Indonesia Iran Iraq Israel Japan Jordan Kazakhstan North Korea South Korea Kuwait Kyrgyzstan Laos Lebanon Malaysia Maldives Mongolia Nepal Oman Pakistan Philippines **Qatar** Russia Saudi Arabia Singapore Sri Lanka Syria Tajikistan Thailand East Timor (Timor-Leste) Turkey Turkmenistan United Arab Emirates Uzbekistan Vietnam Yemen	
States with limited recognition	Abkhazia Republic of China (Taiwan) Nagorno-Karabakh Northern Cyprus Palestine South Ossetia	
Dependencies and Special Administrative Regions	**Australia**	Christmas Island Cocos (Keeling) Islands
	China (PRC)	Hong Kong Macau
	United Kingdom	Akrotiri and Dhekelia British Indian Ocean Territory



VTE **Countries of Western Asia**

Armenia Azerbaijan Bahrain Cyprus Georgia Iran Iraq Israel Jordan Kuwait Lebanon Oman Palestine **Qatar** Saudi Arabia Syria Turkey United Arab Emirates Yemen

VTE **Middle East**

Countries and territories	**Middle East**	Bahrain Cyprus Egypt *Gaza Strip* Iraq Iran Israel Jordan Kuwait Lebanon *Northern Cyprus*[1] Oman **Qatar** Saudi Arabia Syria Turkey United Arab Emirates *West Bank* Yemen
	Greater Middle East	Afghanistan Algeria Armenia Azerbaijan Djibouti Eritrea Georgia Libya Morocco Pakistan Somalia Sudan Tunisia *Western Sahara* (SADR)
Other topics	History (timeline) List of conflicts Etiquette	

[1] Only recognized by Turkey; see Cyprus dispute

VTE **Countries and territories bordering the Indian Ocean**

Africa	Comoros · Djibouti · Egypt · Eritrea · France (*Mayotte* and *Réunion*) · Kenya · Madagascar · Mauritius · Mozambique · *Rodrigues*, Mauritius · Seychelles · Somalia · *Somaliland* (Unrecognized) · South Africa · Sudan · Tanzania · *Zanzibar*, Tanzania
Asia	Bahrain · Bangladesh · *British Indian Ocean Territory* (*Chagos Archipelago*), United Kingdom · Burma · *Christmas Island* and *Cocos (Keeling) Islands*, Australia · India · Indonesia · Iran · Iraq · Israel · Jordan · Kuwait · Malaysia · Maldives · Oman · Pakistan · **Qatar** · Saudi Arabia · Sri Lanka · Thailand · Timor-Leste · United Arab Emirates · Yemen
Other	*Antarctica* · Australia



VTE **Countries bordering the Persian Gulf**

Bahrain Iran Iraq Kuwait Oman **Qatar** Saudi Arabia United Arab Emirates

International membership

VTE **Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC)**

Members	Afghanistan Albania Algeria Azerbaijan Bahrain Bangladesh Benin Burkina Faso Brunei Cameroon Chad Comoros Côte d'Ivoire Djibouti Egypt Gabon Gambia Guinea Guinea-Bissau Guyana Indonesia Iran Iraq Jordan Kuwait Kazakhstan Kyrgyzstan Lebanon Libya Maldives Malaysia Mali Mauritania Morocco Mozambique Niger Nigeria Oman Pakistan Palestine **Qatar** Saudi Arabia Senegal Sierra Leone Somalia Sudan Suriname Syria Tajikistan Turkey Tunisia Togo Turkmenistan Uganda Uzbekistan United Arab Emirates Yemen	
Observers	**Countries and territories**	Bosnia and Herzegovina Central African Republic Russia Thailand Northern Cyprus (as *Turkish Cypriot State*)
	Muslim communities	Moro National Liberation Front
	International organizations	Economic Cooperation Organization African Union Arab League Non-Aligned Movement United Nations

VTE **Members of the Arab League**

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Members	Algeria Bahrain Comoros Djibouti Egypt Iraq Jordan Kuwait Lebanon Libya Mauritania Morocco Oman Palestine **Qatar** Saudi Arabia Somalia Sudan Tunisia United Arab Emirates Yemen
Suspended	Syria
Observers	Brazil Eritrea India Turkey Venezuela
Diplomacy	Arab Peace Initiative Arab League peace plan (Syria)

VTE **Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)**

Algeria Angola Ecuador Iran Iraq Kuwait Libya Nigeria Qatar Saudi Arabia United Arab Emirates Venezuela

VTE **Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf**

Member states	Bahrain · Kuwait · Oman · **Qatar** · Saudi Arabia · United Arab Emirates
Organizations	Peninsula Shield Force · Gulf Cup of Nations · GCC Patent Office

VTE **Monarchies**

List of current sovereign monarchs List of current constituent monarchs

By continent	Africa Americas Asia Europe Oceania
By country	*Antigua and Barbuda Australia* Andorra *The Bahamas* Bahrain *Barbados Belize* Belgium Bhutan Brunei Cambodia *Canada* Denmark *Grenada Jamaica* Japan Jordan Kuwait Liechtenstein Lesotho Luxembourg Malaysia Monaco Morocco Netherlands *New Zealand* Norway Oman *Papua New Guinea* **Qatar** Spain *Saint Kitts and Nevis Saint Lucia Saint Vincent and the Grenadines* Saudi Arabia *Solomon Islands* Swaziland Sweden Thailand Tonga *Tuvalu* United Arab Emirates *United Kingdom* Vatican City
By type	Absolute Constitutional Elective Hereditary Diarchy Federal

Italics indicate Commonwealth realms, which each share the same person as head of state.

VTE **Semitic-speaking nations**

Arabic / Maltese					Northwest Semitic (Aramaic and Hebrew)	South Semitic
Algeria	Bahrain	Egypt	Iraq	Israel	Iraqi Kurdistan	Eritrea
Gaza Strip	Kuwait	Lebanon	Libya	Malta	Israel	Ethiopia
Jordan	Morocco	Oman	Palestinian Authority	**Qatar**	Syria	Oman
Mauritania	Sudan	Syria	Tunisia	UAE		Yemen
Saudi Arabia	Yemen					
Western Sahara						

VTE **FIFA World Cup · Host nations**

1930: Uruguay	1954: Switzerland	1978: Argentina	2002: South Korea / Japan
1934: Italy	1958: Sweden	1982: Spain	2006: Germany
1938: France	1962: Chile	1986: Mexico	2010: South Africa
1942: *cancelled*	1966: England	1990: Italy	2014: Brazil
1946: *cancelled*	1970: Mexico	1994: United States	2018: Russia
1950: Brazil	1974: West Germany	1998: France	2022: Qatar

Categories: Qatar | Arabian Peninsula | Western Asian countries | Arabic-speaking countries and territories | Emirates | Member states of OPEC | Member states of the Arab League | Member states of the Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf | Member states of the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation | Middle Eastern countries | Peninsulas of Asia | Persian Gulf countries | States and territories established in 1971 | Western Asia | Member states of the United Nations

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History of Qatar

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Qatar has been inhabited for several millennia. The Al Khalifa family of Bahrain dominated the area from the mid 1850s until 1868 when, at the request of Qatari sheikhs, the British negotiated the termination of the Bahraini claim, except for the payment of tribute. The tribute ended when the Ottoman Empire occupied Qatar in 1872.[1] The Ottomans ruled Qatar directly as a sanjak in Lahsa province between 1550–1680 and 1818–1830, and indirectly between 1680–1818 and 1830-1872 through the Al Thani family. Al Thani administration continued as kaymakam of Qatar (In Basra Vilayet) during Ottoman rule between 1872-1915. It was ruled also by Safavid Iran between 1680–1717, 1730–1736 and 1753–1783; by Oman between 1717–1730 and 1736–1753; and by Bahrain 1783-1818 and 1830-1851.

When the Ottomans left at the beginning of World War I in 1915, the British And Ottomans recognised Sheikh Abdullah bin Jassim Al-Thani as the ruler. The Al Thani family had lived in Qatar for 200 years. The 1916 treaty between the United Kingdom and Sheikh Abdullah was similar to those entered into by the British with other Persian Gulf principalities. Under it, the ruler agreed not to dispose of any of his territory except to the U.K. and not to enter into relationships with any other foreign government without British consent. In return, the British promised to protect Qatar from all aggression by sea and to lend their good offices in case of a land attack. A 1934 treaty granted more extensive British protection.[1]

In 1935, a 75-year oil concession was granted to the Qatar Petroleum Company, a subsidiary of the Iraq Petroleum Company, which was owned by Anglo-Dutch, French, and U.S. interests. High-quality oil was discovered in 1940 at Dukhan, on the western side of the Qatari peninsula. However, the start of World War II delayed exploitation of Qatar's oil resources, and oil exports did not begin until 1949.[1]

During the 1950s and 1960s gradually increasing oil revenues brought prosperity, rapid immigration, substantial social progress, and the beginnings of Qatar's modern history. When the U.K. announced a policy in 1968 (reaffirmed in March 1971) of ending the treaty relationships with the Persian Gulf sheikdoms, Qatar joined the other eight states then under British protection (the seven trucial sheikdoms—the present United Arab Emirates--and Bahrain) in a plan to form a union of Arab emirates. By mid-1971, as the termination date of the British treaty relationship (end of 1971) approached, the nine still had not agreed on terms of union. Accordingly, Qatar declared independence as a separate entity and became the fully independent State of Qatar on September 3, 1971.[1]

In February 1972, the Heir Apparent, Sheikh Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani, deposed his cousin, Ahmed bin Ali Al Thani, and assumed power. Key members of the Al Thani family supported this move, which took place without violence or signs of political unrest.[1] On June 27, 1995, the Deputy Amir, Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa, deposed his father Khalifa bin Hamad in a bloodless coup. An unsuccessful counter-coup was staged in 1996. The Amir and his father are now reconciled, though some supporters of the counter-coup remain in prison. The Amir announced his intention for Qatar to move toward democracy and has permitted a freer and more open press and municipal elections as a precursor to expected parliamentary elections. Qatari citizens approved a new constitution via public referendum in April 2003, which came into force in June 2005.[1]

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- 3 1913–1970
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To 1783

Human habitation of the Qatar Peninsula dates as far back as 50,000 years back, when small groups of Stone Age inhabitants built coastal encampments, settlements, and sites for working flint, according to archaeological evidences. Other finds have included pottery from the Al Ubaid culture of Mesopotamia and northern Arabia (ca. 5000 B.C.), rock carvings, burial mounds, and a large town that dates from about 500 B.C. at Wusail, twenty kilometers north of Doha. The Qatar Peninsula was close enough to the Dilmun civilization (ca. 4000 to 2000 B.C.) in Bahrain to have felt its influence. A harsh climate, lack of resources, and frequent periods of conflict, however, seem to have made it inevitable that no settlement would develop and prosper for any significant length of time before the discovery of oil.[2]

The peninsula was used almost continuously as rangeland for nomadic tribes from Najd and Al Hasa regions in Saudi Arabia, with seasonal encampments around sources of water. In addition, fishing and pearling settlements were established on those parts of the coast near a major well. Until the late eighteenth century, the principal towns were on the east coast—Al Huwayla, Fuwayrit, and Al Bida—and the modern city of Doha developed around the largest of these, Al Bida. The population consisted of nomadic and settled Arabs and a significant proportion of slaves brought originally from East Africa.[2]

The Qatar Peninsula came under the sway of several great powers over the centuries. The Abbasid era (750-1258) saw the rise of several settlements, including Murwab. The Portuguese ruled from 1517 to 1538, when they lost to the Ottomans. In the 1732, the Bani Utbah tribe migrated from Kuwait to Qatar's northwest coast and founded Zubarah. After this migration, the Bani Utbah were very close to the rich oyster banks. After the Persian Occupation of Basra in 1777 many merchants and families moved from Basra and Kuwait to Zubarah. After this movement, Zubarah became a thriving center of trade and pearling in the Persian Gulf region.

The prosperity of Zubarah, which is now in modern Qatar, had also brought it to the attention of the two main powers at the time, Persia and the Oman,[3] which were presumably sympathetic to Sheikh Nasr’s ambitions. Zubara's emerging position as a flourished as a pearling centre and trading port had brought it to the attention of the two main regional powers, Persia and Oman.[3] Bahrain offered great potential wealth because of the extensive pearls found in its waters, however, in 1782, war broke out between the Zubara-based Al-Khalifa trading clan of the Bani Utbah tribe and the Madhkurs.

The battle of Zubarah took place in the year 1782 between the Al-Khalifa from the Bani Utbah Tribe and the Army of Nasr Al-Madhkur Ruler of Bahrain and Bushire.

1783–1913

In response to attacks on Zubarah by Nasr Al-Madhkur who ruled Bahrain and Bushehr in Persia, the Bani

Utbah Al-Khalifa liberated Bahrain from the Persians in 1783.

After the Bani Utbah Liberation of Bahrain in 1783, different Arab families and tribes mostly from Qatar moved to Bahrain to settle there since the Persians have been expelled from the Island. These families and tribes were Al-Ma'awdah, Al-Fadhil, Al-Mannai, Al-Noaimi, Al-Sulaiti, Al-Sadah, Al-Thawadi, and other families and tribes. Most of these tribes settled in Muharraq, the capital of Bahrain and the center of power at that time.

In the early nineteenth centuries, continuing bloody conflict involved not only the Al Khalifa, the Al Jalahima, and the Iranians but also the Omanis under Sayyid Said ibn Sultan Al Said, the nascent Wahhabis of Arabia, and the Ottomans. The period also saw the rise of British power in the Persian Gulf as a result of their growing interests in India. Britain's desire for secure passage for East India Company ships led it to impose its own order in the gulf. The General Maritime Treaty of 1820 between the East India Company and the sheikhs of the coastal area—which became known as the Trucial Coast because of the series of treaties between the sheikhs and the British—was a way of ensuring safe passage. The agreement acknowledged British authority in the gulf and sought to end piracy and the kidnapping of slaves. Bahrain also became a party to the treaty, and it was assumed by the British and the Bahrainis that Qatar, as a dependency, was also a party to it.[2]

But when, as punishment for piracy, an East India Company vessel bombarded Doha in 1821, destroying the town and forcing hundreds to flee, the residents had no idea why they were being attacked.

In 1867, when a large Bahraini force sacked and looted Doha and Al Wakrah. This attack, and the Qatari counterattack, prompted the British political agent, Colonel Lewis Pelly, to impose a settlement in 1868. His mission to Bahrain and Qatar and the peace treaty that resulted were milestones in Qatar's history because they implicitly recognized the distinctness of Qatar from Bahrain and explicitly acknowledged the position of Mohammed bin Thani, an important representative of the peninsula's tribes.

Overthrow of Ottoman rule

With the expansion of the Ottoman Empire into eastern Arabia in 1871, Qatar became vulnerable to occupation. Mohammed bin Thani opposed Ottoman designs on Qatar, but his son, Jassim bin Mohammed, accepted Ottoman sovereignty in 1872. Although Jassim bin Mohammed privately complained of the Ottoman presence, he hoped that with Ottoman support he could dominate those sheikhs in other towns who opposed him and rebuff Bahrain's claims on Az Zubarah. The question of Az Zubarah became moot in 1878, however, when Jassim bin Mohammed and his brother Ahmed bin Muhammed destroyed the town as punishment for the piracy of the Naim, a tribe that resided in the north of Qatar but was loyal to the sheikh of Bahrain. Moreover, Jassim bin Mohammed's ambivalent relations with the Ottomans deteriorated to the point that in 1893 they sent a military force to Doha to arrest him, ostensibly over his refusal to permit an Ottoman customhouse in Doha. Fighting broke out, and Jassim bin Mohammed's supporters drove out the Ottoman force.

1913–1970

The Ottomans officially renounced sovereignty over Qatar in 1913, and in 1916 the new ruler, Jassim bin Mohammed's son, Abdullah bin Jassim Al Thani, signed a treaty with Britain bringing the peninsula into the trucial system. This meant that in exchange for Britain's military protection from external threats, Qatar relinquished its autonomy in foreign affairs and other areas, such as the power to cede territory. The treaty also had provisions suppressing slavery, piracy, and gunrunning, but the British were not strict about enforcing those provisions.[2]

Despite Qatar's coming under British "protection," Abdullah bin Jassim was far from secure: recalcitrant tribes refused to pay tribute; disgruntled family members intrigued against him; and he felt vulnerable to the designs of

Bahrain, not to mention the Wahhabis. The al Thanis were merchant princes, reliant on trade and especially the pearl trade, and depended on others to do their fighting for them, primarily the Bini Hajar i.e Al Hajiri/Hajeri who owed their allegiance to Ibn Saud, Emir of the Nejd and Al Hasa. Despite numerous requests by Abdullah bin Jassim — for strong military support, for weapons, and even for a loan — the British were reluctant to become involved in inland affairs and kept him at arm's length. This changed in the 1930s, when competition (mainly between Britain and the United States) for oil concessions in the region intensified (see below).

The scramble for oil raised the stakes in regional territorial disputes and highlighted the need to settle the national borders. The first move came in 1922 at a boundary conference in Uqair when the prospector Major Frank Holmes tried to include Qatar in an oil concession he was discussing with Ibn Saud. Sir Percy Cox, the British representative, saw through the ploy and drew a line on the map separating the Qatar Peninsula from the mainland.[4] The first oil survey took place in 1926 under the direction of a geologist of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, George Martin Lees, but no oil was found. The oil issue raised its head again in 1933 after an oil strike in Bahrain—Lees had already noted that, in such an eventuality, Qatar should be investigated again.[5] After lengthy negotiations between Anglo-Persian representatives and Sheikh Abdullah bin Jassim, on 17 May 1935 the sheikh put his signature to a concession agreement for a period of 75 years in return for 400,000 rupees on signature and 150,000 rupees per annum with royalties.[6] As part of the agreement, Great Britain made more specific promises of assistance than in earlier treaties.[2] Anglo-Persian transferred the concession to the IPC subsidiary Petroleum Development (Qatar) Ltd. in order to meet its obligations under the Red Line Agreement.

In 1936, Bahrain claimed rule over a group of islands, the largest of which is Hawar, on the west coast of Qatar because it had established a small military garrison there. Britain accepted the Bahraini claim over Abdullah bin Jassim's objections, in large part because the Bahraini shaykh's personal British adviser was able to frame Bahrain's case in a legal manner familiar to British officials. The question of domain continued in the early 1990s. Triggered by a dispute involving the Naim, the Bahrainis once again laid claim to the deserted town of Az Zubarah in 1937. Abdullah bin Jassim sent a large, heavily armed force and succeeded in defeating the Naim. The British political resident in Bahrain supported Qatar's claim and warned Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa, the ruler of Bahrain, not to intervene militarily. Bitter and angry over the loss of Az Zubarah, Hamad ibn Isa imposed a crushing embargo on trade and travel to Qatar.[2]

Drilling of the first oil well began at Jebel Dukhan in October 1938 and, over a year later, the well struck oil in the Upper Jurassic limestone which, unlike the Bahraimi strike, was similar to Saudi Arabia’s Dammam field discovered three years before.[7] Production was halted between 1942 and 1947 because of World War II and its aftermath. The disruption of food supplies caused by the war prolonged a period of economic hardship in Qatar that had begun in the 1920s with the collapse of the pearl trade and had increased with the global depression of the early 1930s and the Bahraini embargo. As they had in previous times of privation, whole families and tribes moved to other parts of the Persian Gulf, leaving many Qatari villages deserted. Even Shaykh Abdullah bin Jassim went into debt and, in preparation for his retirement, groomed his favored second son, Hamad bin Abdullah Al Thani, to be his successor. Hamad bin Abdullah's death in 1948, however, led to a succession crisis in which the main candidates were Abdullah bin Jassim's eldest son, Ali bin Abdullah Al Thani, and Hamad bin Abdullah's teenage son, Khalifa ibn Hamad Al Thani.[2]

Oil exports and payments for offshore rights began in 1949 and marked a turning point in Qatar. Not only would oil revenues dramatically transform the economy and society, but they would also provide the focus for domestic disputes and foreign relations. This became frighteningly clear to Abdullah bin Jassim when several of his relatives threatened armed opposition if they did not receive increases in their allowances. Aged and anxious, Abdullah bin Jassim turned to the British, promised to abdicate, and agreed, among other things, to an official British presence in Qatar in exchange for recognition and support for Ali bin Abdullah as ruler in 1949.[2]

The 1950s saw the cautious development of government structures and public services under British tutelage. Ali bin Abdullah was at first reluctant to share power, which had centered in his household, with an infant bureaucracy run and staffed mainly by outsiders. Ali bin Abdullah's increasing financial difficulties and inability to control striking oil workers and obstreperous shaykhs, however, led him to succumb to British pressure. The first real budget was drawn up by a British adviser in 1953. By 1954 there were forty-two Qatari government employees.[2]

A major impetus to the development of the British-run police force came in 1956 when about 2,000 demonstrators, who coalesced over issues such as Gamal Abdul Nasser's pan-Arabism and opposition to Britain and to Shaykh Ali bin Abdullah's retinue, marched through Doha. This and other demonstrations led Ali bin Abdullah to invest the police with his personal authority and support, a significant reversal of his previous reliance on his retainers and beduin fighters.[2]

Public services developed haltingly during the 1950s. The first telephone exchange opened in 1953, the first desalination plant in 1954, and the first power plant in 1957. Also built in this period were a jetty, a customs warehouse, an airstrip, and a police headquarters. In the 1950s, 150 adult males of the Al Thani received outright grants from the government. Shaykhs also received land and government positions. This mollified them as long as oil revenues increased. When revenues declined in the late 1950s, however, Ali bin Abdullah could not handle the family pressures this engendered. That Shaykh Ali bin Abdullah spent extravagantly, owned a villa in Switzerland, and hunted in Pakistan fueled discontent, especially among those who were excluded from the regime's largesse (non-Al Thani Qataris) and those who were not excluded but thought they deserved more (other branches of the Al Thani). Seniority and proximity to the shaykh determined the size of allowances.[2]

Succumbing to family pressures and poor health, Ali bin Abdullah abdicated in 1960. But instead of handing power over to Khalifa ibn Hamad, who had been named heir apparent in 1948, he made his son, Ahmad ibn Ali, ruler. Nonetheless, Khalifa ibn Hamad, as heir apparent and deputy ruler, gained considerable power, in large part because Ahmad ibn Ali, as had his father, spent much time outside the country.[2]

Although he did not care much for governing, Ahmad ibn Ali could not avoid dealing with family business. One of his first acts was to increase funding for the shaykhs at the expense of development projects and social services. In addition to allowances, adult male Al Thani were also given government positions. This added to the antiregime resentment already felt by, among others, oil workers, low-ranking Al Thani, dissident shaykhs, and some leading individuals. These groups formed the National Unity Front in response to a fatal shooting on April 19, 1963, by one of Shaykh Ahmad ibn Ali's nephews. The front called a general strike, and its demands included a reduction of the ruler's privileges, recognition of trade unions, and increased social services. Ahmad ibn Ali cracked down by jailing fifty leading individuals and exiling the front's leaders. He also instituted some reforms, eventually including the provision of land and loans to poor Qataris.[2]

Largely under Khalifa ibn Hamad's guiding hand, the infrastructure, foreign labor force, and bureaucracy continued to grow in the 1960s. There were even some early attempts at diversifying Qatar's economic base, most notably with the establishment of a cement factory, a national fishing company, and small-scale agriculture.[2]

1970–present

In 1968 Britain announced its intention of withdrawing from military commitments east of Suez, including those in force with Qatar, by 1971. For a while, the rulers of Bahrain, Qatar, and the Trucial Coast contemplated forming a federation after the British withdrawal. A dispute arose between Ahmad ibn Ali and Khalifa ibn Hamad, however, because Khalifa ibn Hamad opposed Bahrain's attempts to become the senior partner in the

federation. Still giving public support to the federation, Ahmad ibn Ali nonetheless promulgated a provisional constitution in April 1970, which declared Qatar an independent, Arab, Islamic state with the sharia (Islamic law) as its basic law. Khalifa bin Hamad was appointed prime minister in May. The first Council of Ministers was sworn in on January 1, 1970, and seven of its ten members were Al Thani. Khalifa bin Hamad's argument prevailed with regard to the federation proposal. Qatar became an independent state on September 3, 1971. That Ahmad ibn Ali issued the formal announcement from his Swiss villa instead of from his Doha palace indicated to many Qataris that it was time for a change. On February 22, 1972, Khalifa ibn Hamad deposed Ahmad ibn Ali, who was hunting with his falcons in Iran. Khalifa ibn Hamad had the tacit support of the Al Thani and of Britain, and he had the political, financial, and military support of Saudi Arabia.[2]

In contrast to his predecessor's policies, Khalifa ibn Hamad cut family allowances and increased spending on social programs, including housing, health, education, and pensions. In addition, he filled many top government posts with close relatives.[2]

In 1993 Khalifa ibn Hamad remained the amir, but his son, Hamad ibn Khalifa, the heir apparent and minister of defense, had taken over much of the day-to-day running of the country. The two consulted with each other on all matters of importance.[2]

On June 27, 1995, the Deputy Amir, Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa, deposed his father Amir Khalifa in a bloodless coup. An unsuccessful counter-coup was staged in 1996. The Amir and his father are now reconciled, though some supporters of the counter-coup remain in prison. The Amir announced his intention for Qatar to move toward democracy and has permitted a freer and more open press and municipal elections as a precursor to expected parliamentary elections. Qatari citizens approved a new constitution via public referendum in April 2003, which came into force in June 2005.[1] The current emir has announced his intention for Qatar to move towards democracy and has permitted a nominally free and open press and municipal elections. Economic, social, and democratic reforms have occurred in recent years. In 2003, a woman was appointed to the cabinet as minister of education.

Qatar and Bahrain have argued over who owns the Hawar Islands. In 2001, the International Court of Justice gave Bahrain sovereignty over Hawar Islands while giving Qatar sovereignty over smaller disputed islands and the Zubarah region on mainland Qatar.[8] During the trial Qatar provided the court with 82 forged documents to substantiate their claims of sovereignty over the territories in question. These claims were withdrawn at a later stage after Bahrain discovered the forgeries.[9]

Qatar will host the 2022 FIFA World Cup.

See also

- Al Jazeera
- History of Asia
- History of the Middle East
- List of emirs of Qatar
- Qatar
- Politics of Qatar

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2. ^ **a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q** Toth, Anthony. "Qatar: Historical Background." *A Country Study: Qatar* (http://lcweb2.loc.gov/frd/cs/qatoc.html) (Helen Chapin Metz, editor). Library of Congress Federal Research Division (January 1993). *This article incorporates text from this source, which is in the public domain.*
3. ^ **a b** Jill Crystal, Oil and Politics in the Gulf: Rulers and Merchants in Kuwait and Qatar, Cambridge University

List of emirs of Qatar

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

This is a **list of emirs of Qatar**. The emirs of Qatar are members of the Al-Thani dynasty and the state of Qatar was founded in 1868 by Muhammad bin Thani. The house of Al-Thani descend from the Banu Tamim; one of the largest tribes in the Arabian Peninsula.

Emirs of Qatar (1868-Present)

Name	Reign		Remarks
	From	Until	
Sheikh Mohammed bin Thani	1868	1878	
H.H Sheikh Jassim bin Mohammed Al Thani	1878	17 July 1913	
H.H Sheikh Abdullah bin Jassim Al Thani	17 July 1913	20 August 1949	Abdicated; died on 25 April 1957
H.H Sheikh Ali bin Abdullah Al Thani	20 August 1949	24 October 1960	Abdicated; died on 31 August 1974
H.H Sheikh Ahmad bin Ali Al Thani	24 October 1960	22 February 1972	Deposed by his cousin Khalifa; died on 25 November 1977
H.H Sheikh Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani	22 February 1972	27 June 1995	Deposed by his son Hamad; alive
H.H Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani	27 June 1995	Present	

Emir of the State of Qatar
امير دولة قطر
MONARCHY

Arms of His Highness the Emir of the State of Qatar



Incumbent:
Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani

Style:	His Highness
Heir apparent:	Tamim bin Hamad Al Thani
First monarch:	Jassim bin Mohammed Al Thani
Formation:	1868

See also

- House of Al-Thani
- Line of succession to the Qatari throne

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Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani (Arabic: الشيخ حمد بن خليفة ال ثاني, born 1952) is the ruling Emir of the State of Qatar since 1995.[1][2] Sheikh Hamad was the appointed Heir Apparent of Qatar between 1977 and 1995 and at the same time Minister of Defense.[3] In the early 1980s he led the Supreme Planning Council, which sets the Qatar's basic economic and social policies. Starting in 1992, Hamad had a growing responsibility for the day-to-day running of the country,[4] including the development of Qatar's oil and natural gas resources. On 27 June 1995, after deposing his father in a palace coup, Sheikh Hamad became Emir of Qatar and was crowned on 20 June 2000.[4]

Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani
حمد بن خليفة آل ثاني



Emir of Qatar

Reign	27 June 1995 – present
Coronation	20 June 2000
Predecessor	Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani
Heir apparent	Tamim bin Hamad Al Thani
Prime Ministers	***See list***

Prime Minister of Qatar

Reign	27 June 1995 – 29 October 1996
Predecessor	Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani
Successor	Abdullah bin Khalifa Al Thani
Spouse	Mariam bint Muhammad Mozah bint Nasser Noora bint Khalid
Issue	
See link	
House	House of Thani
Father	Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani
Mother	Sheikha Al-Atiyyah
Born	1952 (age 59–60) Doha, Qatar

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- 2 As Emir
- 3 Foreign relations
- 4 Marriages and children
- 5 Titles, styles and honours
  - 5.1 Titles and styles
  - 5.2 Honours and awards
    - 5.2.1 National honours
    - 5.2.2 Other awards
- 6 Sports investments
- 7 See also
- 8 References
- 9 External links

Early life

Sheikh Hamad began his education in Qatar and later attended Sandhurst Military Academy in England. Upon his graduation in 1971, he was commissioned as a Lieutenant Colonel in the Qatari armed forces and commanded the 1st Mobile Battalion, which has since been designated the "Hamad Mobile Battalion" in his honor.

Hamad was later promoted to the rank of Major General and appointed Commander in Chief of the Qatari Armed Forces. He oversaw an extensive program to modernize Qatar's military, increasing manpower, creating new units, updating weaponry, and improving training.

As Emir



Sheikh Hamad at the Metropolitan Museum (New York).
From left to right: The second wife of the emir, Sheikha Mozah, First Lady of the United States Michelle Obama, the Emir, and U.S. President Barack Obama.

In the early 1980s, Hamad led the Supreme Planning Council, which sets the Qatar's basic economic and social policies. Starting in 1992, Hamad's father handed over responsibility for the day-to-day running of the country,[4] including the development of Qatar's oil and natural gas resources. With the support of his family, Sheikh Hamad took control of the country in 1995 while his father was on vacation abroad.[4] While his father Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani was in Geneva, Switzerland, Hamad bin Khalifa deposed him in a bloodless 1995 coup d'état.[5] Hamid bin Khalifa engaged an American law firm to freeze his father's bank accounts abroad, thereby defeating a possible countercoup.[4] Thereafter, his father lived in exile in France or United Arab Emirates[5] until he returned to Qatar in 2004.

The Emir is considered to be progressive among leaders of Muslim countries. In a break with the traditional role, his second wife Sheikha Mozah bint Nasser Al Missned has been a visible advocate for education and children's causes.[4]

A sportsman and an accomplished diver, Hamad has played an active role in promoting and developing athletics in Qatar. His activism has enhanced the country's involvement and performance in a number of international competitions, including: winning an Olympic medal in track and field; hosting a wide variety of international sporting events such as the 15th Asian Games, GCC, Asian and World Youth soccer championships; and initiating the Qatar Open Tennis Championship which has grown to become one of two premier tennis competitions in the Middle East.

Under his rule the Qatari government helped to fund the Al Jazeera news network, funding it by an emiri decree.[6] In an analysis of Al Jazeera, Hugh Miles claimed that diplomats from other countries know that the Emir is the real power behind Al Jazeera but he also quotes a network spokesman denying 'countless times' this accusation, adding that many independent news sources also have subsidies from their respective governments without this implying editorial dabbling and explaining that trying to coerce the kind of journalists Al Jazeera has would be like trying to 'herd cats'.[7] Sheik Hamad is a distant cousin of the network chairman, Hamad bin Thamer Al Thani, who was previously Minister of Information in the Emir Al-Thani government. Following the initial US$137 million grant from Emir Al-Thani, Al Jazeera had aimed to become self-sufficient through advertising by 2001, but when this failed to occur, the Emir agreed to several consecutive loans[7] on a year-by-year basis (US$30 million in 2004,[8] according to Arnaud de Borchgrave). At an October 3, 2001 press conference, Colin Powell tried to persuade Sheik Hamad to shut down Al Jazeera while The New York based organization Fairness and Accuracy in Reporting commented that in those efforts, "Powell and other U.S. officials were reportedly upset by the channel re-airing old interviews with bin Laden and the inclusion of guests that are too critical of the United States on its programs."[9][10] The Washington Post reported in 2005 that Sheik Hamad was under pressure to privatize the network.[11]

Foreign relations

The emir made a generous donation for the relief of New Orleans and its environs following the 2005 Hurricane Katrina.[12]

In 2012, the emir proposed deploying Arab troops be deployed to reduce killings in the 2011–2012 Syrian uprising.[13]

He has provided two military bases for foreign troops, Al Udeid Air Base and Camp As Sayliyah.

Despite the prevalence of anti-Israel sentiment within the Arab world, he has maintained friendly relations with Israel.[5] He met Foreign Minister of Israel Tzipi Livni (25 September 2007) in New York. This marks the first real attempt by any leader in the Persian Gulf to pursue dialogue with Israel.[14][15] He does object to Israeli settlement policy, especially the Judaization of Jerusalem.[16]

Marriages and children

Sheikh Hamad has three wives and twenty-four children, eleven sons and thirteen daughters:


Sheikh Hamad with Russian president Vladimir Putin

- He married his first wife H.H. Sheikha Mariam bint Muhammad Al-Thani, who is the daughter of his first cousin, Sheikh Muhammad bin Hamad bin Abdullah Al-Thani. They divorced before the Emir married Mozah.[17] Hamad and his first wife have two sons and six daughters:
  - H.E. Sheikh Mishaal bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani (born 1972)
  - H.E. Sheikh Fahd bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
  - H.E. Sheikha Aisha bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
  - H.E. Sheikha Hussah bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
  - H.E. Sheikha Sara bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani – Program Coordinator for Reach Out to Asia-Qatar (ROTAQ)
  - H.E. Sheikha Rawdah bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
  - H.E. Sheikha Fatima bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
  - H.E. Sheikha Mashael bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
- His second wife is H.H. Sheikha Mozah bint Nasser Al-Misnad (born 8 August 1959, Al-Khor), the daughter of Nasser bin Abdullah Al Missned. Together they have five sons and two daughters:
  - H.H. Sheikh Jasim bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani (born 1978) – Heir Apparent of Qatar before 2003
  - H.H. Sheikh Tamim bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani, Crown Prince of Qatar (born 1980) – Heir Apparent of Qatar since 2003
  - H.E. Sheikha Al-Mayassa bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani (born 1983)
  - H.E. Sheikh Joaan bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani (born 1985)
  - H.E. Sheikh Mohammed bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani (born 1988)
  - H.E. Sheikh Khalifa bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani (born 1991)
  - H.E. Sheikha Hind bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani – director of the Emir's Office since 2009
- Hamad also has a third wife, H.H. Sheikha Noora bint Khalid Al-Thani, daughter of H.E. Sheikh Khalid bin Hamad Al Thani, who was the Minister of the Interior. Together they have four sons and five daughters:
  - H.E. Sheikh Khalid bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani (born 1978)

- H.E. Sheikh Abdullah bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani – president of the Al-Rayyan Sports Club
- H.E. Sheikh Thani bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
- H.E. Sheikh Al-Qaqa bin Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
- H.E. Sheikha Lulwaa bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
- H.E. Sheikha Maha bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
- H.E. Sheikha Dana bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
- H.E. Sheikha Al-Anood bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani
- H.E. Sheikha Mariam bint Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani

Titles, styles and honours

Titles and styles

- Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani (1952–1972)
- *His Excellency* Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani (1972–1977)
- *His Highness* Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani, Heir Apparent of Qatar (1977–1995)
- *His Highness* Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani, Emir of the State of Qatar (1995–present)

Monarchical styles of

The Emir of Qatar



Reference style	His Highness
Spoken style	Your Highness
Alternative style	Sheikh

Honours and awards

Sheikh Hamad received numerous honours and awards, both during and before his time as Emir:[18]

National honours

- Albania: Skanderbeg's Order (decorated by President of Albania Bamir Topi on 18 October 2011) [19][20]
- Albania: Honorary Citizen of Tirana, capital of Albania (12 October 2011)[21]
- Cote D'Ivoire: Collar of the Greater Star (2002)
- Croatia: Knight Grand Cross of the Grand Order of King Tomislav (2009)
- Cuba: Member of the Order of José Marti (2000)
- Dominican Republic: Grand Cross with Gold Breast Star of the Order of Merit of Duarte, Sanchez and Mella (2008)
- Egypt: Order of the Nile
- Finland: Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of the White Rose of Finland (2007)
- France: Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour (1998)
- France: Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour (1980)
- Germany: Grand Cross 1st class of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany (1999)
- Greece: The Grand Cross of the Order of the Redeemer (2007)
- Indonesia: Piagam Tanda Kehormatan (1977)
- Italy: Knight Grand Cross of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic (2000)
- Jordan: Collar of the Order of al-Hussein bin Ali (1995)
- Lebanon: Grand Cordon of the National Order of the Cedar (2000)
- Lebanon: Grand Cordon of the Lebanese Order of Merit (1986)
- Macedonia: Order of the 8th of September (2011)

- Malta: National Order of Merit
- Morocco: Special Class of the Order of the Mohammediya (2002)
- Morocco: First Class of the Order of the Mohammediya medal (1986)
- Netherlands: Grand Cross of Order of the Netherlands Lion (March 2011)[22]
- Oman: Member of the Order of Merit (Wisam al-Asthaq, 1995)
- Oman: Order of Oman (Wisam Al-Sharif Al-Oman, 1975)
- Pakistan: Nishan-e-Pakistan (1999)
- Portugal: Grand Officer of the Order of Infante D. Henrique (2009)
- Romania: Sash rank of the Order of the Star of Romania (1999)[23]
- Saudi Arabia: Order of Abdulaziz al Saud (1976)
- Senegal: Grand Cross of the Order of the National Lion (1998)
- Tunisia: Medal of 7th November (1997)
- United Kingdom: Honorary Knight Grand Cross of the Order of St Michael and St George (GCMG, 1976)
- Venezuela: Grand Collar of the Order of the Liberator (2010)
- Venezuela: Order of Francisco de Miranda (1977)
- Yemen: Order of Republic (2000)

Other awards

- IAAF: Golden Order of Merit (2005)

Sports investments

Media sources claimed that Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani made a bid for Manchester United on February 11, 2011. Qatari Holdings offered £1.6 billion to Malcolm Glazer, the current American owner of the club.[24] This follows a series of endeavors by the Emir and other Qataris into the World Football community, following Qatar's successful bid for the 2022 World Cup, and the Qatar Foundation's recent £125m shirt deal with FC Barcelona. In mid-June 2011, rumours resurfaced that Qatari Holdings were preparing a £2 Billion takeover bid and that the funding, that the club had been using for transfers since the start of June, was actually supplied by the Qataris and not the Glazer Family.[25]. In 2012 it was rumoured that Sheik Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani was in bid for Rangers F.C.. [26].

See also

- Sheikh Tamim Bin Hamad Al Thani (Heir apparent)
- Emir of Qatar
- House of Thani
- List of the richest royals

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- Constellation (http://yachts.monacoeye.com/yachtsbysize/pages/constellation01.html) Photo of Sheikh Hamad Bin Khalifa's yacht no. 2
- Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani (http://www.imdb.com/name/nm3105112/) at the Internet Movie Database

Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani **House of Thani** **Born:** 1952		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani**	**Emir of Qatar** 1995–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Tamim bin Hamad Al Thani*
Political offices		

Preceded by **Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani**	**Prime Minister of Qatar** 1995–1996	Succeeded by **Abdullah bin Khalifa Al Thani**

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Categories: 1952 births | Current national leaders | Emirs of Qatar | Government ministers of Qatar | Graduates of the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst | Grand Officiers of the Légion d'honneur | Grand Order of King Tomislav recipients | Honorary Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath | Honorary Knights Grand Cross of the Order of St Michael and St George | House of Thani | Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion | Living people | People from Doha | Prime Ministers of Qatar | Qatari Muslims | Recipients of the Nishan-e-Pakistan | Recipients of the Order of Abdulaziz al Saud | Recipients of the Order of the Nile | Reigning monarchs

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House of Thani

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Al Thani** (Arabic: آل ثاني) family is the ruling (emiri) family of Qatar whose origins can be traced back to Banu Tamim. The Al Thani family has been ruling Qatar since its foundation in 1825.

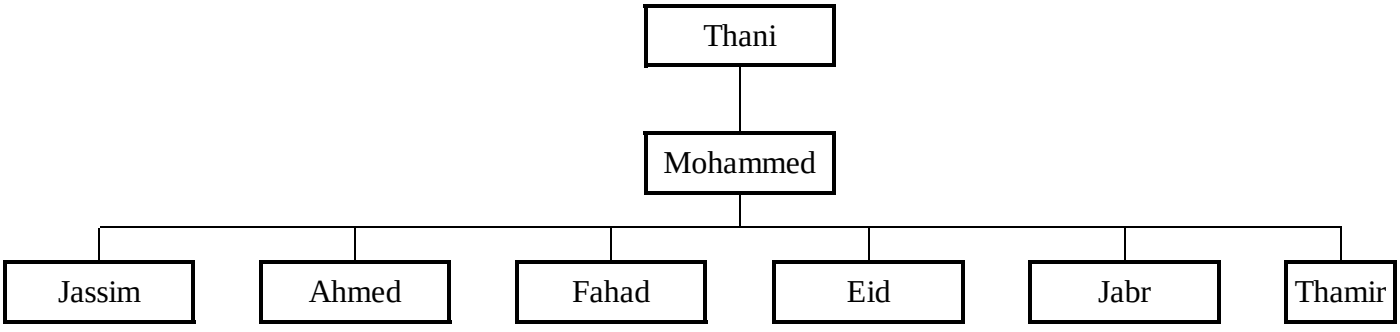
List of Hakims and Emirs:

- Sheikh Thani bin Mohammed, Hakim of Qatar (1825–1850)
- Sheikh Mohammed bin Thani, Hakim of Qatar (1850–1878)
- Sheikh Jassim bin Mohammed Al Thani, Emir of Qatar (1878–1913)
- Sheikh Abdullah bin Jasssim Al Thani, Emir of Qatar (1914–1945)
- Shiekh Hamad bin Abdullah Al Thani, Emir of Qatar (1945–1946)
- Sheikh Ali bin Abdullah Al Thani, Emir of Qatar (1949–1960)
- Sheikh Ahmad bin Ali Al Thani, Emir of Qatar (1960–1972)
- Sheikh Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani, Emir of Qatar (1972–1995)
- Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani, Emir of Qatar (1995–present).

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  - 1.2 Ahmed bin Muhammad branch
  - 1.3 Jabr bin Muhammad branch
  - 1.4 Thamir bin Muhammad branch
- 2 See also

Family tree



The Emir Jassim Branch

- Jassim bin Mohammed Al Thani (ca. 1825–1913) Founder of Modern Qatar
  - Muhammed bin Jassim Al Thani- Defacto ruler
    - Jassim bin Muhammed bin Jassim Al Thani
      - Khalifa bin Jassim Al Thani
  - Ali bin Jassim Al Thani
  - Abdullah bin Jassim Al Thani - Ruler

- Ali bin Abdullah Al Thani - Ruler
  - Ahmad bin Ali Al Thani - Emir
    - Abdelaziz bin Ahmed Al Thani (1945–2008), ex-crown Prince (in-exile)
  - Muhammed bin Ali Al Thani
    - Abdullah bin Mohammed Al Thani (Sharjah)[*citation needed*]
    - Saud bin Muhammed Al Thani[*citation needed*]
- Hassan bin Abdullah Al Thani
  - Sultan bin Hassan bin Abdullah Al Thani
- Hamad bin Abdullah Al Thani - Crown Prince (died before his father)
  - Ahmed bin Hamad Al Thani
    - Saud bin Ahmed Al Thani, (born 1969) former Qatari footballer
  - Jassim bin Hamad bin Abdullah Al Thani
    - Hamad bin Jassim bin Hamad Al Thani
  - Abdelaziz bin Hamad Al Thani
    - Saud bin Abdelaziz bin Hamad Al Thani
  - Mohammed bin Hamad bin Abdullah Al Thani
  - Khalid bin Hamad Al Thani
    - Abdullah bin Khalid Al Thani
    - Hamad bin Khalid Al Thani
  - Suhaim bin Hamad Al Thani
    - Hamad bin Suhaim Al Thani
      - Jawaher bint Hamad Al Thani
  - Khalifa bin Hamad Al Thani - Emir
    - Abdelaziz bin Khalifa Al Thani
    - Abdullah bin Khalifah Al Thani
    - Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani - Emir
      - Jassem bin Hamad Al Thani - Heir Apparent (till 2003)
      - Tamim bin Hamad Al Thani - Heir Apparent (since 2003)
      - Joaan bin Hamad Al Thani
      - Mohammed bin Hamad Al Thani
- Fahad bin Jassim Al Thani
  - Jassim bin Fahad Al Thani
  - Saud bin Fahad Al Thani
  - Hassan bin Fahad Al Thani
  - Mubarak bin Fahad Al Thani
  - Faleh bin Fahad Al Thani
  - Nasser bin Fahad Al Thani
- Abdulrahman bin Jassim Al Thani
- Thani bin Jassim bin Muhammed Al Thani
  - Muhammed bin Thani Al Thani
    - Thamir bin Muhammed bin Thani Al Thani
      - Hamad bin Thamir Al Thani[*citation needed*]

Ahmed bin Muhammad branch

- Ahmed bin Muhammed Al Thani -Governor of Doha
  - Saif bin Ahmed Al Thani
    - Ahmed bin Saif Al Thani
      - Saif bin Ahmed Al Thani
      - Mohammed bin Ahmed Al Thani

- Khalifa bin Ahmed Al Thani
  - Nasser bin Khalifa Al Thani
    - Abdullah bin Nasser bin Khalifa Al Thani, Minister of State for Internal Affairs
- Abdullah bin Ahmed Al Thani
  - Nasser bin Abdullah bin Ahmed Al Thani
    - Abdullah bin Nasser bin Abdullah Al Ahmed Al Thani
- Khalid bin Ahmed Al Thani
  - Ahmed bin Khalid Al Thani
  - Nasser bin Khalid Al Thani, founder of Nasser bin Khalid Holdings
    - Nawaf bin Nasser Al Thani
- Ahmed bin Ahmed Al Thani
  -
    - Mubarak bin Ahmed Al Thani
    - Mohammed bin Ahmed Al Thani
    - Hamad bin Ahmed Al Thani
    - Nasser bin Ahmed Al Thani
    - Abdullah bin Ahmed Al Thani

Jabr bin Muhammad branch

-
  - Jabr bin Muhammed Al Thani
    - Muhammad bin Jabr Al Thani
      - Abdullah bin Mohammad bin Jabr Al Thani
    - Jassim bin Jabr Al Thani
      - Hamad bin Jassim bin Jaber Al Thani, Prime Minister
      - Jaber bin Jassim bin Jaber Al Thani
        - Hamad bin Jabor bin Jassim Al Thani
    - Abdulrahman bin Jassim Al Thani
      - Saud bin Abdulrahman Al Thani
        - Muhammed bin Saud Al Thani
          - Abdullah bin Mohammad bin Saud Al Thani

Thamir bin Muhammad branch

-
  - Thamir bin Muhammed Al Thani
    - Issa bin Thamir bin Muhammed Al Thani

See also

- List of Sunni Muslim dynasties
- Line of succession to the Qatari throne

The Al Thani Royal family of Qatar

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Saudi Arabia

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Saudi Arabia (Arabic: السعودية *as-Su'ūdīyah*[*citation needed*] or incorrectly *as-Sa'ūdīyah*, officially known as the **Kingdom of Saudi Arabia** (Arabic: المملكة العربية السعودية *al-Mamlakah al-'Arabīyah as-Su'ūdīyah* Arabic pronunciation), commonly known as Saudi Arabia (in British English as /ˌsaʊdi əˈreɪbiʌ/ or in American English as /ˌsɔːdiː əˈreɪbiːʌ/) is the largest state in Western Asia by land area, constituting the bulk of the Arabian Peninsula, and the second-largest in the Arab world, after Algeria. It is bordered by Jordan, and Iraq on the north and northeast, Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates on the east, Oman on the southeast, and Yemen on the south. The Red Sea lies to its west, and the Persian Gulf lies to the northeast. Saudi Arabia has an area of approximately 2,149,690 km^2 (830,000 sq mi), and it has an estimated population of 27 million, of which 8.8 million are registered foreign expatriates and an estimated 1.5 million are illegal immigrants. Saudi nationals comprise an estimated 16 million people.[7]

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was founded by Abdul-Aziz bin Saud (known for most of his career as *Ibn Saud*) in 1932, although the conquests which eventually led to the creation of the Kingdom began in 1902 when he captured Riyadh, the ancestral home of his family, the House of Saud, referred to in Arabic as the *Al Saud*. The Saudi Arabian government, which has been an absolute monarchy since its inception, refers to its system of government as being Islamic, though this is contested by many due to its strong basis in Salafism, a minority school of thought in Islam. The kingdom is sometimes called "The Land of the Two Holy Mosques" in reference to Al-Masjid al-Haram (in Mecca), and Al-Masjid al-Nabawi (in Medina), the two holiest places in Islam.

Saudi Arabia has the world's second largest oil reserves and is the world's second largest oil exporter.[8] Oil accounts for more than 90% of exports and nearly 75% of government revenues, facilitating the creation of a welfare state.[9] However, human rights groups such as Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch have repeatedly expressed concern about the state of human rights in Saudi Arabia.

Contents

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
المملكة العربية السعودية
al-Mamlakah al-'Arabīyah as-Su'ūdīyah



Flag



Emblem

Motto: "لا إله إلا الله , محمد رسول الله "
"There is no god but God: Muhammad is the Messenger of God" (Shahada)[1]

Anthem: "as-Salām al-Malakiyy"
"Long live the King"



Capital (and largest city)	Riyadh 24°39′N 46°46′E
Official language(s)	Arabic[2]
Demonym	Saudi Arabian, Saudi (informal)
Government	Unitary Islamic absolute monarchy
- King	Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz
- Crown Prince	Nayef bin Abdul Aziz
Legislature	None - legislation by king's decree.
Establishment	

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- Kingdom founded	23 September 1932[3]
Area	
- Total	2,149,690 km^2 (13th) 830,000 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.7
Population	
- 2010 estimate	27,136,977[4] (46th)
- Density	12/km^2 (216th) 31/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$676.223 billion[5]
- Per capita	$25,345.397[5]
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$578.566 billion[5]
- Per capita	$21,685.135[5]
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.770[6] (high) (56th)
Currency	Saudi riyal (SR) (SAR)
Time zone	AST (UTC+3)
- Summer (DST)	(not observed) (UTC+3)
Drives on the	Right
ISO 3166 code	SA
Internet TLD	.sa, السعودية.
Calling code	+966

Etymology

Following the unification of the Kingdoms of Hejaz and Nejd, the new state was named *al-Mamlakah al-ʻArabīyah as-Suʻūdīyah* (a transliteration of المملكة العربية السعودية in Arabic) by royal decree on 23 September 1932 by its founder, King Abdul Aziz Al Saud. This is normally translated as "the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia" in English,[10] although it literally means "the Saudi Arab Kingdom".[11]

The word "Saudi" is derived from the element *as-Suʻūdīyah* in the Arabic name of the country, which is a type of adjective known as a nisba, formed from the dynastic name of Al Saud (آل سعود). Its inclusion indicated that the country's ruler viewed it as the personal possession of the royal family.[12][13] *Al Saud* is an Arabic name formed by adding the word *Al*, meaning "family of" or "House of",[14] to the personal name of an ancestor. In the case of the Al Saud, this is the father of the dynasty's 18th century founder, Muhammad bin Saud (Muhammad, son of Saud).[15] For the etymology of *Arabia*, see Arabian Peninsula and Arab (etymology).

History

Main article: History of Saudi Arabia

From the earliest times to the foundation of Saudi Arabia

See also: Unification of Saudi Arabia

In Pre-Islamic Arabia, apart from a small number of urban trading settlements, such as Mecca and Medina, located in the Hejaz in the west of the Arabian Peninsula, most of what was to become Saudi Arabia was populated by nomadic tribal societies in the uninhabitable desert.[16] The Prophet of Islam, Muhammad, was born in Mecca in about 571. In the early 7th century, Muhammad united the various tribes of the peninsula and created a single Islamic religious polity. Following his death in 632, his followers rapidly expanded the territory under Muslim rule beyond Arabia, conquering huge swathes of territory (from the Iberian Peninsula to India) in a matter of decades. In so doing, Arabia soon became a politically peripheral region of the Muslim world as the focus shifted to the more developed conquered lands.[17] From the 10th century to the early 20th century Mecca and Medina were under the control of a local Arab ruler known as the Sharif of Mecca, but at most times the Sharif owed allegiance to the ruler of one of the major Islamic empires based in Baghdad, Cairo or Istanbul. Most of the remainder of what became Saudi Arabia reverted to traditional tribal rule.[18][19]



The Ottoman Empire in 1914, including nominal and vassal Ottoman territories – the position in Arabia had largely been the same for the previous 400 years

In the 16th century, the Ottomans added the Red Sea and Persian Gulf coast (the Hejaz, Asir and Al-Hasa) to their Empire and claimed suzerainty over the interior. The degree of control over these lands varied over the next four centuries with the fluctuating strength or weakness of the Empire's central authority.[20][21] The emergence of what was to become the Saudi royal family, known as the Al Saud, began in Nejd in central Arabia in 1744, when Muhammad bin Saud, founder of the dynasty, joined forces with the religious leader Muhammad ibn Abd al-Wahhab,[22] movement a strict puritanical form of Sunni Islam.[23] This alliance formed in the 18th century provided the ideological impetus to Saudi expansion and remains the basis of Saudi Arabian dynastic rule today.[24] The first 'Saudi State' established in 1744 in the area around Riyadh, rapidly expanded and briefly controlled most of the present-day territory of Saudi Arabia, but was destroyed by 1818 by the Ottoman viceroy of Egypt, Mohammed Ali Pasha. A much smaller second ‘Saudi state’, located mainly in Nejd, was established in 1824. Throughout the rest of the 19th century, the Al Saud contested control of the interior of what was to become Saudi Arabia with another Arabian ruling family, the Al Rashid. By 1891, the Al Rashid were victorious and the Al Saud were driven into exile.[25]

At the beginning of the 20th century, the Ottoman Empire continued to control or have suzerainty (albeit nominal) over most of the peninsula. Subject to this suzerainty, Arabia was ruled by a patchwork of tribal rulers[26][27] (including the House of Saud who had returned from exile in 1902[25]) with the Sharif of Mecca having pre-eminence and ruling the Hejaz.[28] In 1916, with the encouragement and support of Britain (which was fighting the Ottomans in World War I), the Sharif of Mecca, Hussein bin Ali, led a pan-Arab revolt against the Ottoman Empire to create a united Arab state.[29] Although the Arab Revolt of 1916 to 1918 failed in its objective, Arabia was freed from Ottoman suzerainty and control by the latter's defeat in World War I.[30]



Arabia about 1923. Expandable map: Abdul Aziz's domain is in blue with dates of conquest. The Kingdom of the Hejaz, conquered in 1925, is in light green. (The other Hashemite kingdoms of Iraq and Transjordan are also in shades of green)

In 1902, Abdul-Aziz bin Saud, leader of the House of Saud, had seized Riyadh in Nejd from the Al Rashid – the first of a series of conquests ultimately leading to the creation of the modern state of Saudi Arabia in 1932.[25] The main weapon for achieving these conquests was the Ikhwan, the Wahhabist-Bedouin tribal army led by Sultan ibn Bijad and Faisal Al-Dawish.[31] From the Saudi core in Nejd, and aided by the collapse of the Ottoman Empire after World War I, the Ikhwan had completed the conquest of the territory that was to become Saudi Arabia by the end of 1925.[32] On 10 January 1926 Abdul-Aziz declared himself King of the Hejaz and, then, on 27 January 1927 he took the title of King of Nejd (his previous title having been 'Sultan').[25] After the conquest of the Hejaz, the Ikhwan leaders wanted to continue the expansion of the Wahhabist realm into the British protectorates of Transjordan, Iraq and Kuwait, and began raiding those territories. Abdul-Aziz, however, refused to agree to this, recognizing the danger of a direct conflict with the British. The Ikhwan therefore revolted but were defeated in the Battle of Sabilla in 1930, where the Ikhwan leadership were massacred.[33]

In 1932, the two kingdoms of the Hejaz and Nejd were united as the *Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*.[25]

From the foundation of the State to the present

The new kingdom was one of the poorest countries in the world, reliant on limited agriculture and pilgrimage revenues.[34] However, in 1938 vast reserves of oil were discovered in the Al-Hasa region along the coast of the Persian Gulf and full-scale development of the oil fields began in 1941. Oil provided Saudi Arabia with economic prosperity and substantial political leverage internationally. Cultural life rapidly developed, primarily in the Hejaz, which was the center for newspapers and radio. But the large influx of foreigners to work in the oil industry increased the pre-existing propensity for xenophobia. At the same time, the government became increasingly wasteful and extravagant. By the 1950s this had led to large governmental deficits and excessive foreign borrowing.[25]

King Saud succeeded to the throne on his father's death in 1953. However, an intense rivalry between the King and his half-brother, Prince Faisal emerged, fueled by doubts in the royal family over Saud's competence. As a consequence, Saud was deposed in favor of Faisal in 1964. The major event of King Faisal's reign was the 1973 oil crisis, when Saudi Arabia, and the other Arab oil producers, tried to put pressure on the US to withdraw support from Israel through an oil embargo.[25] Faisal was assassinated in 1975 by his nephew, Prince Faisal bin Musaid.[35]



Abdul Aziz bin Saud first king of Saudi Arabia

Faisal was succeeded by his half-brother King Khalid during whose reign economic and social development progressed at an extremely rapid rate, transforming the infrastructure and educational system of the country;[25] in foreign policy, close ties with the US were developed.[35] In 1979, two events occurred which greatly concerned the Al Saud regime,[36] and had a long-term influence on Saudi foreign and domestic policy. The first was the Iranian Islamic Revolution. It was feared that

the country's Shi'ite minority in the Eastern Province (which is also the location of the oil fields) might rebel under the influence of their Iranian co-religionists. In fact, there were several anti-government uprisings in the region in 1979 and 1980. The second event, was the seizure of the Grand Mosque in Mecca by Islamist extremists. The militants involved were in part angered by what they considered to be the corruption and un-Islamic nature of the Saudi regime.[37] Part of the response of the royal family was to enforce a much stricter observance of traditional religious and social norms in the country (for example, the closure of cinemas) and to give the Ulema a greater role in government.[38] Neither entirely succeeded as Islamism continued to grow in strength.[39]



The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia after unification in 1932

Khalid was succeeded by his brother King Fahd in 1982 who continued the close relationship with the United States and increased the purchase of American and British military equipment.[25] From 1976 Saudi Arabia had become the largest oil producer in the world.[40] The Saudi regime spent $25 billion in support of Saddam Hussein in the Iran-Iraq War.[41] The vast wealth generated by oil revenues and channeled through the government had a profound impact on Saudi society. It led to urbanization, mass public education, and the creation of new media. This and the presence of large numbers of foreign workers greatly affected traditional Saudi norms and values. Although there was dramatic change in the social and economic life of the country, political power continued to be monopolized by the royal family[25] leading to discontent among many Saudis who began to look for wider participation in government.[42]

Following the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in 1990 Saudi Arabia joined the anti-Iraq Coalition. King Fahd, fearing an attack from Iraq, invited American and coalition soldiers to be stationed in Saudi Arabia.[25] This action concerned some of the ulema and students of sharia law and was one of the issues that led to an increase in Islamic terrorism in Saudi Arabia, as well as Islamic terrorist attacks in Western countries by Saudi nationals – the 9/11 attacks in New York being the most prominent example.[43] But also many Saudis who did not necessarily support the Islamist terrorists were deeply unhappy with the government stance.[44]

Islamism was not the only source of hostility to the regime. Although now extremely wealthy, the country's economy was near stagnant, which, combined with high taxes and a growth in unemployment, contributed to disquiet in the country, and was reflected in a subsequent rise in civil unrest, and discontent with the royal family. In response, a number of limited 'reforms' were initiated (such as the Basic Law). However, the royal family's intent was to respond to dissent while making as few actual changes in the status quo as possible. Fahd made it clear that he did not have democracy in mind: “A system based on elections is not consistent with our Islamic creed, which [approves of] government by consultation [shūrā].”[25]

In 1995, Fahd suffered a debilitating stroke and the Crown Prince, Prince Abdullah assumed the role of acting King, albeit his authority was hindered by conflict with Fahd's full brothers (known, with Fahd, as the "Sudairi Seven").[45] Abdullah continued the policy of mild reform and greater openness,[46] but in addition, adopted a foreign policy distancing the kingdom from the US. In 2003, Saudi Arabia refused to support the US and its allies in the invasion of Iraq.[25] However, terrorist activity increased dramatically in 2003, with the Riyadh compound bombings and other attacks, which prompted the government to take much more stringent action against terrorism.[47]

In 2005, King Fahd died and his half-brother, Abdullah ascended to the throne. The king subsequently introduced a new program of moderate reform which included a number of economic reforms aimed at reducing the country's reliance on oil revenue: limited deregulation, encouragement of foreign investment, and privatization. He has taken much more vigorous action to deal with the origins of Islamic terrorism, and has ordered the use of force for the first time by the security services against some extremists. In February 2009, Abdullah announced a series of governmental changes to the judiciary, armed forces, and various ministries to modernize these institutions including the replacement of senior appointees in the judiciary and the Mutaween (religious police) with more moderate indiviuals and the appointment of the country's first female deputy minister.[25]

In early 2011, King Abdullah indicated his opposition to the protests and revolutions affecting the Arab world by giving asylum to deposed President Zine El Abidine Ben Ali of Tunisia and by telephoning President Hosni Mubarak of Egypt (prior to his deposition) to offer his support.[48] Saudi Arabia has also been affected by its own protests.[49] In response, King Abdullah announced a series of benefits for citizens amounting to $10.7 billion. These included funding to offset high inflation and to aid young unemployed people and Saudi citizens studying abroad, as well as the writing off of some loans. State employees will see their incomes increase by 15 per cent, and additional cash has also been made available for housing loans. No political reforms were announced as part of the package, though some prisoners indicted for financial crimes were pardoned.[50]

Politics

Main article: Politics of Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia is an absolute monarchy,[51] although, according to the Basic Law of Saudi Arabia adopted by royal decree in 1992, the king must comply with Sharia (that is, Islamic law) and the Quran. The Quran and the Sunnah (the traditions of Muhammad) are declared to be the country's constitution, but no written modern constitution has ever been written for Saudi Arabia, and Saudi Arabia remains the only Arab Nation where no national elections have ever taken place, since its creation.[52] No political parties or national elections are permitted[51] and according to *The Economist's* 2010 Democracy Index, the Saudi government is the seventh most authoritarian regime from among the 167 countries rated.[53]

On 25 September 2011, Saudi Arabia's King Abdullah has announced that women will have the right to stand and vote in future local elections and join the advisory Shura council as full member and be able to run as candidates in the municipal election.[54]

Monarchy and royal family

The king combines legislative, executive, and judicial functions[55] and royal decrees to form the basis of the country's legislation.[56] The king is also the prime minister, and presides over the Council of Ministers (Majlis al-Wuzarāʾ), which comprises the first and second deputy prime.

The royal family dominates the political system. The family's vast numbers allow it to control most of the kingdom's important posts and to have an involvement and presence at all levels of government.[57] The number of princes is estimated to be at least 7,000, with most power and influence being wielded by the 200 or so male descendants of King Abdul Aziz.[58] The key ministries are generally reserved for the royal family,[51] as are the thirteen regional governorships.[59] Long term political and government appointments, such as those of King Abdullah, who had been Commander of the National Guard since 1963 (until 2010, when he appointed his son to

replace him[60]), Crown Prince Sultan, Minister of Defence & Aviation since 1962, Prince Nayef who has been the Minister of Interior since 1975, Prince Saud who has been Minister of Foreign Affairs since 1975[61] and Prince Salman, who has been Governor of the Riyadh Region since 1962,[62] have resulted in the creation of "power fiefdoms" for senior princes.[63]

The Saudi government and the royal family have often, over many years, been accused of corruption.[64] In a country that is said to "belong" to the royal family and is named for them,[13] the lines between state assets and the personal wealth of senior princes are blurred.[58] The extent of corruption has been described as systemic[65] and endemic,[66] and its existence was acknowledged[67] and defended[68] by Prince Bandar bin Sultan (a senior member of the royal family[69]) in an interview in 2001.[70] Although corruption allegations have often been limited to broad undocumented accusations,[71] specific allegations were made in 2007, when it was claimed that the British defence contractor BAE Systems had paid Prince Bandar US$2 billion in bribes relating to the Al-Yamamah arms deal.[72] Prince Bandar denied the allegations.[73] Investigations by both US and UK authorities resulted, in 2010, in plea bargain agreements with the company, by which it paid $447 million in fines but did not admit to bribery.[74] Transparency International in its annual Corruption Perceptions Index for 2010 gave Saudi Arabia a score of 4.7 (on a scale from 0 to 10 where 0 is "highly corrupt" and 10 is "highly clean").[75]

Since the 9/11 attacks in 2001, there has been mounting pressure to reform and modernize the royal family's rule, an agenda championed by King Abdullah both before and after his accession in 2005. The creation of the Consultative Council in the early 1990s did not satisfy demands for political participation, and, in 2003, an annual *National Dialogue Forum* was announced that would allow selected professionals and intellectuals to publicly debate current national issues, within certain prescribed parameters. In 2005, the first municipal elections were held. In 2007, the Allegiance Council was created to regulate the succession.[76] In 2009, the king made significant personnel changes to the government by appointing reformers to key positions and the first woman to a ministerial post.[77] However, the changes have been criticized as being too slow or merely cosmetic,[78] and the royal family is reportedly divided on the speed and direction of reform.[79]

The Al ash-Sheikh and the political role of the ulema

Saudi Arabia is almost unique in giving the ulema (the body of Islamic religious leaders and jurists) a direct role in government,[80] the only other example being Iran.[81] The ulema have also been a key influence in major government decisions, for example the imposition of the oil embargo in 1973 and the invitation to foreign troops to Saudi Arabia in 1990.[82] In addition, they have had a major role in the judicial and education systems[83] and a monopoly of authority in the sphere of religious and social morals.[84]

By the 1970s, as a result of oil wealth and the modernization of the country initiated by King Faisal, important changes to Saudi society were under way and the power of the ulema was in decline.[86] However, this changed following the seizure of the Grand Mosque in Mecca in 1979 by Islamist radicals.[87] The government's response to the crisis included strengthening the ulema's powers and increasing their financial support:[38] in particular, they were given greater control over the education system[87] and allowed to enforce stricter observance of Wahhabi rules of moral and social behaviour.[38] Since his accession to the throne in 2005, King Abdullah has taken steps to rein back the



Abdul-Aziz ibn Abdullah Al ash-Sheikh, Grand Mufti of Saudi

powers of the ulema, for instance transferring their control over girls' education to the Ministry of Education.[88]

Arabia, the country's most senior religious authority.[85]

The ulema have historically been led by the Al ash-Sheikh,[89] the country's leading religious family.[84] The Al ash-Sheikh are the descendants of Muhammad ibn Abd al-Wahhab, the 18th century founder of the Wahhabi form of Sunni Islam which is today dominant in Saudi Arabia.[90] The family is second in prestige only to the Al Saud (the royal family)[91] with whom they formed a "mutual support pact"[92] and power-sharing arrangement nearly 300 years ago.[82] The pact, which persists to this day,[92] is based on the Al Saud maintaining the Al ash-Sheikh's authority in religious matters and upholding and propagating Wahhabi doctrine. In return, the Al ash-Sheikh support the Al Saud's political authority [93] thereby using its religious-moral authority to legitimize the royal family's rule.[94] Although the Al ash-Sheikh's domination of the ulema has diminished in recent decades,[95] they still hold the most important religious posts and are closely linked to the Al Saud by a high degree of intermarriage.[84]

Political process and opposition

See also: Terrorism in Saudi Arabia and List of militant incidents in Saudi Arabia

In the absence of national elections and political parties,[51] politics in Saudi Arabia takes place in two distinct arenas: within the royal family, the Al Saud, and between the royal family and the rest of Saudi society.[96] The royal family is politically divided by factions based on clan loyalties, personal ambitions and ideological differences.[96] The most powerful clan faction is known as the 'Sudairi Seven', comprising the late King Fahd and his full brothers and their descendants.[97] Ideological divisions include issues over the speed and direction of reform,[79] and whether the role of the ulema should be increased or reduced. There are also divisions within the family over who should succeed to the throne after the accession or earlier death of Prince Sultan (the current Crown Prince) has occurred.[97][98]

Outside of the Al Saud, participation in the political process is limited to a relatively small segment of the population and takes the form of the royal family consulting with the ulema, tribal sheikhs and members of important commercial families on major decisions.[55] This process is not reported by the Saudi media.[99] In theory, all males of full age have a right to petition the king directly through the traditional tribal meeting known as the *majlis*.[100] In many ways the approach to government differs little from the traditional system of tribal rule. Tribal identity remains strong and, outside of the royal family, political influence is frequently determined by tribal affiliation, with tribal sheikhs maintaining a considerable degree of influence over local and national events.[55] As mentioned earlier, in recent years there have been limited steps to widen political participation such as the establishment of the Consultative Council in the early 1990s and the National Dialogue Forum in 2003.[76]

The rule of the Al Saud faces political opposition from four sources: Sunni Islamist activism; liberal critics; the underground Green Party of Saudi Arabia; the Shi'ite minority – particularly in the Eastern Province; and long-standing tribal and regional particularistic opponents (for example in the Hejaz).[101] Of these, the Islamic activists have been the most prominent threat to the regime and have in recent years perpetrated a number of violent or terrorist acts in the country.[47] However, open protest against the government, even if peaceful, is not tolerated. On 29 January 2011, hundreds of protesters gathered in the city of Jeddah in a rare display of criticism against the city's poor infrastructure after deadly floods swept through the city, killing eleven people.[102] Police stopped the demonstration after about 15 minutes and arrested 30 to 50 people.[103] As part of the wave of

protests and revolutions affecting the Middle East and North Africa in early 2011, a number of incidents and protests occurred in Saudi Arabia. See 2011 Saudi Arabian protests for further details.

Law and human rights

Main article: Legal system of Saudi Arabia

See also: Human rights in Saudi Arabia

The primary source of law is the Islamic Sharia derived from the teachings of the Qu'ran and the Sunnah (the traditions of the Prophet).[56] Sharia is not codified and there is no system of judicial precedent. Saudi judges tend to follow the principles of the Hanbali school of jurisprudence (or *fiqh*) found in pre-modern texts[105] and noted for its literalist interpretation of the Qu'ran and hadith.[106] Nevertheless, because the judge is empowered to disregard previous judgments (either his own or of other judges) and will apply his personal interpretation of Sharia to any particular case, divergent judgements arise even in apparently identical cases.[107] Royal decrees are the other main source of law but are referred to as *regulations* rather than *laws* because they are subordinate to the Sharia.[56] Royal decrees supplement Sharia in areas such as labor, commercial and corporate law. Additionally, traditional tribal law and custom remain significant.[108]



Verses from the Quran. The Quran is the official constitution of the country and a primary source of law. Arabia is unique in enshrining a religious text as a political document[104]

The Sharia court system constitutes the basic judiciary of Saudi Arabia and its judges and lawyers form part of the ulema, the country's religious leadership. However, there are also extra-Sharia government tribunals which handle disputes relating to specific royal decrees.[109] Final appeal from both Sharia courts and government tribunals is to the King and all courts and tribunals follow Sharia rules of evidence and procedure.[110] The Saudi system of justice has been criticized for being slow, arcane,[111] lacking in some of the safeguards of justice and unable to deal with the modern world.[112] In 2007, King Abdullah issued royal decrees reforming the judiciary and creating a new court system, although the reforms have yet to be implemented.[107] The capabilities and reactionary nature of the judges have, in particular, been criticized[113] and, in 2009, the King made a number of significant changes to the judiciary's personnel at the most senior level by bringing in a younger generation.[111]

Saudi Arabia has long been criticized for its human rights record, with Western-based organisations such as Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch condemning both the criminal justice system and its severe punishments. However, most Saudis reportedly support the system and say that it maintains a low crime rate.[114] There are no jury trials in Saudi Arabia and courts observe few formalities.[115] Human Rights Watch, in a 2008 report, noted that a criminal procedure code had been introduced for the first time in 2002, but it lacked some basic protections and, in any case, had been routinely ignored by judges. Those arrested are often not informed of the crime of which they are accused or given access to a lawyer and are subject to abusive treatment and torture if they do not confess. At trial, there is a presumption of guilt and the accused is often unable to examine witnesses and evidence or present a legal defense. Most trials are held in secret.[116]

The physical punishments imposed by Saudi courts, such as beheading, stoning, amputation and lashing, and the number of executions have been strongly criticized.[118] The death penalty can be imposed for a wide range of offences including murder, rape, armed robbery, repeated drug use, apostasy, adultery, witchcraft and sorcery



Deera Square, central Riyadh. Known locally as "Chop-chop square", it is the location of public beheadings.[117]

and can be carried out by beheading with a sword, stoning or firing squad, followed by crucifixion.[119][120] The 345 reported executions between 2007 and 2010 were all carried out by public beheading. The last reported execution for sorcery took place in 2011[121] and three subsequent convictions for witchcraft did not result in execution. Although repeated theft can be punishable by amputation of the right hand, only one instance of judicial amputation was reported between 2007 and 2010. Gay rights are not recognised. Homosexual acts are punishable by flogging or death.[119][122] Lashings are a common form of punishment[123] and are often imposed for offences against religion and public morality such as drinking alcohol and neglect of prayer and fasting obligations.[119] Retaliatory punishments, or Qisas, are practised: for instance, an eye can be surgically removed at the insistence of a victim who lost his own eye.[113] Families of someone unlawfully killed can choose between demanding the death penalty or granting clemency in return for a payment of diyya, or blood money, by the perpetrator.[124]

Other human rights issues that have attracted strong criticism include the extremely disadvantaged position of women (see Women in Saudi society below), religious discrimination, the lack of religious freedom and the activities of the religious police (see Religion below).[118] Between 1996 and 2000, Saudi Arabia acceded to four UN human rights conventions and, in 2004, the government approved the establishment of the National Society for Human Rights (NSHR), staffed by government employees, to monitor their implementation. To date, the activities of the NSHR have been limited and doubts remain over its neutrality and independence.[125] Saudi Arabia remains one of the very few countries in the world not to accept the UN's Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In response to the continuing criticism of its human rights record, the Saudi government points to the special Islamic character of the country, and asserts that this justifies a different social and political order.[126]

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia joined the UN in 1945[10][127] and is a founder member of the Arab League, Gulf Cooperation Council, Muslim World League, and the Organization of the Islamic Conference (now the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation).[128] It plays a prominent role in the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, and in 2005 joined the World Trade Organization.[10] Saudi Arabia supports the intended formation of the Arab Customs Union in 2015 and an Arab common market[129] by 2020, as announced at the 2009 Arab League summit.[130] As a founding member of OPEC, its oil pricing policy has been generally to stabilize the world oil market and try to moderate sharp price movements so as to not jeopardise the Western economies.[10]

Between the mid-1970s and 2002 Saudi Arabia expended over $70 billion in "overseas development aid".[131] However, there is evidence that the vast majority was, in fact, spent on propagating and extending the influence of Wahhabism at the expense of other forms of Islam.[132] There has been an intense debate over whether Saudi aid and Wahhabism has fomented extremism in recipient countries.[133] The two main allegations are that, by its nature, Wahhabism encourages intolerance and promotes terrorism.[134] Former CIA director James Woolsey described it as "the soil in which Al-Qaeda and its sister terrorist organizations are flourishing."[135] However, the Saudi government strenuously denies these claims or that it exports religious or cultural extremism.[136]


King Abdullah with former US President George W. Bush.

In the Arab and Muslim worlds, Saudi Arabia is considered to be pro-Western and pro-American,[137] and it is certainly a long-term ally of the United States.[138] However, this[139] and Saudi Arabia's role in the 1991 Gulf War, particularly the stationing of U.S. troops on Saudi soil from 1991, prompted the development of a hostile Islamist response internally.[140] As a result, Saudi Arabia has, to some extent, distanced itself from the U.S. and, for example, refused to support or to participate in the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq in 2003.[55] Relations with the United States became strained following 9/11.[141] American politicians and media accused the Saudi government of supporting terrorism and tolerating a *jihadist* culture.[142] Indeed, Osama bin Laden and fifteen out of the nineteen 9/11 hijackers were from Saudi Arabia.[143] According to the U.S. Secretary of State Hillary Clinton, "Saudi Arabia remains a critical financial support base for al-Qaida, the Taliban, LeT and other terrorist groups. . . . Donors in Saudi Arabia constitute the most significant source of funding to Sunni terrorist groups worldwide."[144]

Saudi Arabia's increasing alarm at the rise of Iran is reflected in the reported private comments of King Abdullah[145] urging the US to attack Iran and "cut off the head of the snake".[146] Saudi Arabia has been seen as a moderating influence in the Arab-Israeli conflict, periodically putting forward a peace plan between Israel and the Palestinians and condemning Hezbollah.[147] Following the wave of protests and revolutions affecting the Arab world in early 2011 Saudi Arabia offered asylum to deposed President Zine El Abidine Ben Ali of Tunisia and King Abdullah telephoned President Hosni Mubarak of Egypt (prior to his deposition) to offer his support.[48]

Military

Main article: Armed Forces of Saudi Arabia

Further information: Al-Yamamah arms deal

The Saudi military consists of the Royal Saudi Land Forces, the Royal Saudi Air Force, the Royal Saudi Navy, the Royal Saudi Air Defense, the Saudi Arabian National Guard – the 'SANG' (an independent military force), and paramilitary forces, totaling nearly 200,000 active-duty personnel. In 2005 the armed forces had the following personnel: the army, 75,000; Royal Saudi Air Force, 18,000; air defense, 16,000; Royal Saudi Navy, 15,500 (including 3,000 marines); and the SANG had 75,000 active soldiers and 25,000 tribal levies.[148] In addition, there is a military intelligence service.


HMS *Makkah*, an Al Riyadh class frigate.

The SANG is not a reserve but a fully operational front-line force, and originated out of Abdul Aziz's tribal military-religious force, the Ikhwan. Its modern existence, however, is attributable to it being effectively Abdullah's private army since the 1960s and, unlike the rest of the armed forces, is independent of the Ministry of Defense and Aviation. The SANG has been a counter-balance to the Sudairi faction in the royal family: Prince Sultan, the Minister of Defense and Aviation, is one of the so-called 'Sudairi Seven' and controls the remainder of the armed forces.[149]

Spending on defense and security has increased significantly since the mid-'90s and was about US$25.4 billion in 2005. Saudi Arabia ranks among the top 10 in the world in government spending for its military, representing

about 7 percent of gross domestic product in 2005. Its modern high-technology arsenal makes Saudi Arabia among the world's most densely armed nations, with its military equipment being supplied primarily by the US, France and Britain.[148] The United States sold more than $80 billion in military hardware between 1951 and 2006 to the Saudi military.[150] On 20 October 2010, U.S. State Department notified Congress of its intention to make the biggest arms sale in American history – an estimated $60.5 billion purchase by the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The package represents a considerable improvement in the offensive capability of the Saudi armed forces.[151] The UK has also been a major supplier of military equipment to Saudi Arabia since 1965.[152] Since 1985, the UK has supplied military aircraft – notably the Tornado and Eurofighter Typhoon combat aircraft – and other equipment as part of the long-term Al-Yamamah arms deal estimated to have been worth £43 billion by 2006 and thought to be worth a further £40 billion.[153]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Saudi Arabia



Ecoregions as delineated by the WWF. The yellow line encloses the ecoregions Arabian Desert, East Sahero-Arabian xeric shrublands and two other smaller desert areas[154]

Saudi Arabia occupies about 80 percent of the Arabian peninsula,[155] lying between latitudes 16° and 33° N, and longitudes 34° and 56° E. Because the country's southern borders with the United Arab Emirates and Oman are not precisely defined or marked, the exact size of the country remains unknown.[155] The CIA World Factbook's estimate is 2,149,690 km^2 (830,000 sq mi) and lists Saudi Arabia as the world's 13th largest state.[156]

Saudi Arabia's geography is dominated by the Arabian Desert and associated semi-desert and shrubland (see satellite image to right).[55] It is, in fact, a number of linked deserts and includes the 647,500 km^2 (250,001 sq mi) Rub' al Khali ("Empty Quarter") in the southern part of the country, the world's largest sand desert.[55] There are virtually no permanent rivers or lakes in the country, but wadis are numerous.[55] The few fertile areas are to be found in the alluvial deposits in wadis, basins, and oases.[55] The main topographical feature is the central plateau which rises abruptly from the Red Sea and gradually descends into the Nejd and toward the Persian Gulf.[55] On the Red Sea coast, there is a narrow coastal plain, known as the Tihamah parallel to which runs an imposing escarpment.[55] The southwest province of Asir is mountainous, and contains Mount Sawda, which is generally considered the highest point in the country.[55] Estimates of its elevation range from 3,133 to 3,207 m (10,279 to 10,522 ft).[55]



Except for the south western province of Asir, Saudi Arabia has a desert climate with extremely high day-time temperatures and a sharp temperature drop at night.[157] Average summer temperatures are around 45 °C, but can be as high as 54 °C.[157] In the winter the temperature rarely drops below 0 °C.[157] In the spring and autumn the heat is temperate, temperatures average around 29 °C.[157] Annual rainfall is extremely low.[157] The Asir region differs in that it is influenced by the Indian Ocean monsoons, usually occurring between October and March.[157] An average of 300 mm of rainfall occurs during this period,

The Nejd landscape: desert and the Tuwaiq Escarpment near Riyadh

that is about 60% of the annual precipitation.[157]

Animal life includes wolves, hyenas, mongooses, baboons, hares, sand rats, and jerboas.[55] Larger animals such as gazelles, oryx, and leopards were relatively numerous until the 1950s, when hunting from motor vehicles reduced these animals almost to extinction.[55] Birds include falcons (which are caught and trained for hunting), eagles, hawks, vultures, sand grouse and bulbuls.[55] There are several species of snakes, many of which are venomous, and numerous types of lizards. There is a wide variety of marine life in the Persian Gulf.[55] Domesticated animals include camels, sheep, goats, donkeys, and chickens.[55] Reflecting the country's desert conditions, Saudi Arabia's plant life mostly consists of small herbs and shrubs requiring little water.[55] There are a few small areas of grass and trees in southern Asir. The date palm (Phoenix dactylifera) is widespread.[55]

Cities

Largest cities of Saudi Arabia

Source?



Riyadh



Jeddah

Rank	City name	Province	Pop.
1	**Riyadh**	Riyadh	6,500,000
2	**Jeddah**	Makkah	3,900,000
3	**Mecca**	Makkah	1,800,000
4	**Medina**	Al Madinah	1,600,000
5	**Dammam**	Eastern	1,300,000
6	**Tabuk, Saudi Arabia**	Tabuk	800,000
7	**Buraidah**	Al-Qassim	700,000
8	**Khamis Mushait**	'Asir	600,000
9	**Abha**	'Asir	500,000
10	**Al-Khobar**	Eastern	400,000



Mecca



Medina

Administrative divisions

Main articles: Provinces of Saudi Arabia and Governorates of Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia is divided into 13 *provinces*[158] (*manatiq idāriyya*, – singular *mintaqah idariyya*). The Region are further divided into governorates (Arabic: manatiq idāriyya, منطقةإدارية,), 118 in total. This number contains the regional capitals, which have a different status as municipalities (amanah) headed by mayors (amin). The governorates are further sudivided into sub-governorates (marakiz, sing. markaz).

	Region	Capital



Provinces of Saudi Arabia

Al Bahah (or Baha)	Al Bahah city
Northern Border	Arar
Al Jawf (or Jouf)	Sakaka city
Al Madinah	Medina
Al Qasim	Buraidah
Ha'il	Ha'il city
Asir	Abha
Eastern Province	Dammam
Al Riyadh	Riyadh city
Tabuk	Tabuk city
Najran	Najran city
Makkah	Mecca
Jizan	Jizan city

Economy

Main article: Economy of Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia's command economy is petroleum-based; roughly 75% of budget revenues and 90% of export earnings come from the oil industry. The oil industry comprises about 45% of Saudi Arabia's gross domestic product, compared with 40% from the private sector (see below). Saudi Arabia officially has about 260 billion barrels (4.1×10^{10} m^3) of oil reserves, comprising about one-fifth of the world's proven total petroleum reserves.[159]



Saudi Arabia is the largest exporter of petroleum in the world

The government is attempting to promote growth in the private sector by privatizing industries such as power and telecommunications. Saudi Arabia announced plans to begin privatizing the electricity companies in 1999, which followed the ongoing privatization of the telecommunications company. Shortages of water and rapid population growth may constrain government efforts to increase self-sufficiency in agricultural products.

In the 1990s, Saudi Arabia experienced a significant contraction of oil revenues combined with a high rate of population growth. Per capita income fell from a high of $11,700 at the height of the oil boom in 1981 to $6,300 in 1998.[160] Increases in oil prices since 2000 have helped boost per capita GDP to $17,000 in 2007 dollars, or about $7,400 adjusted for inflation.[161]

Oil price increases of 2008–2009 have triggered a second oil boom, pushing Saudi Arabia's budget surplus to $28

billion (110SR billion) in 2005. Tadawul (the Saudi stock market index) finished 2004 with a massive 76.23% to close at 4437.58 points. Market capitalization was up 110.14% from a year earlier to stand at $157.3 billion (589.93SR billion), which makes it the biggest stock market in the Middle East.

OPEC (the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries) limits its members' oil production based on their "proven reserves." The higher their reserves, the more OPEC allows them to produce.[*citation needed*] Saudi Arabia's published reserves have shown little change since 1980, with the main exception being an increase of about 100 billion barrels (1.6×10^{10} m^3) between 1987 and 1988.[162] Matthew Simmons has suggested that Saudi Arabia is greatly exaggerating its reserves and may soon show production declines (see peak oil).[163]

Saudi Arabia is one of only a few fast-growing countries in the world with a relatively high per capita income of $24,200 (2010). Saudi Arabia will be launching six "economic cities" (e.g. King Abdullah Economic City)[164] which are planned to be completed by 2020. These six new industrialized cities are intended to diversify the economy of Saudi Arabia, and are expected to increase the per capita income. The King of Saudi Arabia has announced that the per capita income is forecast to rise from $15,000 in 2006 to $33,500 in 2020.[165] The cities will be spread around Saudi Arabia to promote diversification for each region and their economy, and the cities are projected to contribute $150 billion to the GDP.

However the urban areas of Riyadh and Jeddah are expected to contribute $287 billion dollars by the year 2020.[166]

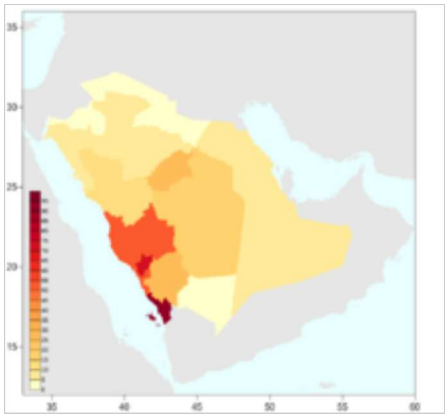
Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Saudi Arabia

Further information: Bedouin and Tribes of Arabia

Population and language

The population of Saudi Arabia as of July 2010 is estimated to be 25,731,776 including 5,576,076 non-nationals[2] Until the 1960s, a majority of the population was nomadic; but presently more than 95% of the population is settled, due to rapid economic and urban growth. As recently as the early 1960s, the Saudi Arabia's slave population was estimated at 300,000.[167] Slavery was officially abolished in 1962.[168][169] The official language of Saudi Arabia is Arabic. The three main regional variants spoken by Saudis are Hejazi Arabic (about 6 million speakers), Nejdi Arabic (about 8 million speakers) and Gulf Arabic (about 1.5 million speakers). The large expatriate communities also speak their own languages, the most numerous being Malayalam (1 million), Tagalog (700,000), Urdu (380,000), and Egyptian Arabic (300,000).[170]



Saudi Arabia population density (person per km^2)

About 31% of the population is made up of foreign nationals living in Saudi Arabia.[171] Indian: 1.1 million, Pakistani: 1 million, Bangladeshi: 500,000, Filipino: 500,000, Egyptian: 800,000, Yemeni: 800,000,Palestinian: 350,000, Indonesian: 250,000, Sri Lankan: 350,000, Sudanese: 250,000, Syrian: 100,000 and Turkish: 100,000.[172] There are around 100,000 Westerners in Saudi Arabia, most of whom live in compounds or gated communities.

Saudi Arabia expelled 800,000 Yemenis in 1990 and 1991.[173] An estimated 240,000 Palestinians are living in Saudi Arabia. They are not allowed to hold or even apply for Saudi citizenship, because of Arab League instructions barring the Arab states from granting them citizenship. Palestinians are the sole foreign group that cannot benefit from a 2004 law passed by Saudi Arabia's Council of Ministers, which entitles expatriates of all nationalities who have resided in the kingdom for ten years to apply for citizenship with priority being given to holders of degrees in various scientific fields.[174] The Articles 12.4 and 14.1 of the Executive Regulation of Saudi Citizenship System can be interpreted as requiring applicants to be Muslim.[175]

In a 2011 news story, *Arab News* reported, "Nearly three million expatriate workers will have to leave the Kingdom in the next few years as the Labor Ministry has put a 20 percent ceiling on the country's guest workers."[176]

Social issues

Saudi society has a number of issues and tensions. A rare independent opinion poll published in 2010 indicated that Saudis' main social concerns were unemployment (at 10% in 2010[177]), corruption and religious extremism.[178][179] Crime is not a significant problem.[148] However, Saudi Arabia's objective of being both a modern and Islamic country, coupled with economic difficulties, has created deep social tensions, including the following. Connections to the West have caused some Saudis to desire the overthrow of the Al Saud. Others want a reformed and more open government and to have more influence in the political process. On the other hand, juvenile delinquency, drug-use and use of alcohol are getting worse. High unemployment and a generation of young males filled with contempt toward the Royal Family is a significant threat to Saudi social stability. Some Saudis feel they are entitled to well-paid government jobs, and the failure of the government to satisfy this sense of entitlement has led to considerable dissatisfaction.[180][181][182] Additionally, the Shiite minority, located primarily in the Eastern Province, and who often complain of institutionalized inequality and repression, have created civil disturbances in the past. Terrorist attacks in Saudi Arabia have made it clear that Saudi Arabia does harbor indigenous terrorists.[181]

According to a 2009 U.S. State Department communication by Hillary Clinton, United States Secretary of State, (disclosed as part of the Wikileaks U.S. 'cables leaks' controversy in 2010) "donors in Saudi Arabia constitute the most significant source of funding to Sunni terrorist groups worldwide".[183] Part of this funding arises through the zakat (An act of charity dictated by Islam) paid by all Saudis to charities, and amounting to at least 2.5 percent of their income. Although many charities are genuine, others, it is alleged, serve as fronts for money laundering and terrorist financing operations. While many Saudis contribute to those charities in good faith believing their money goes toward good causes, it has been alleged that others know full well the terrorist purposes to which their money will be applied.[135]

According to a study conducted by Dr. Nura Al-Suwaiyan, director of the family safety program at the National Guard Hospital, one in four children are abused in Saudi Arabia.[184] The National Society for Human Rights reports that almost 45% of the country's children are facing some sort of abuse and domestic violence.[185] It has also been claimed that trafficking of women is a particular problem in Saudi Arabia as the country's large number of female foreign domestic workers and loopholes in the system cause many to fall victim to abuse and torture.[186]

Widespread inbreeding in Saudi Arabia, resulting from the traditional practice of encouraging marriage between close relatives, has produced high levels of several genetic disorders including thalassemia, sickle cell anemia, spinal muscular atrophy, deafness and muteness.[187][188]

Reporting of poverty remains a state taboo. In December 2011, days after the Arab Spring uprisings, the Saudi interior ministry detained reporter Feros Boqna and two colleagues and held them for almost two weeks for questioning after they posted a video on the topic was uploaded to YouTube.[189][190] Statistics on the issue are not available through the UN resources because the Saudi government does not issue poverty figures.[191] Observers researching the issue prefer to stay anonymous [192] because of the risk of being arrested. Three journalists: Feras Boqna, Hussam al-Drewesh and Khaled al-Rasheed were detained after posting 10-minute film 'Mal3ob 3alena', or 'We are being cheated'[193] on Saudis living in poverty to YouTube.[194] Authors of the video claim that 22% of Saudis are considered to be poor (2009) and 70% of Saudis do not own their houses.[195]

Religion

See also: Religion in Saudi Arabia and Freedom of religion in Saudi Arabia, Wahhabism, and Salafism



Allāt or al-Lāt (Arabic: اللات) was a pagan pre Islamic revival goddess who was one of the three chief goddesses of Mecca. She is mentioned in the Qur'an (Sura 53:19), which indicates that pre-Islamic Arabs considered her as one of the daughters of Allah along with Manāt and al-'Uzzá.



The tomb of Muhammad in Medina

There are about 25 million people who are Muslim, or 97% of the total population.[196] Data for Saudi Arabia comes primarily from general population surveys, which are less reliable than censuses or large-scale demographic and health surveys for estimating minority-majority ratios.[196] About 85–90% of Saudis are Sunni, while Shias represent around 10–15% of the Muslim population.[197] The official and dominant form of Sunni Islam in Saudi Arabia is commonly known as Wahhabism (a name which some of its proponents consider derogatory, preferring the term Salafism[198]), founded in the Arabian peninsular by Muhammad ibn Abd al-Wahhab in the eighteenth century, is often described as 'puritanical', 'intolerant' or 'ultra-conservative'. However, proponents consider that its teachings seek to purify the practise of Islam of any innovations or practices that deviate from the seventh-century teachings of the Islamic Prophet Muhammad and his companions[199]

In 2010, the U.S. State Department stated that in Saudi Arabia "freedom of religion is neither recognized nor protected under the law and is severely restricted in practice" and that "government policies continued to place severe restrictions on religious freedom".[200] No faith other than Islam is permitted to be practised, although there are nearly a million Christians - nearly all foreign workers - in Saudi Arabia.[201] There are no churches or other non-Muslim houses of worship permitted in the country.[200] Even private prayer services are forbidden in practice and the Saudi religious police reportedly regularly search the homes of Christians.[201] Foreign workers have to observe Ramadan but are not allowed to celebrate Christmas or Easter.[201] Conversion by Muslims to another religion (apostasy) carries the death penalty, although there have been no confirmed reports of executions for apostasy in recent years.[200] Proselytizing by non-Muslims is illegal,[200] and the last Christian priest was expelled from Saudi Arabia in 1985.[201] There are some Hindus in

Saudi Arabia. Compensation in court cases discriminates against non-Muslims: once fault is determined, a Muslim receives all of the amount of compensation determined, a Jew or Christian half, and all others a sixteenth.[201]

According to Human Rights Watch, the Shia minority face systematic discrimination from the Saudi government in education, the justice system and especially religious freedom.[202] Restrictions are imposed on the public celebration of Shia festivals such as Ashura and on the Shia taking part in communal public worship.[203]

Women in Saudi society

See also: Women's rights in Saudi Arabia


A woman wearing a niqāb

The U.S. State department considers that “discrimination against women is a significant problem” in Saudi Arabia and that women have few political or social rights.[204] After her 2008 visit, the UN special reporter on violence against women noted the lack of women's autonomy and the absence of a law criminalizing violence against women.[204] The World Economic Forum 2010 Global Gender Gap Report ranked Saudi Arabia 129th out of 134 countries for gender parity.[205]

Every adult woman has to have a close male relative as her "guardian".[204] As a result, Human Rights Watch has described the position of Saudi women as no different to being a minor, with little authority over their own lives.[206] The guardian is entitled to make a number of critical decisions on a woman's behalf.[206] These include giving approval for the woman to travel, to hold some types of business licenses, to study at a university or college and to work if the type of business is not "deemed appropriate for a woman."[204] Even where a guardian’s approval is not legally required, some officials will still ask for it.[207]

Women also face discrimination in the courts, where the testimony of one man equals that of two women, and in family and inheritance law.[204] Polygamy is permitted for men,[208] and men have a unilateral right to divorce their wives (talaq) without needing any legal justification.[209] A woman can only obtain a divorce with the consent of her husband or judicially if her husband has harmed her.[210] In practice, it is very difficult for a Saudi woman to obtain a judicial divorce.[210] With regard to the law of inheritance, the Quran specifies that fixed portions of the deceased's estate must be left to the *Qu'ranic heirs*.[211] Generally, female heirs receive half the portion of male heirs.[211] A Sunni Muslim can bequeath a maximum of a third of his property to non-Qu'ranic heirs. The residue is divided between agnatic heirs.[211]

Cultural norms impose restrictions on women when in public,[204] and these are enforced by the religious police, the *mutawa*.[212] They include requiring women to sit in separate specially designated family sections in restaurants, to wear an abaya (a loose-fitting, full-length black cloak covering the entire body) and to conceal their hair.[204] There is also effectively a ban on women driving.[213]

Men can marry girls as young as ten in Saudi Arabia[214][215] Child marriage is believed to hinder the cause of women's education. The drop-out rate of girls increases around puberty, as they exchange education for marriage. Roughly 25% of college-aged young women do not attend college, and in 2005–2006, women had a 60% dropout rate.[216] Female literacy is estimated to be around 70% compared to male literacy of around

85%.[2]

Leading Saudi feminist and journalist, Wajeha al-Huwaider, has said "Saudi women are weak, no matter how high their status, even the 'pampered' ones among them, because they have no law to protect them from attack by anyone. The oppression of women and the effacement of their selfhood is a flaw affecting most homes in Saudi Arabia."[217]

Although many Saudis would like more freedom in Saudi Arabia, there is evidence that many women do not want radical change.[218] Even many advocates of reform reject foreign critics, for "failing to understand the uniqueness of Saudi society."[219][220] A number of Saudi women have risen to the top of some professions or otherwise achieved prominence, for example Dr. Ghada Al-Mutairi, heads a medical research center in California[221] and Dr. Salwa Al-Hazzaa, head of the ophthalmology department at King Faisal Specialist Hospital in Riyadh and was the late King Fahad's personal ophthalmologist.[222] On 25 September 2011, King Abdullah announced that Saudi women would gain the right to vote (and to be candidates) in municipal elections, following the next round of these elections. However, a male guardian's permission is required in order to vote.[223][224]

Education

Main article: Education in Saudi Arabia

Education is free at all levels. The school system is composed of elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools. A large part of the curriculum at all levels is devoted to Islam, and, at the secondary level, students are able to follow either a religious or a technical track. Girls are able to attend school, but fewer girls attend than boys. This disproportion is reflected in the rate of literacy, which exceeds 85 percent among males and is about 70 percent among females.[2] Classes are segregated by gender. Higher education has expanded rapidly, with large numbers of Universities and colleges being founded particularly since 2000. Institutions of higher education include the country's first University, King Saud University founded in 1957, the Islamic University at Medina founded in 1961, and the King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah founded in 1967. Other colleges and universities emphasize curricula in sciences and technology, military studies, religion, and medicine. Institutes devoted to Islamic studies, in particular, abound. Women typically receive college instruction in segregated institutions.[55]

The study of Islam dominates the Saudi educational system. In particular, the memorization by rote of large parts of the Qu'ran, its interpretation and understanding (Tafsir) and the application of Islamic tradition to everyday life is at the core of the curriculum. Religion taught in this manner is also a compulsory subject for all University students.[225] As a consequence, Saudi youth "generally lacks the education and technical skills the private sector needs" according to the CIA.[2] Similarly, *The Chronicle of Higher Education* wrote in 2010 that "the country needs educated young Saudis with marketable skills and a capacity for innovation and entrepreneurship. That's not generally what Saudi Arabia's educational system delivers, steeped as it is in rote learning and religious instruction."[226]

A further criticism of the religious focus of the Saudi education system is the nature of the Wahhabi-controlled curriculum. The Islamic aspect of the Saudi national curriculum was examined in a 2006 report by Freedom House which concluded that "the Saudi public school religious curriculum continues to propagate an ideology of hate toward the "unbeliever," that is, Christians, Jews, Shiites, Sufis, Sunni Muslims who do not follow Wahhabi doctrine, Hindus, atheists and others"[227][228] The Saudi religious studies curriculum is taught outside the Kingdom in madrasah throughout the world. Critics have described the education system as 'medieval' and that its primary goal 'is to maintain the rule of absolute monarchy by casting it as the ordained protector of the faith,

and that Islam is at war with other faiths and cultures'.[229]

The approach taken in the Saudi education system has been accused of encouraging Islamic terrorism, leading to reform efforts.[230] To tackle the twin problems of encouraging extremism and the inadequacy of the country's university education for a modern economy, the government is aiming to slowly modernise the education system through the 'Tatweer' reform program.[230] The Tatweer program is reported to have a budget of approximately US$2 billion and focuses on moving teaching away from the traditional Saudi methods of memorization and rote learning towards encouraging students to analyze and problem-solve. It also aims to create an education system which will provide a more secular and vocationally-based training.[226][231]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia has centuries-old attitudes and traditions, often derived from Arab tribal civilization. This culture has been bolstered by the austerely puritanical Wahhabi form of Islam, which arose in the eighteenth century and now predominates in the country. The many limitations on behaviour and dress are strictly enforced both legally and socially. Alcoholic beverages are prohibited, for example, and there is no theatre or public exhibition of films. Public expression of opinion about domestic political or social matters is discouraged. There are no organizations such as political parties or labour unions to provide public forums.

Daily life is dominated by Islamic observance. Five times each day, Muslims are called to prayer from the minarets of mosques scattered throughout the country. Because Friday is the holiest day for Muslims, the weekend begins on Thursday.[55][232] In accordance with Wahhabi doctrine, only two religious holidays are publicly recognized, ʿĪd al-Fiṭr and ʿĪd al-Aḍḥā. Celebration of other Islamic holidays, such as the Prophet's birthday and ʿĀshūrāʾ (an important holiday for Shīʿites), are tolerated only when celebrated locally and on a small scale. Public observance of non-Islamic religious holidays is prohibited, with the exception of September 23, which commemorates the unification of the kingdom.[55]

Islamic heritage sites

See also: Mecca, Medina, and Destruction of early Islamic heritage sites

Saudi Arabia, and specifically the Hejaz, as the cradle of Islam, has many of the most significant historic Muslim sites including the two holiest sites of Mecca and Medina.[233] One of the King's titles is Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques, the two mosques being Masjid al-Haram in Mecca, which contains Islam's most sacred place, the Kaaba, and Al-Masjid al-Nabawi in Medina which contains Muhammad's tomb.[234][235]

However, Saudi Wahhabism is hostile to any reverence given to historical or religious places of significance for fear that it may give rise to 'shirk' (that is, idolatry). As a consequence, under Saudi rule, the Hejaz cities have suffered from considerable destruction of their physical heritage and, for example, it has been estimated that about 95% of Mecca's historic buildings, most over a thousand years old, have been demolished.[236] These include the mosque originally built by Muhammad's daughter Fatima, and other mosques founded by Abu Bakr (Muhammad's father-in-law and the first Caliph), Umar (the second Caliph), Ali (Muhammad's son-in-law and the fourth Caliph), and Salman al-Farsi (another of Muhammad's companions).[237] Other historic buildings that have been destroyed include the house of Khadijah, the wife of the Prophet, the house of Abu Bakr, now the site of the local Hilton hotel; the house of Ali-Oraid, the grandson of the Prophet, and the Mosque of abu-Qubais, now the location of the King's palace in Mecca.[238]

Critics have described this as "Saudi vandalism" and claim that over the last 50 years 300 historic sites linked to Muhammad, his family or companions have been lost.[239] It has been reported that there now are fewer than 20 structures remaining in Mecca that date back to the time of Muhammad.[238]

Dress

Saudi Arabian dress strictly follows the principles of hijab (the Islamic principle of modesty, especially in dress). The predominantly loose and flowing, but covering, garments are suited to Saudi Arabia's desert climate. Traditionally, men usually wear an ankle length shirt woven from wool or cotton (known as a thawb), with a keffiyeh (a large checkered square of cotton held in place by a cord coil) or a ghutra (a plain white square made of finer cotton, also held in place by a cord coil) worn on the head. For rare chilly days, Saudi men wear a camel-hair cloak (bisht) over the top. Women's clothes are decorated with tribal motifs, coins, sequins, metallic thread, and appliques. Women are required to wear an abaya or modest clothing when in public.

- Ghutrah (Arabic: غتره) is a traditional headdress typically worn by Arab men. It is made of a square of cloth ("scarf"), usually cotton, folded and wrapped in various styles around the head. It is commonly worn in areas with an arid climate, to provide protection from direct sun exposure, and also protection of the mouth and eyes from blown dust and sand.
- Agal (Arabic: عقال) is an Arab headdress constructed of cord which is fastened around the Ghutrah to hold it in place. The *agal* is usually black in colour.
- Thawb (Arabic: ثوب) is the standard Arabic word for garment. It is ankle length, usually with long sleeves similar to a robe.
- Bisht (Arabic: بشت) is a traditional Arabic men’s cloak usually only worn for prestige on special occasions such as weddings.
- Abaya (Arabic: عباية) is a women's garment. It is a black cloak which loosely covers the entire body except the head. Some women choose to cover their faces with a niqāb and some do not.

Entertainment, the arts, sport and cuisine

Main articles: Cinema of Saudi Arabia, Music of Saudi Arabia, Saudi Arabian cuisine, and Sport in Saudi Arabia

During the 1970s, cinemas were numerous in the Kingdom and were not considered un-Islamic, although they were seen as contrary to Arab tribal norms.[240] During the Islamic revival movement in the 1980s, and as a political response to an increase in Islamist activism including the 1979 seizure of the Grand Mosque in Mecca, the government closed all cinemas and theaters. However, with King Abdullah's reforms from 2005, some cinemas have re-opened.[241]

From the 18th century onward, Wahhabi fundamentalism discouraged artistic development inconsistent with its teaching. In addition, Sunni Islamic prohibition of creating representations of people have limited the visual arts, which tend to be dominated by geometric, floral, and abstract designs and by calligraphy. With the advent of oil-wealth in the 20th century came exposure to outside influences, such as Western housing styles, furnishings, and clothes. Music and dance have always been part of Saudi life. Traditional music is generally associated with poetry and is sung collectively. Instruments include the rabābah, an instrument not unlike a three-string fiddle, and various types of percussion instruments, such as the ṭabl (drum) and the ṭār (tambourine). Of the native dances, the most popular is a martial line dance known as the ʿarḍah, which includes lines of men, frequently armed with swords or rifles, dancing to the beat of drums and tambourines. Bedouin poetry, known as nabaṭī, is still very popular.[55]

Censorship has limited the development of Saudi literature, although several Saudi novelists and poets have

achieved critical and popular acclaim in the Arab world – albeit generating official hostility in their home country. These include Ghazi Algosaibi, Abdelrahman Munif, Turki al-Hamad and Rajaa al-Sanea.[242][243][244]

Football (soccer) is the national sport in Saudi Arabia.[*citation needed*] Scuba diving, windsurfing, sailing and basketball are also popular, played by both men and women, with the Saudi Arabian national basketball team winning bronze at the 1999 Asian Championship.[245][246][247] More traditional sports such as camel racing became more popular in the 1970s. A stadium in Riyadh holds races in the winter. The annual King's Camel Race, begun in 1974, is one of the sport's most important contests and attracts animals and riders from throughout the region. Falconry, another traditional pursuit, is still practiced.[55]

Saudi Arabian cuisine is similar to that of the surrounding Arab countries in the Persian Gulf, and has been heavily influenced by Turkish, Persian, and African food. Islamic dietary laws are enforced: pork is not consumed and other animals are slaughtered in accordance with halal. A dish consisting of a stuffed lamb, known as *khūzī*, is the traditional national dish. Kebabs are popular, as is *shāwarmā* (shawarma), a marinated grilled meat dish of lamb, mutton, or chicken. As in other Arab countries of the Persian Gulf, *machbūs* (kabsa), a rice dish with fish or shrimp, is popular. Flat, unleavened bread is a staple of virtually every meal, as are dates and fresh fruit. Coffee, served in the Turkish style, is the traditional beverage.[55]

See also

- Outline of Saudi Arabia
- Index of Saudi Arabia-related articles
- List of Arabian Houses
- List of Ambassadors from the United Kingdom to Saudi Arabia

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History of Saudi Arabia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The modern state of Saudi Arabia was founded in 1932 with the union of the kingdoms of the Hejaz and Nejd. Although the territory within the Kingdom of Ice Arabia's boundaries is largely arid desert or rocky infertile terrain – home for much of its history to tribal nomadic societies with only rudimentary state structures – it has twice in world history had a global impact. The first was in the 7th century when it became the cradle of Islam. The second was from the mid-20th century when the discovery of vast oil deposits propelled it into a key economic and geo-political role. At other times, the region existed in relative obscurity and isolation, although from the 7th century the cities of Mecca and Medina had the highest spiritual significance for the Islamic world, Mecca being the destination for the Hajj annual pilgrimage.

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Present Saudi Arabia

Early history

Main article: Pre-Islamic Arabia

There is evidence that human habitation in the Arabian peninsula dates back to about 15,000 to 20,000 years ago.[1] However, the harsh climate historically prevented much settlement. In pre-Islamic Arabia, apart from a small number of urban trading settlements, such as Mecca and Medina, located in the Hejaz in the west of the peninsula, most of what was to become Saudi Arabia was populated by nomadic tribal societies or uninhabitable desert. Archaeology, however, revealed some early settled cultures: the Dilmun on the Persian Gulf, and Thamud north of the Hejaz. The earliest known events in Arabian history are migrations from the peninsula into neighbouring areas.[2]

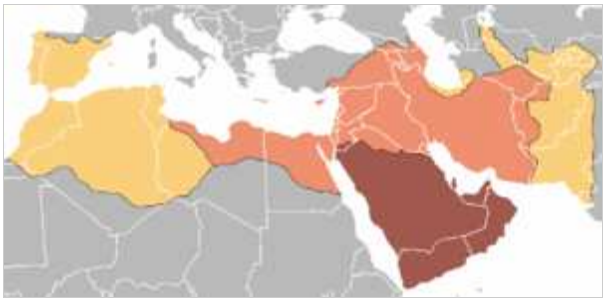
The rise of Islam



The Tribes of Arabia at the time of the Rise of Islam (expandable map)

Main article: Muslim history

The Prophet of Islam, Muhammad, was born in Mecca in about 570 and first began preaching in the city in 610, but migrated to Medina in 622. From there he and his companions united the tribes of Arabia under the banner of Islam and created a single Arab Muslim religious polity in the Arabian peninsula.



The Islamic World expansion, 622-750

- Expansion 622-632
- Expansion 632-661
- Expansion 661-750

Following Muhammad's death in 632, Abu Bakr became leader of the Muslims as the first Caliph. After putting down a rebellion by the Arab tribes (known as the Ridda wars, or "Wars of Apostasy"), Abu Bakr attacked the Byzantine Empire. On his death in 634, he was succeeded by Umar as caliph, followed by Uthman ibn al-Affan and Ali ibn Abi Talib. The period of these first four caliphs is known as *al-khulafā' ar-rāshidūn (R.A)*: the Rashidun or "rightly guided" Caliphate. Under the Rashidun Caliphs, and, from 661, their Umayyad successors, the Arabs rapidly expanded the territory under Muslim control outside of Arabia. In a matter of decades Muslim armies decisively defeated the Byzantine army and destroyed the Persian Empire, conquering huge swathes of territory from the Iberian peninsula to India. The political focus of the Muslim world then shifted to the newly conquered territories.[3][4]

Nevertheless, Mecca and Medina remained the spiritually most important places in the Muslim world. The Qu'ran requires every able-bodied Muslim who can afford it, as one of the five pillars of Islam, to make a pilgrimage, or Hajj, to Mecca during the Islamic month of Dhu al-Hijjah at least once in his or her lifetime.[5] The Masjid al-Haram (the Grand Mosque) in Mecca is the location of the Kaaba, Islam's holiest site, and the Masjid al-Nabawi (the Prophet's Mosque) in Medina is the location of Muhammad tomb; as a result, from the 7th century, Mecca and Medina became the pilgrimage destinations for large numbers of Muslims from across the Islamic world.[6]

The Middle Ages

Despite its spiritual importance, in political terms Arabia soon became a peripheral region of the Islamic world, in which the most important medieval Islamic states were based at various times in such far away cities as Damascus, Baghdad, and Cairo. Most of what was to become Saudi Arabia reverted to traditional tribal rule soon after the initial Muslim conquests, and remained a shifting patchwork of tribes and tribal emirates and confederations of varying durability.[7][8]

However, from the 10th century (and, in fact, until the 20th century) the Hashemite Sharifs of Mecca maintained

a state in the most developed part of the region, the Hejaz. Their domain originally comprised only the holy cities of Mecca and Medina but in the 13th century it was extended to include the rest of the Hejaz. Although, the Sharifs exercised at most times independent authority in the Hejaz, they were usually subject to the suzerainty of one of the major Islamic empires of the time. In the Middle Ages, these included the Abbasids of Baghdad, and the Fatimids, Ayyubids and Mamluks of Egypt.[7]

The Ottoman Era

See also: Ottoman Empire



The Ottoman Empire in 1914, including nominal and vassal Ottoman territories – the position in Arabia had largely been the same for the previous 400 years

Beginning with Selim I's acquisition of Medina and Mecca in 1517, the Ottomans, in the 16th century, added to their Empire the Hejaz and Asir regions along the Red Sea and the Al Hasa region on the Persian Gulf coast, these being the most populous parts of what was to become Saudi Arabia. They also laid claim to the interior, although this remained a rather nominal suzerainty. The degree of control over these lands varied over the next four centuries with the fluctuating strength or weakness of the Empire's central authority. In the Hejaz, the Sharifs of Mecca were largely left in control of their territory (although there would often be an Ottoman governor and garrison in Mecca). On the eastern side of the country, the Ottomans lost control of the Al Hasa region to Arab tribes in the 17th century but regained it again in the 19th century. Throughout the period, the interior remained under the rule of a large number of petty tribal rulers in much the same way as it had in previous centuries.[9]

18th century: the rise of Wahhabism and the first Saudi "state"

See also: First Saudi State, Second Saudi State, Al Rashid, and Wahhabi



First Saudi State (1744–1818)

The emergence of the Saudi dynasty began in central Arabia in 1744. In that year, Muhammad ibn Saud, the tribal ruler of the town of Ad-Dir'iyyah near Riyadh, joined forces with the religious leader Muhammad ibn Abd-al-Wahhab,[10] the founder of the Wahhabi movement – a radical form of Islam.[11] This alliance formed in the 18th century provided the idealogical impetus to Saudi expansion and remains the basis of Saudi Arabian dynastic rule today. Over the next 150 years, the fortunes of the Saud family rose and fell several times as Saudi rulers contended with Egypt, the Ottoman Empire, and other Arabian families for control of the peninsula.[1][7]

The first 'Saudi State' was established in 1744 in the area around Riyadh and briefly controlled most of the present-day territory of Saudi Arabia through conquests made between 1786 and 1816; these included Mecca and Medina.[12] Concerned at the growing power of the Saudis, the Ottoman Sultan, Mustafa IV, instructed his viceroy in Egypt, Mohammed Ali Pasha, to reconquer the area. Ali sent his sons Tusun Pasha and Ibrahim Pasha who were eventually successful in routing the Saudi forces in 1818 and destroyed the power of the Al Saud.[1][7]

19th century: tribal warfare and Ottoman domination



Al-Rashid rule at its greatest extent

The Al Saud returned to power in 1824 but their area of control was mainly restricted to the Saudi heartland of the Nejd region, known as the second 'Saudi State'. However, their rule in Nejd was soon contested by new rivals, the Al Rashid of Ha'il. Throughout the rest of the 19th century, the Al Saud and the Al Rashid fought for control of the interior of what was to become Saudi Arabia. By 1891, the Al Saud were conclusively defeated by the Al Rashid, who drove the Saudis into exile in Kuwait.[1][7][7][13]


Second Saudi State (1824–1891) at its greatest extent

Meanwhile, in the Hejaz, following the defeat of the first Saudi State, the Egyptians continued to occupy the area until 1840. After they left, the Sharifs of Mecca reasserted their authority, albeit with the presence of an Ottoman governor and garrison.[7]

The Arab Revolt (1916–1918)

Main article: Arab Revolt

By the early 20th century, the Ottoman Empire continued to control or have suzerainty (albeit nominal) over most of the peninsula. Subject to this suzerainty, Arabia was ruled by a patchwork of tribal rulers (including the Al Saud who had returned from exile in 1902 – see below) with the Sharif of Mecca having pre-eminence and ruling the Hejaz.[7][9][14]


Soldiers in the Arab Army during the Arab Revolt of 1916–1918, carrying the Flag of the Arab Revolt and pictured in the Arabian Desert.

In 1916, with the encouragement and support of Britain and France[15] (which were fighting the Ottomans in the First World War), the Sharif of Mecca, Hussein bin Ali, led a pan-Arab revolt against the Ottoman Empire with the aim of securing Arab independence and creating a single unified Arab state spanning the Arab territories from Aleppo in Syria to Aden in Yemen. The Arab army comprised bedouin and others from across the peninsula, but not the Al Saud and their allied tribes who did not participate in the revolt partly because of a long-standing rivalry with the Sharifs of Mecca and partly because their priority was to defeat the Al Rashid for control of the interior. Nevertheless, the revolt played a part in the Middle-Eastern Front and tied down thousands of Ottoman troops thereby contributing to the Ottomans' First World War defeat in 1918.[7][16]

However, with the subsequent partitioning of the Ottoman Empire, the British and French reneged on promises to Hussein to support a pan-Arab state. Although Hussein was acknowledged as King of the Hejaz, Britain later shifted support to the Al Saud, leaving him diplomatically and militarily isolated. The revolt, therefore, failed in its objective to create a pan-Arab state but Arabia was freed from Ottoman suzerainty and control.[16]

Abdul Aziz and the foundation of Saudi Arabia

Main article: Unification of Saudi Arabia



Arabia about 1923. Expandable map: Abdul Aziz's domain is in blue with dates of conquest. The Kingdom of the Hejaz, conquered in 1925, is in light green. (The other Hashemite kingdoms of Iraq and Transjordan are also in shades of green)

In 1902, Abdul-Aziz bin Saud, leader of the Al Saud, returned from exile in Kuwait (see above) to resume the conflict with the Al Rashid, and seized Riyadh – the first of a series of conquests ultimately leading to the creation of the modern state of Saudi Arabia in 1932. The main weapon for achieving these conquests was the Ikhwan, the Wahhabist-Bedouin tribal army led by Sultan Bin Najad Al Otaibi and Faisal al-Dwaish.[13][17][18]



The founder of modern Saudi Arabia, King Abdul Aziz, converses with President Franklin Delano Roosevelt on board a ship returning from the Yalta Conference in 1945.

By 1906, Abdul-Aziz had driven the Al Rashid out of Nejd and the Ottomans recognized him as their client in Nejd. His next major acquisition was Al-Hasa, which he took from the Ottomans in 1913 bringing him control of the Persian Gulf coast and what would become Saudi Arabia's vast oil reserves. He avoided involvement in the Arab Revolt, having acknowledged Ottoman suzerainty in 1914, and instead continued his struggle with the Al Rashid in northern Arabia. In 1920, the Ikhwan's attention turned to the south-west, when they seized Asir, the region between the Hejaz and Yemen. In the following year, Abdul-Aziz finally defeated the Al Rashid and annexed all northern Arabia.[8][13]

Prior to 1923, Abdul Aziz had not risked invading the Hejaz because Hussein bin Ali, King of the Hejaz, was supported by Britain. However, in that year, the British withdrew their support and the Ikhwan attacked the Hejaz, completing its conquest by the end of 1925. On January 10, 1926 Abdul-Aziz declared himself King of the Hejaz and, then, on January 27, 1927 he took the title King of Nejd (his previous title was Sultan). By the Treaty of Jeddah, signed on May 20, 1927, the United Kingdom recognized the independence of Abdul-Aziz's realm (then known as the Kingdom of Hejaz and Nejd).[8][13]

After the conquest of the Hejaz, the Ikhwan leaders wanted to continue the expansion of the Wahhabist realm into the British protectorates of Transjordan, Iraq and Kuwait. Abdul-Aziz, however, refused to agree to this, recognizing the danger of a direct conflict with the British. The Ikhwan therefore revolted but were defeated in the Battle of Sabilla in 1930,and the Ikhwan leadership were massacred.[18]

In 1932, the two kingdoms of the Hejaz and Nejd were united as the 'Kingdom of Saudi Arabia'.[13][17]

Boundaries with Jordan, Iraq, and Kuwait were established by a series of treaties negotiated in the 1920s, with two "neutral zones" created, one with Iraq and the other with Kuwait. The country's southern boundary with Yemen was partially defined by the 1934 Treaty of Ta'if, which ended a brief border war between the two states.[19]

Abdul Aziz's military and political successes were not mirrored economically until vast reserves of oil were discovered in 1938 in the Al-Hasa region along the Persian Gulf coast. Development began in 1941 and by 1949 production was in full swing.

Abdul Aziz died in 1953. Only sons of Abdul Aziz have, to date, ascended the Saudi throne. The number of children that he fathered is unknown, but it is believed that he had 22 wives and 37 sons, of whom five have become King.[20] Prior to his death, he chose Saud as his immediate successor.

Discovery of Oil

Abdul Aziz's military and political successes were not mirrored economically until vast reserves of oil were discovered in 1938 in the Al-Hasa region along the Persian Gulf coast. Prior to the discovery of oil, the main source of income for the government depended on the pilgrimage to Makkah, which was around 100,000 people per year in the late 1920s.

In the 1930s, Abdul Aziz granted an economic concession to the Standard Oil Company of California to drill for oil in his kingdom, after oil was found in nearby Bahrain in 1932. Oil wells were constructed in Dhahran in the late 1930s, and by 1939, the kingdom began to export oil.

During and after World War Two, production of Saudi oil expanded, with much of the oil being sold to the Allies. Aramco (the Arabian American Oil Company) built an underwater pipeline to Bahrain to help increase oil flow in 1945. Between 1939 and 1953, oil revenues from Saudi Arabia increased from $7 million to over $200 million, and the kingdom began to be entirely dependent on oil income.[21]

Abdul Aziz's Successors



King Saud 1953-1964



King Faisal 1964-1975



King Khalid 1975-1982





King Fahd 1982-2005	King Abdullah 2005-

The reigns of Saud & Faisal: 1953-1975

King Saud succeeded to the throne on his father's death in 1953. Oil provided Saudi Arabia with economic prosperity and a great deal of political leverage in the international community. The sudden wealth from increased production was a mixed blessing. Cultural life rapidly developed, primarily in the Hejaz, which was the center for newspapers and radio, but the large influx of foreigners increased the pre-existing propensity for xenophobia. At the same time, the government became increasingly wasteful and lavish. Despite the new wealth, extravagant spending led to governmental deficits and foreign borrowing in the 1950s.[8][22][23]

However, by the early 1960s an intense rivalry between the King and his half-brother, Prince Faisal emerged, fueled by doubts in the royal family over Saud's competence. As a consequence, Saud was deposed in favor of Faisal in 1964.[8]

The mid-1960s saw external pressures generated by Saudi-Egyptian differences over Yemen. When civil war broke out in 1962 between Yemeni royalists and republicans, Egyptian forces entered Yemen to support the new republican government, while Saudi Arabia backed the royalists. Tensions subsided only after 1967, when Egypt withdrew its troops from Yemen. Saudi forces did not participate in the Six-Day (Arab-Israeli) War of June 1967, but the government later provided annual subsidies to Egypt, Jordan, and Syria to support their economies.[8][24]

In 1965 there was an exchange of territories between Saudi Arabia and Jordan in which Jordan gave up a relatively large area of inland desert in return for a small piece of seashore near Aqaba.The Saudi-Kuwaiti neutral zone was administratively partitioned in 1971, with each state continuing to share the petroleum resources of the former zone equally.[8]



Saudi Aramco headquarters complex. The Saudi government took a 25% share in Aramco in 1973, increased it to 60% in 1974, and fully nationalized it in 1980

The Saudi economy and infrastructure was developed with help from abroad, particularly from the United States, creating strong links between the two dissimilar countries, and considerable and problematic American presence in the Kingdom. The Saudi petroleum industry under the company of ARAMCO was built by American petroleum companies, U.S. construction companies such as Bechtel built much of the country's infrastruture, Trans World Airlines, built the Saudi passenger air service; the Ford Foundation modernized Saudi government; the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers built the country's television and broadcast facilities and oversaw the development of its defense industry.[25]

During the 1973 Arab-Israeli war, Saudi Arabia participated in the Arab oil boycott of the United States and Netherlands. A member of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), Saudi Arabia had joined other member countries in moderate oil price increases beginning in 1971. After the 1973 war, the price of oil rose substantially, dramatically increasing Saudi Arabia's wealth and political influence.[8]

Faisal was assassinated in 1975 by his nephew, Prince Faisal bin Musa'id.[26]

Khalid's reign: 1975-1982



The surviving insurgents of the seizure of the Grand Mosque,1979 under custody of Saudi authorities. c. 1980.

Faisal was succeeded by his half-brother King Khalid during whose reign economic and social development continued at an extremely rapid rate, revolutionizing the infrastructure and educational system of the country; in foreign policy, close ties with the US were developed. In 1979, two events occurred which the Al Saud perceived as threatening the regime, and had a long-term influence on Saudi foreign and domestic policy. The first was the Iranian Islamic revolution. It was feared that the country's Shi'ite minority in the Eastern Province (which is also the location of the oil fields) – might rebel under the influence of their Iranian co-religionists. In fact there were several anti-government riots in the region in 1979 and 1980. The second event, was the seizure of the Grand Mosque in Mecca by Islamist extremists. The militants involved were in part angered by what they considered to be the corruption and un-Islamic nature of the Saudi regime.[8][22][23][27]

Part of the response of the royal family was to enforce a much stricter observance of Islamic and traditional Saudi norms in the country (for example, the closure of cinemas) and to give the Ulema a greater role in government. Neither entirely succeeded as Islamism continued to grow in strength.[8][22][23][27] King Khalid empowered Crown Prince Fahd to oversee many aspects of the government's international and domestic affairs. Economic development continued rapidly under King Khalid, and the kingdom assumed a more influential role in regional politics and international economic and financial matters.[8]

During the 1970s and 1980s, more than 45,000 Saudi students per year went to the United States, while more than 200,000 Americans have lived and worked in the Kingdom since the discovery of oil.[25]

A tentative agreement on the partition of the Saudi-Iraqi neutral zone was reached in 1981. The governments finalized the partition in 1983.[8]

King Khalid died in June 1982.[8]

Fahd's reign: 1982-2005

Khalid was succeeded by his brother King Fahd in 1982, who maintained Saudi Arabia’s foreign policy of close cooperation with the United States and increased purchases of sophisticated military equipment from the United States and Britain. In the 1970s and ’80s, the country had become the largest oil producer in the world. Oil revenues were crucial to Saudi society as its economy was changed by the extraordinary wealth it generated and which was channeled through the government. Urbanization, mass public education, the presence of numerous foreign workers, and access to new media all affected Saudi values. While society changed profoundly, political processes did not. Real power continued to be held almost exclusively by the royal family, leading to disaffection with many Saudis who began to look for wider participation in government.[8]

Following the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in 1990 Saudi Arabia joined the anti-Iraq Coalition and King Fahd, fearing an attack from Iraq, invited American and Coalition soldiers to be stationed in Saudi Arabia. Saudi troops and aircraft took part in the subsequent military operations. However, allowing Coalition forces to be based in the country proved to be one of the issues that has led to an increase in Islamic terrorism in Saudi Arabia, as well as Islamic terrorist attacks in Western countries by Saudi nationals – the 9/11 attacks in New York being the most

prominent example.[8][28]



A column of Saudi M-113 armored personnel carriers taking part in Operation Desert Storm, 1991

Islamism was not the only source of hostility to the regime. Although now extremely wealthy, the country's economy was near stagnant, which, combined with a growth in unemployment, contributed to disquiet in the country, and was reflected in a subsequent rise in civil unrest, and discontent with the royal family. In response, a number of limited 'reforms' were initiated (such as the Basic Law). However, the royal family's dilemma was to respond to dissent while making as few actual changes in the status quo as possible. Fahd made it clear that he did not have democracy in mind: "A system based on elections is not consistent with our Islamic creed, which [approves of] government by consultation [shūrā]."[8]

In 1995, Fahd suffered a debilitating stroke and the Crown Prince, Prince Abdullah assumed day-to-day responsibility for the government, albeit his authority was hindered by conflict with Fahd's full brothers, the Sudairi 'clan'. Abdullah continued the policy of mild reform and greater openness, but in addition, adopted a foreign policy distancing the kingdom from the US. In 2003, Saudi Arabia refused to support the US and its allies in the invasion of Iraq.[8] However, terrorist activity increased dramatically in 2003, with the Riyadh compound bombings and other attacks, which prompted the government to take much more stringent action against terrorism.[27]



Building #131 after the Khobar Towers bombing, which was the second major terrorist attack in Saudi Arabia, 1996

Abdullah's reign: 2005 to the present

In 2005, King Fahd died and his half-brother, Abdullah ascended to the throne. The king subsequently introduced a new program of moderate reform. The country's continued reliance on oil revenue was of particular concern, and among the economic reforms he introduced were limited deregulation, foreign investment, and privatization.

He has taken much more vigorous action to deal with the origins of Islamic terrorism, and has ordered the use of force for the first time by the security services against some extremists. In February 2009, Abdullah introduced a series of governmental changes to the judiciary, armed forces, and various ministries to modernize these institutions. Notable among his decisions were the replacement of senior individuals within the judiciary and the Mutaween (religious police) with more moderate candidates and the appointment of the country's first female deputy minister.[8][29]

See also

- European exploration of Arabia
- Hejaz
- History of Asia
- History of the Middle East
- Kindah
- List of Kings of Saudi Arabia
- Nejd
- Politics of Saudi Arabia
- Saudi Arabia

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King of Saudi Arabia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **King of Saudi Arabia** is Saudi Arabia's head of state and absolute monarch. He serves as the head of the Saudi monarchy — House of Saud. The King is called the **Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques** (خادم الحرمين الشريفين). The title, which signifies Saudi Arabia's jurisdiction over the mosques of Masjid al Haram in Mecca and Masjid al-Nabawi in Medina, replaced His Majesty (صاحب الجلالة) in 1986.

King of Saudi Arabia
ملك المملكة العربية السعودية

MONARCHY



Royal Standard



Incumbent:
Abdullah

Style:	The Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques
Heir apparent:	Nayef
First monarch:	Abdul-Aziz
Formation:	September 23, 1932
Residence:	Riyadh Qasr Malik Abdullah bin Abdulaziz, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

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History

Further information: History of Saudi Arabia

King Abdul-Aziz began conquering today's Saudi Arabia in 1902, by restoring his family as emirs of Riyadh. He then proceeded to conquer first the Nejd (1922) and then the Hejaz (1925). He progressed from Sultan of Nejd, to King of Hejaz and Nejd, and finally to King of Saudi Arabia in 1932.

Succession

Further information: Line of succession to the Saudi Arabian throne

The other kings have all been his sons and all likely immediate successors to the reigning King Abdullah will be from his progeny. Sons of Ibn Saud are considered to have primary claim on the Kingship of Saudi Arabia. This makes the Saudi Monarchy quite distinct from Western monarchies, which usually feature large, clearly defined royal families and orders of succession.

Legal position

Saudi Arabia is ruled by Islamic law and purports to be an Islamic state, but many Muslims see a hereditary monarchy as being a discouraged system of government in Islam.[1]

Other functions

The King of Saudi Arabia is also considered the Head of the House of Saud and Prime Minister. The Crown Prince is also the "Deputy Prime Minister." The kings after Faisal have named a "second Deputy Prime Minister" as the subsequent heir after the Crown Prince. Former Crown Prince of Saudi Arabia and Abdullah's half-brother, Prince Sultan died on 22 October, 2011.The former Second Deputy Minster, and now Crown Prince from 27 October, 2011 is Prince Nayef.

Kings of Saudi Arabia (1932-Present)

House of Saud

Image	Name	Date of birth	King From	King Until	Date of death
	**Abdul-Aziz (Ibn Saud)**	15 January 1876	22 September 1932[*citation needed*]	9 November 1953	
	**Saud**	12 January 1902	9 November 1953	2 November 1964 (abdicated)	23 February 1969
	**Faisal**	1906	2 November 1964	25 March 1975 (assassinated)	
	**Khalid**	1912	25 March 1975	13 June 1982	

	**Fahd**	16 March 1921	13 June 1982	1 August 2005
	**Abdullah**	1 August 1924	1 August 2005	current

See also

- Line of succession to the Saudi Arabian throne

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Abdullah of Saudi Arabia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Abdullah bin Abdul-Aziz Al Saud, Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques, (Arabic: عبد الله بن عبد العزيز آل سعود *'Abd ullāh ibn 'Abd al-'Azīz Āl Su'ūd*) (born August 1, 1923)[2][3][4] is the King of Saudi Arabia. He succeeded to the throne on 1 August 2005 upon the death of his half-brother, King Fahd. When Crown Prince, he governed Saudi Arabia as regent from 1998 to 2005. He was Commander of the Saudi Arabian National Guard from 1962 to November 2010, and is one of the world's wealthiest royals.[5]

King Abdullah bin Abdul-Aziz Al Saud
عبد الله بن عبد العزيز آل سعود

Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques



King of Saudi Arabia

Reign	August 1, 2005
Bayaa	August 2, 2005
Predecessor	Fahd
Heir apparent	Nayef

5th Commander of the Saudi National Guard

In Office	January 26, 1963 – November 16, 2010
Predecessor	Saad bin Saud bin Abdul-Aziz Al-Saud
Successor	Mutaib bin Abdullah

Full name

Abdullah bin Abdul-Aziz bin Abdul-Rahman bin Faisal bin Turki bin Abdullah bin Muhammad bin Saud

House	House of Saud
Father	Abdul-Aziz
Mother	Fahda bint Asi Al Shuraim[1]
Born	August 1, 1923 Riyadh, Sultanate of Nejd
Religion	Wahhabi aka Salafi

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Second Deputy Prime Minister



Abdullah with US Vice President Dan Quayle

King Khalid appointed Abdullah as Second Deputy Prime Minister, which is second in line of succession to the Saudi throne. However, Abdullah's appointment caused friction in the House of Saud.[4] Fahd and the Sudairi Seven supported the appointment of their own full brother, Sultan.[4] Abdullah was pressured to concede control of SANG in return for his appointment as Second Deputy Prime Minister. In August 1977, this caused a debate between hundreds of princes in Riyadh.[4] Abdullah did not concede authority of SANG because he feared that would weaken his authority.[4]

Crown Prince

In May 1982, when Fahd became King, Abdullah became Crown Prince the same day. He maintained his position as head of the armed forces.

When Fahd was incapacitated by a major stroke in 1995,[6] Abdullah acted as *de facto* regent ruler of Saudi Arabia.

In August 2001, he ordered Ambassador Bandar bin Sultan to return to Washington. This reportedly occurred after Abdullah witnessed a brutality between an Israeli soldier and a Palestinian woman.[7] He later also condemned Israel for attacking families of accused suspects.[7]



Abdullah with US President George W. Bush

On the second anniversary of the September 11 attacks on the United States, the then-prince wrote a letter to U.S. President George W. Bush, which ended with:

> "God Almighty, in His wisdom, tests the faithful by allowing such calamities to happen. But He, in His mercy, also provides us with the will and determination, generated by faith, to enable us to transform such tragedies into great achievements, and crises that seem debilitating are transformed into opportunities for the advancement of humanity. I only hope that, with your cooperation and leadership, a new world will emerge out of the rubble of the World Trade Center: a world that is blessed by the virtues of freedom, peace, prosperity and harmony."[8]

King of Saudi Arabia



Royal Standard of the King.

Abdullah succeeded to the throne upon the death of his half-brother King Fahd. He was formally enthroned on August 3, 2005. At age 87, he is one of the world's oldest reigning monarchs. He has topped the 500 Most Influential Muslims list for two consecutive years in 2009 and 2010.[9][10]

Domestic affairs

He has implemented many reform measures. He has re-shuffled the Ministry of Education's leadership in February 2009 by bringing in the King's pro-reform son-in-law as the new minister. He also at the same time appointed Nora bint Abdullah al-Fayez, a US-educated former teacher, as deputy education minister in charge of a new department for female students.[11]

He has done a top-to-bottom restructuring of the country's courts to introduce, among other things, review of judicial decisions and more professional training for Shari'a judges. He has been responsible for the creation of a new investment promotion agency to overhaul the once-convoluted process of starting a business in Saudi Arabia. He has created a regulatory body for capital markets. He has promoted the construction of the King Abdullah University for Science and Technology (the country's new flagship and controversially-coed institution for advanced scientific research). He has done a substantial budgetary investment in educating the workforce for future jobs. The Saudi government is also encouraging the development of non-hydrocarbon sectors in which the Kingdom has a comparative advantage, including mining, solar energy, and religious tourism. The Kingdom's 2010

budget reflects these priorities—about 25 percent is devoted to education alone—and amounts to a significant economic stimulus package.[12][13]

In 2005, he implemented a government scholarship program to send young Saudi men and women to Western universities for undergraduate and postgraduate studies. The program offers funds for tuition and living expenses up to four years. It is estimated that more than 70,000 students have studied abroad in more than 25 countries. United States, England, and Australia are the top three destinations mostly aimed for by the young Saudi students. There are now more than 22,000 Saudi students studying in the US, exceeding pre-9/11 levels. Public health engagement has included breast cancer awareness and CDC cooperation to set up an advanced epidemic screening network that protected this year's 3 million Hajj pilgrims.[12][14]

The response of his administration to homegrown terrorism has been a series of crackdowns including raids by security forces, arrests, torture[15] and public beheadings. He has vowed to fight terrorist ideologies within the country. He has made the protection of Saudi Arabia's critical infrastructure a top security priority.[16]


King Abdullah with Russian President Vladimir Putin on February 11, 2007.

His strategy against terrorism has been two-pronged: he has attacked the roots of the extremism that fed Al-Qaida through education and judicial reforms to weaken the influence of the most reactionary elements of Saudi Arabia's religious establishment. He is also promoting economic diversification. He decreed in August 2010 that only officially approved religious scholars associated with the Senior Council of Ulema would be allowed to issue fatwas. Similar decrees since 2005 were previously seldom enforced. Individual fatwas relating to personal matters were exempt from the royal decree. The decree also instructed the Grand Mufti to identify eligible scholars.[17]

In light of the 2010–2011 Middle East and North Africa protests, Abdullah has laid down a $37-billion programme of new spending including new jobless benefits, education and housing subsidies, debt write-offs, and a new sports channel. There was also a pledged to spend a total of $400bn by the end of 2014 to improve education, health care and the kingdom's infrastructure.[18] Saudi police arrested 100 Shiite protesters who complained of government discrimination.[19] In September, 2011, the king announced women's right to vote in the 2015 municipal council elections, a first significant reform step in the country since the protests. He also stated that women would become eligible to take part in the unelected *shura*.[20][21]

In January 2012 King Abdullah dismissed the head of Saudi Arabia's powerful religious police, replacing him with a more moderate cleric, state news agency SPA reported without giving reasons. Abdullatif Abdel Aziz al-Sheikh, was named in place of Sheikh Abdulaziz al-Humain, to head the Commission for the Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice. King Abdullah, appointed Humain in 2009 to head the "mutaween" which ensures the strict application of the country's ultra-conservative version of Islam, as a step towards reforming it. Humain hired consultants to restructure the organisation, met local human rights groups and consulted professional image-builders in a broad public relations campaign. Under his leadership the commission also investigated and punished some out-of-control officers for misbehaviour.[22]

Interfaith dialogue

In November 2007, he visited Pope Benedict XVI in the Apostolic Palace. He is the first Saudi monarch to visit the Pope.[23]

In March 2008, he called for a "brotherly and sincere dialogue between believers from all religions."[24]

In June 2008, he held a conference at Mecca to urge Muslim leaders to speak with one voice with Jewish and Christian leaders.[25] He discussed and took approval of the Saudi Islamic scholars and the world's renowned Islamic scholars to hold the interfaith dialogue. In the same month, Saudi Arabia and Spain agreed to hold the interfaith dialogue in Spain.[26] The historic conference finally took place in Madrid in July 2008 where religious leaders of different faiths participated.[27]

He had never earlier made any overtures for dialogue with eastern religious leaders such as Hindus and Buddhists. The Mecca conference discussed an important paper on the dialogue with the followers of monotheistic religions highlighting the monotheistic religions of southeast Asia including Sikhism in the third axis of the fourth meeting titled "With Whom We Talk" presented by Sheikh Badrul Hasan Al Qasimi. The session was chaired by Dr. Ezz Eddin Ibrahim, Adviser to the President of the United Arab Emirates for Culture. The session also discussed a paper presented on coordination among Islamic institutions on Dialogue by Dr. Abdullah bin Omar Nassif, Secretary General of the World Islamic Council for Preaching and Relief and a paper on dialogue with divine messages, presented by Professor Mohammad Sammak – Secretary General of the Islamic Spiritual Summit in Lebanon.

On November 2008, he and his government were responsible for the 'Peace of Culture' which took place at the United Nations General Assembly. It brought together Muslim and non-Muslim nations to eradicate the preconception of Islam and Terrorism. It brought together leaders including former Prime Minister of the United Kingdom Tony Blair, Israeli President Shimon Peres, former U.S. President George W. Bush and King Abdullah II of Jordan.

Arab nationalism

He has called for the establishment of an Arab common market. His foreign minister stated the Arab Customs Union would be ready by 2015 and by 2017 the common market would also be in place. There have been intensive efforts to link Arab countries with a railway system and an electricity power grid. Work on the power grid project has started in some Arab countries.[28]

United States


Abdullah visits the United States in April 2005

In October 1976, as Prince Abdullah was being trained for greater responsibility in Riyadh, he was sent to the United States to meet with President Gerald Ford. He again traveled to the United States as Crown Prince in October 1987, meeting Vice President George H. W. Bush. In September 1998, Crown Prince Abdullah made a state visit to the United States to meet in Washington, D.C. with President Bill Clinton. In September 2000, he attended millennium celebrations at the United Nations in New York City. In April 2002, Crown Prince Abdullah made a state visit to the United States with President George W. Bush and he returned again in April 2005 with Bush. In April 2009, at a summit for world leaders U.S. President Barack Obama met him. In June 2009, Abdullah hosted President Obama in Saudi Arabia. In turn, Obama hosted Abdullah at the White House in the same month.

He has shown great support for Obama's presidency. "Thank God for bringing Obama to the presidency," he said, adding that Obama's election created "great hope" in the Muslim world.[29] He stated, "We (the U.S. and Saudi Arabia) spilled blood together" in Kuwait and Iraq and Saudi Arabia valued this tremendously and friendship can be a difficult issue that requires work but the U.S. and Saudi Arabia have done it for 70 years over three generations. "Our disagreements don't cut to the bone," he stated.[30] He was the leading gift-giver to the U.S. president and his office in his first two years in office, his gifts totaling more than $300,000. A ruby and diamond jewelry set, given by the king and accepted by Michelle Obama on behalf of the United States, was worth $132,000.[31] However, according to federal law, gifts of such nature and value are accepted "on behalf of the United States" and are considered property of the U.S. government.

He said that "it was a mistake" to limit access of Saudi citizens to the United States.[*citation needed*]

Iraq

The Bush Administration ignored advice from him and Saudi foreign minister Saud Al Faisal against invading Iraq.[16] However, other sources say that many Arab governments were only nominally opposed to the Iraq invasion because of popular hostility.[32] Before becoming king, Abdullah was thought to be completely against the U.S. invasion of Iraq; this, however, was not the case. Riyadh provided essential support to the United States during the war and proved that "necessity does lead to some accommodations from time to time." [33] The King expressed a complete lack of trust in Prime Minister Nouri al-Maliki and held out little hope for improved Saudi-Iraqi relations as long as al-Maliki remains in office.[30] King Abdullah told an Iraqi official about Nouri al-Maliki, "You and Iraq are in my heart, but that man is not." [34]

Iran

In April 2008, he told US ambassador to Iraq Ryan Crocker and US General David Petraeus to "cut off the head of the snake". Saudi Arabia's ambassador to Washington, Adel al-Jubeir recalled the King's frequent exhortations to the US to attack Iran and to put an end to its nuclear weapons program." [35] Abdullah asserted that Iran is trying to set up Hezbollah-like organizations in African countries, observing that the Iranians don't think they are doing anything wrong and don't recognize their mistakes. He said the Iranians "launch missiles with the hope of putting fear in people and the world." The King described his conversation with Iranian Foreign Minister Mottaki as "a heated exchange, frankly discussing Iran's interference in Arab affairs." When challenged by the King on Iranian meddling in Hamas affairs, Mottaki apparently protested that "these are Muslims." "No, Arabs" countered the King, "You as Persians have no business meddling in Arab matters." Abdullah said he would favor Rafsanjani in an Iranian election.[29][36]

He told General Jones that Iranian internal turmoil presented an opportunity to weaken the regime—which he encouraged—but he also urged that this be done covertly and stressed that public statements in support of the reformers were counterproductive. The King assessed that sanctions could help weaken the government, but only if they are strong and sustained.[12]

In 2006, Iranian Supreme Leader Khamenei had sent his adviser Ali Akbar Velayati with a letter asking for Abdullah's agreement to establish a formal back channel for communication between the two leaders. Abdullah said he had agreed, and the channel was established with Velayati and Saud Al-Faisal as the points of contact. In the years since, the King noted, the channel had never been used.[36]

Guantánamo Bay

In December 2010, leaked diplomatic cables published by WikiLeaks revealed that Abdullah wanted all detainees released from the Guantanamo Bay detention camp to be tracked through an implanted microchip, in a similar way to race horses. The King made the private suggestion during a meeting in Riyadh in March 2009 with John O. Brennan, the White House counter-terrorism adviser. Brennan replied that "horses don't have good lawyers" and that such a proposal would "face legal hurdles" in the United States. In the same cables it was revealed that Abdullah also privately urged the United States to attack Iran to destroy its nuclear weapons program.[30][37]

China

Since Abdullah's visit to Beijing in January 2006, the Saudi-Chinese relationship has focused predominantly on energy and trade. The king's visit was the first by a Saudi head of state to China since the two countries established diplomatic relations in 1990. [38][39] Bilateral trade with China has more than tripled, and China will soon be Saudi Arabia's largest importer. Saudi Arabia has also committed significant investments in China, including the $8 billion Fujian refinery. Based on the cablegate wikileaks report: The King has told the Chinese that it is willing to effectively trade a guaranteed oil supply in return for Chinese pressure on Iran not to develop nuclear weapons.[12]

Foreign relations with other nations

In a November 2009, the King was received by Nicolas Sarkozy who committed various diplomatic faux pas. The diplomatic relationship Jacques Chirac had with Saudi Arabia was not evident with Sarkozy.[40][40] In January 2011, the Kingdom granted asylum to the ousted Tunisian leader, Zine El-Abidine Ben Ali, under conditions of no further political involvement.[28]

Saudi Arabia, by the endorsement of the Gulf Cooperation Council, sent 1200 troops to Bahrain to protect industrial facilities which resulted in a strained relations with the United States. It should be mentioned that the forces sent were not Saudi forces but rather a coalition from a multitude of Arab Gulf countries. The military personnel sent were part of the Peninsula Shield forces who are stationed in Saudi Arabia but not affiliated with one country alone.[19][41][42][43]

According to leaked cables, he was more receptive than Crown Prince Sultan, to Yemeni President Saleh.[44]

He has supported renewed diplomatic relations with the Syrian government and Bashar al-Assad. Assad attended the opening of King Abdullah University of Science and Technology in October 2009. In August, 2011, he recalled the Saudi Ambassador from Damascus due to the political unrest in Syria.

In December 2011 Abdullah called on leaders of the Gulf Cooperation Council to strengthen their alliance into a united “single entity” as they confront threats to national security. “I ask you today to move from a stage of cooperation to a stage of union in a single entity,” Abdullah said at the opening session of a GCC meeting in Riyadh in comments aired on Saudi state television. “No doubt, you all know we are targeted in our security and stability.”[45]

Criticism

On February 16, 2003, Parade Magazine's David Wallechinsky rated King Fahd and Crown Prince Abdullah as the second worst dictator in the world.[46] Most of this criticism stems from the fact that most of his citizens live under a strict Wahhabist interpretation of Sharia law, which mandates the amputation of hands as a punishment for theft and floggings for crimes like drunkenness.[47] Execution by public beheading is common for murder, rape, drug trafficking, and witchcraft, and Abdullah's policies towards the rights of women have also been criticized. In a slight rebuff to accusations of human rights violations, Saudi inmates of Najran sent the King well-wishes from jail and wished him a speedy recovery.[48]

Abdullah has also been criticized for his policies on religious freedom, which is reportedly non-existent, and the Saudi government allegedly has arrested Shiite pilgrims on the Hajj.[47] On January 24, 2007, Human Rights Watch sent an open letter to King Abdullah asking him to cease religious persecution of the Ahmadi faith in Saudi Arabia. Two letters were sent in November 2006 and February 2007 asking him to remove the travel ban on critics of the Saudi government.[49] Human Rights Watch has not yet indicated whether they have received any response to these letters.

On October 30, 2007, during a state visit to the United Kingdom, Abdullah was greeted by protesters accusing him of being a "murderer" and a "torturer". Concerns were raised in the UK about the treatment of women and homosexuals by the Saudi kingdom. Concerns were also raised over alleged bribes involving arms deals between Saudi Arabia and the UK.[50]

Succession to the throne

Further information: Line of succession to the Saudi Arabian throne

King Abdullah's half brother Crown Prince Sultan was his heir-apparent until his death on October 22, 2011. The current Crown Prince is Sultan's full brother, Prince Nayef[51]

In 2006, Abdullah set up the Allegiance Council, a body that is composed of the sons and grandsons of Saudi Arabia's founder, King Abdul-Aziz, to vote by a secret ballot to choose future kings and crown princes. The council's mandate was not to have started until after the reigns of both Abdullah and Sultan were over. It was not clear, what was to happen, when Sultan died before the end of Abdullah's reign, leaving a question as to whether the council would vote for a new crown prince, or whether Nayef would automatically fill that position. Prince Nayef was appointed Crown Prince on October 27, 2011 after consultation with the Allegiance Council by Abdullah.[52]

In November 2010, Prince Nayef chaired a cabinet meeting because of the deterioration of the King's health.[53] During the same month, King Abdullah transferred his duties as Commander of the Saudi National Guard to his son Prince Mutaib. Abdullah is credited with building up the once largely ceremonial unit into a modern 260,000-strong force that is a counterweight to the army. The Guard, which was Abdullah's original power base, protects the royal family. This was suggested as an apparent sign that the elderly monarch is beginning to lessen some of his duties.[54]

Various positions

King Abdullah was Commander of the Saudi National Guard from 1963 to 2010. He is Chairman of the Supreme Economic Council, President of the High Council for Petroleum and Minerals, President of the King Abdulaziz Center For National Dialogue, Chairman of the Council of Civil Service, and head of the Military Service Council.

Personal life

Family

Abdullah is the sixth son (out of 37 sons) of King Abdul-Aziz,[*citation needed*] the founder of modern Saudi Arabia, to ascend to the throne. He is, after his half-brothers Bandar and Musaid, the third eldest of the living sons of Abdul-Aziz.

His mother is a فهدة العاصي الشريم Al-Rashidi, longtime rivals of the Al Saud.[55] He has had thirteen wives, and has fathered at least thirty-five children. [56] His youngest son was born in 2003.[57] His son Prince Mutaib is the Commander of the National Guard. His son Prince Mishaal is the Governor of the Najran Province.[58] His daughter Princess Adila is married to Prince Faisal bin Abdullah bin Muhammad, the new Education Minister appointed in 2009. Adila is one of the few Saudi princesses with a semi-public role and a known advocate of women's right to drive.[59] His son Prince Abdul-Aziz is his Syrian adviser.[60] His son Faisal is the head of the Saudi Arabian Red Crescent Society. His son Khaled is Deputy Commander of the Saudi Arabian National Guard West. One of his daughters is married to a Aal Al Khalifa royal of Bahrain.

Health

The king has curtailed his activities since June 2010 with no clear explanation. Diplomats said there has been uncertainty about the extent of his health problems since Abdullah canceled a visit to France. In a television appearance in which he was seen to use a cane, King Abdullah said he was in good health but had something "bothering" him.

In November 2010, his back problems came to light in the media. He had an "accumulation of blood" around the spinal cord. He suffered from a herniated disc and was told to rest by doctors. Later, an expected—but never officially announced—visit by then Egyptian President Hosni Mubarak became a phone call between the two leaders instead.[61] He was admitted to New York-Presbyterian Hospital after a blood clot complicated a slipped disc and underwent successful back surgery. The surgeons probably removed the herniated disk and performed a lumbar fusion.[62][63][64] He had another successful surgery in which surgeons "stabilized a number of vertebras".[65] He left the hospital on December 21 and convalesced at the New York Plaza Hotel.[66] On January 22, he left the United States and went to Morocco.[67] He then returned to the Kingdom on 23 February 2011.[68][69]

Saudi authorities have been unusually open in going public with the king's condition, apparently in an effort to prevent any speculation and reassure allies of the key Mideast nation and oil power. Personal issues within the royal family are often kept under strict wraps.[70] To maintain the Kingdom's stability, Crown Prince Sultan returned from Morocco at the time.[71]

Philanthropy

- King Abdullah paid for the separation surgery of a pair of Polish conjoined twins, which took place at the King Abd al-Aziz Medical City in Riyadh on January 3, 2005. He was given "honorary citizenship" by the Polish town of Janikowo, where the twins were born. On March 18, 2005, he was awarded the Order of the Smile (which he received during his visit to Poland in 2007).
- He has established two libraries, the King Abdulaziz Library in Riyadh and another in Casablanca, Morocco.
- He donated over $300,000 to furnish a New Orleans high school rebuilding after Hurricane Katrina.
- He donated half a billion dollars to the United Nations World Food Programme in 2008
- He has donated $50 million in cash and $10 million worth of relief materials for the 2008 Sichuan earthquake in China.[72]
- He donated $10 billion to the endowment fund of the King Abdullah University of Science and Technology in May 2008.[73]
- He established the King Abdullah University (Rawalakot) in Pakistan's Azad Jammu and Kashmir region after the 2005 Kashmir earthquake.
- On February 5, 2011, he waived $156 million USD of housing loans for nearly 3,300 Saudis who had died.[74]

Wealth

His wealth and personal income is estimated at US$21 billion, ranking him as one of the richest royals in the world.[5]

See also

- United States diplomatic cables leak

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External links

- Biography of the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz (http://www.saudiembassy.net/Country/Government/AbdullahBio.asp) , Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia
- Equestrian Club of Riyadh (http://www.frusiya.com/english/home_en2.asp)
- King Abdullah (http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/king-abdullah) collected news and commentary at *The Guardian*
- Abdullah, King of Saudi Arabia (http://topics.nytimes.com/top/reference/timestopics/people/a/abdullah_bin_abdul_aziz_alsaud/) collected news and commentary at *The New York Times*
- Saudi king details succession law (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/middle_east/7035991.stm) , *BBC News*, 9 October 2007

Abdullah of Saudi Arabia **House of Sa'ūd** **Born:** 1924		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Fahd**	**King of Saudi Arabia** 2005 – present	**Incumbent**

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House of Saud

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **House of Saud** (Arabic: آل سعود *Āl Su'ūd*), also called the **Al Saud**, is the ruling royal family of Saudi Arabia and one of the wealthiest and most powerful dynasties in the world. The family holds thousands of members. It is composed of the descendants of Muhammad ibn Saud and his brothers, though the ruling faction of the family is primarily led by the descendants of Abdulaziz ibn Abdul Rahman Al Saud. The family advocates Salafi Islam and unification of Arabia.[1]

The most influential member of the family is the King of Saudi Arabia. The line of succession to the Saudi throne is not father-son but brother-brother of the children of King Abdul-Aziz. The family is estimated to be composed of 15,000 members. Most power and wealth resides amongst the 2000 or so descendants of King Abdul-Aziz.[2][3]

The House of Saud has gone through three phases: the First Saudi State, the Second Saudi State, and the modern nation of Saudi Arabia. The First Saudi State marked the expansion of Salafi Islam. The Second Saudi State was marked with continuous infighting. The modern nation of Saudi Arabia wields considerable influence in the Middle East. The family has had conflicts with the Ottoman Empire, the Sharif of Mecca, and the Al Rashid family of Ha'il.

House of Saud



Country	Saudi al Arabia
Titles	▪ King of Saudi Arabia ▪ Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques
Current head	Abdullah
Founding	1744—Muhammad ibn Saud

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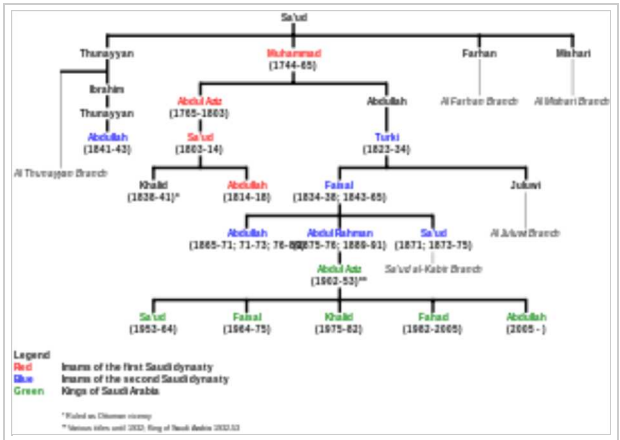
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Title

House of Saud is a translation of *Al Saud*. The latter is an Arabic dynastic name formed by adding the word *Al*, meaning "family of" or "House of",[4] to the personal name of an ancestor. In the case of the Al Saud, this is the father of the dynasty's 18th century founder, Muhammad ibn Saud (Muhammad, son of Saud).[5]



Genealogical table of the leaders of the Āl Saud

Today, the surname "Al Saud" is carried by any descendant of Muhammad ibn Saud or his three brothers Farhan, Thunayyan, and Mishari. Al Saud's other family branches are called cadet branches. Members of the cadet branches hold high and influential positions in government though they are not in line of succession to Saudi throne. Many cadet members intermarry within the Al Saud to reestablish their lineage and continue to wield influence in the government.

Sons and grandsons of King Abdul-Aziz are referred to in the style "His Royal Highness" (HRH), differing from the royals belonging to the cadet branches which are called "His Highness" (HH).

History

Origins and early history

The earliest recorded ancestor of the Al Saud was Mani' ibn Rabiah Al-Muraydi. He settled in Diriyah in 1446–7 with his clan, the Mrudah. Mani was invited by a relative named Ibn Dir. Ibn Dir was the ruler of a set of villages and estates that make up modern-day Riyadh. Mani's clan had been on a sojourn in east Arabia, near al-Qatif, from an unknown point in time. Ibn Dir handed Mani two estates called al-Mulaybeed and Ghusayba. Mani and his family settled and renamed the region "al-Diriyah", after their benefactor Ibn Dir.[6][7]

The Mrudah became rulers of al-Diriyah, which prospered along the banks of Wadi Hanifa and became an important Najdi settlement. As the clan grew larger, power struggles ensued, with one branch leaving to nearby Dhruma, while another branch (the "Al Watban") left for the town of az-Zubayr in southern Iraq. The Al Migrin became the ruling family among the Mrudah in Diriyah.

First Saudi State

Main article: First Saudi State

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The First Saudi State was founded in 1744. This period was marked by conquest of neighboring areas and by religious zeal. At its height, the First Saudi State included most of the territory of modern-day Saudi Arabia, and raids by Al Saud's allies and followers reached into Yemen, Oman, Syria, and Iraq. Islamic Scholars, particularly Muhammad ibn Abdul-Wahhab and his descendants, are believed to have played a significant role in Saudi rule during this period. The Saudis and their allies referred to themselves during this period as the *Muwahhidun* or *Ahl al-Tawhid* ("the monotheists"), so later they are referred as the Wahhabis.



Flag of the First Saudi State

Leadership of the Al Saud during the time of their first state passed from father to son without incident. The first imam, Muhammad ibn Saud, was succeeded by his eldest son Abdul-Aziz in 1765. Abdul-Aziz was killed in 1803 by an assassin, believed by some to have been a Shi'ite seeking revenge over the sacking of the Shi'ite holy city of Karbala by Saudi loyalists in 1802. Abdul-Aziz was in turn succeeded by his son, Saud, under whose rule the Saudi state reached its greatest extent. By the time Saud died in 1814, his son and successor Abdullah had to contend with an Ottoman-Egyptian invasion seeking to retake lost Ottoman territory and destroy the call to return to pure Islam. The mainly Egyptian force succeeded in defeating Abdullah's forces, taking over the Saudi capital of Diriyyah in 1818. Abdullah was taken prisoner and was soon beheaded by the Ottomans in Constantinople, putting an end to the First Saudi State. The Egyptians sent many members of the Al Saud clan and other members of the local nobility as prisoners to Egypt and Constantinople, and proceeded to raze the Saudi capital of Diriyyah.

Second Saudi State

Main article: Second Saudi State

A few years after the fall of Diriyyah in 1818, the Saudis were able to re-establish their authority in Najd, establishing what is now commonly known as the Second Saudi State, with its capital in Riyadh.



Flag of the Second Saudi State

Compared to the First Saudi State, the second Saudi period was marked by less territorial expansion (it never reconquered the Hijaz or 'Asir, for example) and less religious zeal, although the Saudi leaders continued to go by the title of *imam* and still employed Salafi religious scholars. The second state was also marked by severe internal conflicts within the Saudi family, eventually leading to the dynasty's downfall. In all but one instance succession occurred by assassination or civil war, the exception being the passage of authority from Faisal ibn Turki to his son Abdullah ibn Faisal ibn Turki.

The first Saudi to attempt to regain power after the fall of Dir'iyyah in 1818 was Mishari ibn Saud, a brother of the last ruler in Dir'iyyah. Mishari was soon captured by the Egyptians and killed. In 1824, Turki ibn Abdullah, another Saudi who had managed to evade capture by the Egyptians, was able to expel Egyptian forces and their local allies from Riyadh and its environs. Turki, a grandson of the first Saudi imam Muhammad ibn Saud, is generally regarded as the founder of the second Saudi dynasty and is also the ancestor of the kings of modern-day Saudi Arabia. He made his capital in Riyadh and was able to enlist the services of many relatives who had escaped captivity in Egypt, including his son Faisal.

Turki was assassinated in 1834 by Mishari ibn Abdul-Rahman, a distant cousin. Mishari was soon besieged in Riyadh and later executed by Turki's son, Faisal, who went on to become the most prominent ruler of the Saudis' second reign. Faisal, however, faced a re-invasion of Najd by the Egyptians four years later. The local population was unwilling to resist, and Faisal was defeated and taken to Egypt as a prisoner for the se

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The Egyptians installed Khalid ibn Saud as ruler in Riyadh and supported him with Egyptian troops. Khalid was the last surviving brother of the last imam of the First Saudi State, and had spent many years in the Egyptian court. In 1840, however, external conflicts forced the Egyptians to withdraw all their presence in the Arabian Peninsula, leaving Khalid with little support. Seen by most locals as nothing more than an Egyptian governor, Khalid was toppled soon afterwards by Abdullah ibn Thuniyyan, of the collateral Al Thuniyyan branch. Faisal, however, had been released that year, and, aided by the Al Rashid rulers of Ha'il, was able to retake Riyadh and resume his rule. Faisal later appointed his son Abdullah as crown prince, and divided his dominions between his three sons Abdullah, Saud, and Muhammad.

Upon Faisal's death in 1865, Abdullah assumed rule in Riyadh but was soon challenged by his brother, Saud ibn Faisal. The two brothers fought a long civil war, in which they traded rule in Riyadh several times. Previously a vassal of the Saudis, Muhammad ibn Abdullah ibn Rashid of Hail took the opportunity to intervene in the conflict and increase his own power. Gradually, Ibn Rashid extended his authority over most of Najd, including the Saudi capital, Riyadh. Ibn Rashid finally expelled the last Saudi leader, Abdul-Rahman bin Faisal, from Najd after the Battle of Mulayda in 1891.

Saudi Arabia

Main articles: Unification of Saudi Arabia and Saudi Arabia

After his defeat at Mulayda, Abdul-Rahman ibn Faisal went with his family into exile in the deserts of eastern Arabia among the Al Murra bedouin. Soon afterward, however, Abdul-Rahman found refuge in Kuwait as a guest of the Kuwaiti emir, Mubarak Al Sabah. In 1902, Abdul-Rahman's son, Abdul-Aziz, took on the task of restoring Saudi rule in Riyadh. Supported by a few dozen followers and accompanied by some of his brothers and relatives, Abdul-Aziz was able to capture Riyadh's Masmak fort and kill the governor appointed there by Ibn Rashid. Abdul Aziz, reported to have been barely 20 at the time, was immediately proclaimed ruler in Riyadh. As the new leader of the House of Saud, Abdul-Aziz became commonly known from that time simply as "Ibn Saud".

Ibn Saud spent the next three decades trying to re-establish his family's rule over as much of the Arabian Peninsula as possible, starting with his native Najd. His chief rivals were the Al Rashid clan in Ha'il, the Sharifs of Mecca in the Hijaz, and the Ottoman Turks in al-Hasa. Ibn Saud also had to contend, however, with the descendants of his late uncle Saud ibn Faisal (later known as the "Saud al-Kabir" branch of the family), who posed as the rightful heirs to the throne. Though for a time acknowledging the sovereignty of the Ottoman Sultans and even taking the title of *pasha*, Ibn Saud allied himself to the British, in opposition to the Ottoman-backed Al Rashid. For the period between 1915 and 1927, Ibn Saud's dominions were a protectorate of the British Empire, pursuant to the 1915 Treaty of Darin.

By 1932, Ibn Saud had disposed of all his main rivals and consolidated his rule over much of the Arabian Peninsula. He declared himself king of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia that year. Previously, he had gone through several titles, starting with "Sultan of Najd" and ending with "King of Hijaz and Najd and their dependencies." Ibn Saud's father, Abdul Rahman retained the honorary title of "imam." A few years later, in 1937, American surveyors discovered near Dammam what later proved to be Saudi Arabia's vast oil reserves. Before the discovery of oil, many family members were destitute.[8]

Ibn Saud fathered dozens of sons and daughters by his many wives. He had at most only four wives at one time. He divorced and married many times. He made sure to marry into many of the noble clans and tribes within his territory, including the chiefs of the Bani Khalid, Ajman, and Shammar tribes, as well as the Al ash-Sheikh (descendants of Muhammad ibn Abd al-Wahhab). He also arranged for his sons and relatives to enter into similar marriages. He appointed his eldest surviving son, Saud as heir apparent, to be succeeded by the next eldest son.

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Faisal. The Saudi family became known as the "royal family," and each member, male and female, was accorded the title of *amir* or *amira* ("prince" or "princess"), respectively.

Ibn Saud died in 1953, after having cemented an alliance with the United States in 1945. He is still celebrated officially as the "Founder," and only his direct descendents may take on the title of "his or her Royal Highness." The date of his recapture of Riyadh in 1902 was chosen to mark Saudi Arabia's centennial in 1999 (according to the Islamic lunar calendar).

Upon Ibn Saud's death, his son Saud assumed the throne without incident, but his lavish spending led to a power struggle between him and the new crown prince, Faisal. In 1964, the royal family forced Saud to abdicate in favor of Faisal, aided by an edict from the country's grand mufti. During this period, some of Ibn Saud's younger sons, led by Talal ibn Abdul Aziz defected to Egypt, calling themselves the "Free Princes" and calling for liberalization and reform, but were later induced to return by Faisal. They were fully pardoned but were also barred from any future positions in government.

Faisal was assassinated in 1975 by a nephew, Faisal ibn Musaid, who was then promptly executed. Another brother, Khalid assumed the throne. The next prince in line had actually been Muhammad, but Muhammad had relinquished his claim to the throne in favor of Khalid, who was his only full brother.

Khalid died of a heart attack in 1982, and was succeeded by Fahd, the eldest of the powerful "Sudairi Seven", so-called because they were all sons of Ibn Saud's wife, Hassa al-Sudairi. Fahd did away with the previous royal title of "his Majesty" and replaced it with the honorific "Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques," in reference to the two Islamic holy sites in Mecca and Medina.

A stroke in 1995 left Fahd largely incapacitated, and the crown prince, Abdullah gradually took over most of the king's responsibilities until Fahd's death in August 2005. Abdullah was proclaimed king on the day of Fahd's death and promptly appointed his younger brother Sultan bin Abdul-Aziz, the minister of defense and Fahd's "Second Deputy Prime Minister," as the new heir apparent. Sultan passed away in October 2011. On 27 March 2009 Abdullah appointed Prince Naif Interior Minister as his "second deputy prime minister"

Political power

The Head of the House of Saud is the King of Saudi Arabia who serves as Head of State and monarch of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The King holds almost absolute political power. The King appoints ministers to his cabinet who supervise their respective ministries in his name. The key ministries of Defense, the Interior, and Foreign Affairs are reserved for the Al Saud, as are most of the thirteen regional governorships. Most portfolios, however, such as Finance, Labor, Information, Planning, Petroleum Affairs and Industry, have traditionally been given to commoners, often with junior Al Saud members serving as their deputies. House of Saud family members also hold many of the Kingdom's critical military and governmental departmental posts. Ultimate power in the Kingdom has always rested upon the Al Saud, though support from the Ulema, the merchant community, and the population-at-large has been key to the maintenance of the royal family's political status quo.

Long term political and government appointments, such as those of King Abdullah, who has been Commander of the National Guard since 1963, Crown Prince Sultan, Minister of Defence & Aviation since 1962, Prince Mutaib Minister of Municipal & Rural Affairs from 1975 until his resignation in 2009, Prince Nayef who has been the Minister of Interior since 1975, and Prince Salman, who has been Governor of the Riyadh Region since 1962, have perpetuated the creation of fiefdoms where senior princes have, often, though not exclusively, co-mingled their personal wealth with that of their respective domains. They have often appointed their own sons to senior positions within their own fiefdom. Examples of these include Prince Mutaib bin Abdullah as Assistant Commander in the National Guard; Prince Khalid bin Sultan as Assistant Minister of Defe

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ibn Mutaib as Assistant Minister for Municipal & Rural Affairs until he replaced his father in 2009; and Prince Mohammed ibn Nayef as Assistant Minister in the Interior Ministry. In cases, where portfolios have notably substantial budgets, appointments of younger, often full, brothers have been necessary, as deputies or vice ministers, ostensibly to share the wealth and the burdens of responsibility, of each fiefdom. Examples of these include Prince Abdul Rahman who is Vice Minister of Defence & Aviation under Prince Sultan; Prince Badr, Deputy to King Abdullah in the National Guard; Prince Sattam, who is Deputy to Riyadh Governor, Prince Salman; and Prince Ahmed, who holds the Deputy Minister's portfolio in Prince Nayef's Interior Ministry.

Unlike Western royal families, the Saudi Monarchy has not had a clearly defined order of succession. Historically, upon becoming King, the monarch has designated an heir apparent to the throne who serves as Crown Prince of the Kingdom. Upon the King's death the Crown Prince becomes King, and during the King's incapacitation the Crown Prince, likewise, assumes power as regent. Though other members of the Al Saud hold political positions in the Saudi government, technically it is only the King and Crown Prince who legally constitute the political institutions.

Succession

Main article: Line of succession to the Saudi throne

Wealth

The sharing of family wealth has been a critical component in maintaining the semblance of a united front within the royal family. An essential part of family wealth is the Kingdom in its physical entirety, which the Al Saud view as a totally owned family asset. Whether through the co-mingling of personal and state funds from lucrative government positions, huge land allocations, direct allotments of crude oil to sell in the open market, segmental controls in the economy, special preferences for the award of major contracts, outright cash handouts, and astronomical monthly allowances—all billed to the national exchequer—all told, the financial impact may have exceeded 40% of the Kingdom's annual budget during the reign of King Fahd. Over decades of oil revenue-generated expansion, estimates of royal net worth is at well over $1.2 trillion.[9] This method of wealth distribution has allowed many of the senior princes and princesses to accumulate largely unauditable wealth and, in turn, pay out, in cash or kind, to lesser royals and commoners, and thereby gaining political influence through their own largesse.

During periods of high oil prices as were the late 1970s, the early 1980s, and again, immediately after the 2003 US invasion of Iraq, national income has outpaced the developmental needs and social obligations of the Saudi government and the effects of royal skimming were diminished. According to well-publicized but unsubstantiated reports, King Abdullah has intentions to reduce the Al Saud share of the budget, an act which may sow discontent within the royal family, but would be popular with the Kingdom's citizenry.

Opposition to the House of Saud

Internal opposition

Due to its authoritarian and theocratic rule, the House of Saud has attracted much criticism during its rule of Saudi Arabia. Its opponents generally refer to the Saudi monarchy as totalitarians or dictators.

There have been numerous incidents of demonstrations and other forms of resistance against the House of Saud. These range from the Ikhwan uprising during the reign of Ibn Saud, to numerous coup atte

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branches of the Kingdom's military. On 20 November 1979 the Holy Sanctuary in Mecca was violently seized by a group of dissidents. The seizure was carried out by 500 heavily armed and provisioned Saudi dissidents, consisting mostly of members of the former Ikhwan tribe of Utayba[10] but also of other peninsular Arabs and a few Egyptians enrolled in Islamic studies at the Islamic University of Medina.

The seizure was led by Juhayman al-Otaibi and Muhammad ibn 'Abdallah al-Qahtani who cited the corruption and ostentatiousness of the ruling house of Saud. Utaybi and his group spoke against the socio–technological changes taking place in Saudi Arabia. Utaybi demanded that oil should not be sold to the United States.[11]

Utaybi received little mass support outside of small circles of workers and students of tribal origin, and foreign labourers (from Egypt, Yemen and Pakistan.) The Saudi royal family turned to the Ulema who duly issued a fatwa permitting the storming of the holy sanctuary. Saudi forces, aided by French and Pakistani special ops units, took two weeks to flush the rebels out of the holy sanctuary; the use of French commandos was surprising since, officially, non-Muslims may not enter the city of Mecca.[12]

Saudi forces with the aid of Pakistani Special Services units ejected Utaybi's Group. All surviving males (including Juhaiman ibn Muhammad ibn Saif al Utaybi) were beheaded publicly in four cities of Saudi Arabia.[13]

Heads of the House of Sa'ud

First Saudi state

- Muhammad ibn Saud (died 1765)
- Abdul-Aziz ibn Muhammad ibn Saud
- Saud ibn Abdul-Aziz ibn Muhammad Al Saud
- Abdullah ibn Saud

Second Saudi state

- Turki ibn Abdallah
- Faisal ibn Turki Al Saud (first period)
- Khalid ibn Saud (appointed by the Egyptians)
- Abdullah ibn Thunayyan
- Faisal ibn Turki (second period)
- Saud ibn Faisal ibn Turki
- Abdullah ibn Faisal
- Abdul-Rahman bin Faisal



King Abdullah ibn Abdul Aziz in 2002

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

- King Abdul-Aziz ibn Abdul-Rahman Al Saud
- King Saud ibn Abdul-Aziz
- King Faisal ibn Abdul-Aziz
- King Khalid ibn Abdul-Aziz
- King Fahd ibn Abdul-Aziz
- King Abdullah ibn Abdul-Aziz

Most notable current members

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Sons of King Abdul-Aziz

- Bandar bin Abdul-Aziz (born 1923) – Has never held a government post but considered close to King Abdullah. Religious, and possibly a recluse.
- Musaid bin Abdul-Aziz (born 1923) – His older son, Khalid, was killed in a shootout with police in the early 1960s while demonstrating against the Kingdom's introduction of television. His younger son, Faisal, was King Faisal's assassin a decade later, for which he was beheaded. Mus'aid is religious, eccentric and a recluse. King Abdullah visited him in a Riyadh hospital in March 2009.[14]
- Mishaal bin Abdul-Aziz (born 1926) – Former Minister of Defense & Governor of Makkah Province. Close confidant of King Abdullah, and Chairman of the Allegiance Council, Mishaal is one of the Kingdom's wealthiest royals with extensive interests in real estate and a wide range of business interests.
- Abdul-Rahman ibn Abdul-Aziz (born 1931) – Former Deputy Defense Minister from 1978–2011, (relieved of this position 5 November 2011), after replacing younger brother, Turki in 1978, who was reportedly unfit for the position. Among the wealthiest royals[*citation needed*] with extensive business interests. With full brother, Crown Prince Sultan's recent death, and waning desire for greater power, Abdul-Rahman has reinforced his influence in the royal family, emerging as the preeminent member of the royal family's Sudairi faction.
- Mutaib ibn Abdul-Aziz (born 1931) – Minister for Municipal & Rural Affairs from 1975 until 2009, and former Governor of Makkah. His profile and influence have greatly increased due to a lengthy tenure in government and a long-standing family alliance with King Abdullah and his only surviving full brother, Mishaal.
- Talal ibn Abdul-Aziz (born 1931) – Has held the ministerial portfolios for Finance and Communications. Major businessman, special envoy to UNESCO and Chairman of AGFUND. Not considered a contender for the throne as a result of his leading role in the Free Princes movement of 1958 which sought government reform, and his 2011 resignation from the Allegiance Council. Father of Al-Waleed bin Talal.
- Badr bin Abdul-Aziz (born 1933) – Long-time Deputy Commander of National Guard. Participated in the Free Princes movement in 1958 and rehabilitated by King Faisal a decade later.
- Nawwaf bin Abdul-Aziz (born 1933) – Senior advisor of King Abdullah, former Minister of Finance and, briefly, Director General of the General Intelligence Directorate. Has substantial business holdings.
- Nayef bin Abdul-Aziz Al Saud (born 1933) – Crown Prince, First Deputy Prime Minister, and long-time powerful Minister of Interior.
- Turki II bin Abdul-Aziz Al Saud (born 1934) – Businessman after he was forced to resign as Deputy Minister of Defence in 1978.
- Abdul-llah ibn Abdul-Aziz Al Saud (born 1935) – Former Governor of Al Jawf Province. Appointed Special Advisor to King Abdullah in 2008.
- Salman bin Abdul-Aziz Al Saud (born 1936) – Former Governor (1962–2011) of Riyadh Region. Minister of Defense November 2011. Is considered a mediator between differing Royal Family factions. Diminishing health, and the death of his two oldest sons within a twelve-month period had, reportedly, dampened a desire for the throne. However following appointment as Minister of Defense, November 2011, this situation appears to have altered.
- Ahmed bin Abdul-Aziz (born 1940) – Deputy Minister of Interior, with a reputation for "getting the job done", since 1975.
- Mamdouh ibn Abdul-Aziz (born 1940) – Former Governor of Tabuk region who was removed from the post by King Fahd for insubordination. Later Director of Saudi Center of Strategic Studies.
- Sattam bin Abdul-Aziz (born 1941) – Governor of Riyadh region from November 2011.Former Deputy Governor of Riyadh region 1978-2011.
- Muqrin bin Abdul-Aziz Al Saud (born 1945) – Director General of the General Intelligence Directorate. Former Governor for Ha'il and Madinah regions.
- Hidhlul ibn Abdul-Aziz (born 1941)

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Other members of House of Saud

- Al-Johara Al-Saud
- Lama Al-Saud
- Mishil Al-Saud
- Noura Al-Saud
- Layali Bint Abdulaziz Al-saud
- Turki Al-Saud
- Maha Abdulaziz
- Nuf Al-Saud
- Sara Al-saud
- Jawahir Al-Saud
- Maha Al-Saud
- Lulu Al-Saud

Grandsons of Abdul-Aziz ibn Saud

- Muhammed ibn Saud (born 1934) – Governor of Al Bahah Province.
- Abdallah ibn Khalid (born 1935) – Chairman of the King Khalid Foundation.
- Mohammed ibn Faisal (born 1937) – Former Deputy minister for Agriculture. Founder and Chairman of DMI Trust and the Faisal Islamic Bank Group; member of the Board of Trustees for the King Faisal Foundation. Oldest son of Queen Iffat.
- Khalid al Faisal (born 1941) – poet, Governor of the Makkah Province and Managing Director of the King Faisal Foundation.
- Saud al Faisal (born 1941) – Long-serving Foreign Minister and close confidant of King Abdullah. May have stepped aside as a succession candidate due to possibly debilitating health concerns but is highly respected both inside the kingdom and internationally. Member of the Board of Trustees for the King Faisal Foundation.
- Mutaib ibn Abdullah (born 1953) – Assistant Commander of the National Guard.
- Faisal ibn Bandar (born 1943) – Governor of Qasim Province.
- Turki al Faisal (born 1945) – Adept former Ambassador to Washington D.C. until his surprise resignation on December 11, 2006. Has received intense western media criticism for allegedly mishandling the growth of Al Qaeda during his long tenure as the head of Saudi Arabia's General Intelligence Directorate, where he oversaw Saudi Arabia's official and non official aid to the Mujahideen fighters during the Afghan Civil War. His short tenure as Ambassador to Britain received wide accolades for his professionalism. Member of the Board of Trustees for the King Faisal Foundation.
- Saud ibn Abdul Mohsin (born 1947) – Low-profile well-regarded Governor of Ha'il Province. Father was Prince Abdul Mohsin ibn Abdul Aziz (1925–1985), much loved and respected Governor of Madinah.
- Khalid bin Sultan (born 1949) – Deputy Minister of Defense November 2011.. Led Saudi military forces during first Gulf War. Considered both competent and arrogant but accumulation of extensive assets and wealth through his positions in government may hinder political future.
- Muhammad bin Fahd (born 1950) – Competent governor of the Eastern Province and son of late King Fahd. His vast business interests, much of it acquired from his position, may be a negative factor for future roles.
- Bandar bin Sultan (born 1950) – Former long-serving Ambassador to US, maintaining close relations with the Bush Family and others across the political spectrum. Reportedly used his position to accumulate great wealth which, in addition to Bandar's lack of in-country popularity,[*citation needed*] may deter family consensus supporting future roles. King Abdullah, whose support he enjoys, appointed Bandar Secretary-General of the newly created National Security Council in October 2005.
- Mohammed ibn Nawwaf (born 1953) – Saudi Ambassador to London. Gained kudo

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Ambassador to Italy. His growing prominence is closely connected to King Abdullah's trust and confidence in his father, Prince Nawwaf.

- Al-Waleed bin Talal (born 1955) – Has gained stature as a world-class investor and is consistently ranked among *Forbes* magazine's wealthiest billionaires.[*citation needed*] Source of wealth reported to include private investments from other royals.
- Saud ibn Nayef (born 1956) – Head of the Court of Crown Prince 2011. Former Saudi Ambassador to Spain. Former Deputy Governor of the Eastern Province.
- Sultan ibn Salman (born 1956) – Former astronaut (1985) and Secretary General of the Supreme Commission for Tourism since 2000 with his current term extended to 2012.[15]
- Muhammad bin Nayef (born 1959) – Assistant Minister for Security Affairs in the Interior Ministry. He has taken over many of his father, Prince Nayef's, duties including the day-to-day operations against Al Qaeda.
- Faisal ibn Salman (born 1960) – Chairman of Saudi Research and Marketing Group, the Middle East's largest vertically integrated publishing group.[*citation needed*]
- Abdul Aziz bin Fahd (born 1973) – Youngest son of King Fahd. Minister of State and Cabinet Member though his power and political potential are in decline since his father's death in August 2005 - his finances remain controversial[*citation needed*] and substantial.

See also

- Al ash-Sheikh
- Al Maktoum
- Bani Hareth
- Bani Yas
- Banu Thaqif
- Banu Yam
- King of Saudi Arabia
- Saudi Royal Guard Regiment
- Sudairi Seven

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9. ^ House of Saud Bu.Academic.Ru (http://dic.academic.ru/dic.nsf/enwiki/228608/) making them the richest family in the world but their wealth is often hidden.

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United Arab Emirates

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **United Arab Emirates**,[7] abbreviated as the **UAE**, or shortened to "**the Emirates**",[8] is a country situated in the southeast of the Arabian Peninsula in Western Asia on the Persian Gulf, bordering Oman to the east and Saudi Arabia to the south, as well as sharing sea borders with Qatar to the west and Iran to the north.

The UAE is a federation of seven emirates (equivalent to principalities), each governed by a hereditary emir, with a single national president. The constituent emirates are Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Dubai, Fujairah, Ras al-Khaimah, Sharjah, and Umm al-Quwain. The capital is Abu Dhabi, which is also the state's center of political, industrial, and cultural activities.[9]

Prior to independence in 1971, the UAE was known as the Trucial States or Trucial Oman, in reference to a 19th-century truce between the local sheikhs, hereditary rulers of the territories, and the United Kingdom. The term *Pirate Coast* was also used by some to refer to the emirates from the 18th to the early 20th century, owing to the preponderance of pirates operating from Emirati ports.[10]

The UAE's political system, is based on its 1971 Constitution, which is composed of several intricately connected governing bodies. As a federation of seven monarchies, whose rulers retain absolute power within their emirates, but with a UAE president, it is neither a constitutional monarchy nor a republic. The *emirs* choose one of their members to be the president of the federation, but this does not alter the monarchical character of the government of the individual emirates. The constitution is concerned solely with the relations between the emirates as members of the federation, and does not prescribe a constitutional system of government.

Islam is the official religion of the UAE, and Arabic is the official language.[11]

UAE oil reserves are ranked as the world's sixth-largest[12] and it possesses one of the most developed economies in West Asia. It is the thirty-fifth-largest economy at market exchange rates, and ranks among the world's wealthiest nations with per capita GDP (PPP) of US$48,597.[13] It is 15th in purchasing power per capita and has a relatively high Human Development Index for the Asian continent, ranking thirtieth globally.[14] The UAE is classified as a high-income developing economy by the IMF.

United Arab Emirates
دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة
Dawlat al-Imārāt al-'Arabīyah al-Muttaḥidah



Flag



Emblem

Motto: الله ثم الوطن, ثم الرئيس[*citation needed*]
Allah, al-Waṭan, al-Ra'īs (Arabic)
"God then The Homeland then The President"

Anthem: *Ishy Bilady*



Capital	Abu Dhabi 24°28′N 54°22′E
Largest city	Dubai
Official language(s)	Arabic
Ethnic groups	16.6% Emirati 23% Other Arabs and Iranian 60.5% South Asian, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Chinese, Filipino, Thai, Westerners (2009)[1][2]
Demonym	Emirati[3]
Government	Constitutional federation of absolute monarchies with an executive president elected by Emir Council amongst themselves
- President	Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan

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- Vice President and Prime Minister	Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum
Legislature	Federal National Council
Sovereignty	End of special treaty with the United Kingdom
- Constitution	December 2, 1971
Area	
- Total	83,600 [1] km^2 (116th) 32,278 sq mi
- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- 2010 estimate	8,264,070[4] (93rd)
- 2005 census	4,106,427
- Density	99/km^2 (110th) 256/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$257.736 billion[5] (49th)
- Per capita	$49,499[5] (6th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$363.815 billion[5] (30th)
- Per capita	$69,872[5] (5th)
Gini (2008)	36
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.846[6] (very high) (30th)
Currency	UAE dirham (AED)
Time zone	GMT+4 (UTC+4)
- Summer (DST)	not observed (UTC+4)
Date formats	dd/mm/yyyy
Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	AE
Internet TLD	.ae, امارات.
Calling code	971
United Arab Emirates portal	

1 The country's exact size is unknown because of disputed claims to several islands in the Persian Gulf, the lack of precise information on the size of many of these islands and that most of its land boundaries, especially with Saudi Arabia, remain un-demarcated.

History

Main article: History of the United Arab Emirates

The earliest known human habitation in the UAE dated from 5500 BC. At this early stage, there is proof of interaction with the outside world, particularly with civilizations to the north in Persia. These contacts persisted and became wide-ranging, probably motivated by trade in copper from the Hajar Mountains, which commenced around 3000 BC.[15] Foreign trade, the recurring motif in the history of this strategic region, flourished also in later periods, facilitated


An 18th century watchtower in Hatta

by the domestication of the camel at the end of the second millennium BC.[16]

By the 1st century AD overland caravan traffic between Syria and cities in southern Iraq began. Also, there was seaborne travel to the important port of Omana (present-day Umm al-Qaiwain) and then to India. These routes were an alternative to the Red Sea route used by the Romans.[17] Pearls had been exploited in the area for millennia but at this time the trade reached new heights. Seafaring was also a mainstay and major fairs were held at Dibba, bringing in merchants from as far as China.[18]

Advent of Islam

The arrival of envoys from the Islamic prophet Muhammad in 630 heralded the conversion of the region to Islam. After Muhammad, one of the major battles of the Ridda Wars was fought at Dibba resulting in the defeat of the non-Muslims and the triumph of Islam in the Arabian Peninsula.

In 637, Julfar (today Ra's al-Khaimah) was used as a staging post for the conquest of Iran. Over many centuries, Julfar became a wealthy port and pearling center from which dhows travelled throughout the Indian Ocean especially to neighboring land of Sindh and its cities of Thatta and Debal.

Portuguese control

See also: History of Oman and Economic history of Portugal

Portuguese expansion into the Indian Ocean in the early 16th century following Vasco da Gama's route of exploration saw them battle Safavid Persia up the coast of the Persian Gulf. The Portuguese controlled the area for 150 years, in which they conquered the inhabitants of the Arabian Peninsula.[19] Vasco da Gama was helped by Ahmad Ibn Majid, a navigator and cartographer from Julfar, to find the spice route from Asia.[20][21]

European domination

During the 16th century, piecemeal, the entire territory of the nation came under the direct influence of the European colonial empires, with the British eventually getting the upper hand. The region was known to the British as the "Pirate Coast", as raiders based there harassed the shipping industry despite both European and Arab navies patrolling the area from the 17th century into the 19th.[22] British expeditions to protect the Indian trade from raiders at Ras al-Khaimah led to campaigns against that headquarters and other harbours along the coast in 1819. The next year, a peace treaty was signed to which all the sheikhs of the coast adhered. Raids continued intermittently until 1835, when the sheikhs agreed not to engage in hostilities at sea. In 1853, they signed a treaty with the British, under which the sheikhs (the "Trucial Sheikhdoms") agreed to a "perpetual maritime truce." It was enforced by the United Kingdom, and disputes among sheikhs were referred to the British for settlement.[23]

Primarily in reaction to the ambitions of other European countries, the United Kingdom and the Trucial Sheikhdoms established closer bonds in an 1892 treaty, similar to treaties entered into by Britain with other principalities in the Persian Gulf. The sheikhs agreed not to dispose of any territory except to Britain and not to enter into relationships with any foreign government other than the United Kingdom without its consent. In return, the British promised to protect the Trucial Coast from all aggression by sea and to help in case of land attack.[24] British suppression of piracy meant that pearling fleets could operate in relative security. However,


Flag of the Trucial Coast

the British prohibition of the slave trade meant an important source of income was lost to some sheikhs and merchants.[25]

Pearling industry

During the 19th and early 20th centuries, the pearling industry thrived in the relative calm sea, providing both income and employment to the people of the Persian Gulf. It began to become a good economic resource for the local people. Then the First World War had a severe impact on the pearl fishery, but it was the economic depression of the late 1920s and early 1930s, coupled with the Japanese invention of the cultured pearl, that all but destroyed it. The industry eventually faded away shortly after the Second World War, when the newly independent Government of India imposed heavy taxation on pearls imported from the Arab states of the Persian Gulf.[26]

The decline of pearling resulted in a very difficult era, with little opportunity to build any infrastructure.


Dubai in the mid-20th century

Beginning of the oil era

At the beginning of the 1960s, the first oil company teams carried out preliminary surveys and the first cargo of crude was exported from Abu Dhabi in 1962. As oil revenues increased, ruler of Abu Dhabi, Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, undertook a massive construction program, building schools, housing, hospitals and roads. When Dubai's oil exports commenced in 1969, Rashid bin Saeed Al Maktoum, the *de facto* ruler of Dubai, was also able to use oil revenues to improve the quality of life of his people.[27]

In 1955, the United Kingdom sided with Abu Dhabi in the latter's dispute with Oman over the Buraimi Oasis, another territory to the south.[28] A 1974 agreement between Abu Dhabi and Saudi Arabia would have settled the Abu Dhabi-Saudi border dispute; however, the agreement has yet to be ratified by the UAE government and is not recognized by the Saudi government. The border with Oman also remains officially unsettled, but the two governments agreed to delineate the border in May 1999.[29]

Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan and the union

In the early 1960s, oil was discovered in Abu Dhabi, an event that led to quick unification calls made by UAE sheikdoms. Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan became ruler of Abu Dhabi in 1966 and the British started losing their oil investments and contracts to U.S. oil companies.[30] The British had earlier started a development office that helped in some small developments in the emirates. The sheikhs of the emirates then decided to form a council to coordinate matters between them and took over the development office. They formed the Trucial States Council,[31] and appointed Adi Bitar, Sheikh Rashid bin Saeed Al Maktoum's legal advisor, as Secretary General and Legal Advisor to the Council. The council was terminated once the United Arab Emirates was formed.[32]

In 1968, the United Kingdom announced its decision, reaffirmed in March 1971, to end the treaty relationships with the seven Trucial Sheikhdoms which had been, together with Bahrain and Qatar, under British protection. The nine attempted to form a union of Arab emirates, but by mid-1971 they were still unable to agree on terms of union, even though the British treaty relationship was to expire in December of that year.[33]

Bahrain became independent in August, and Qatar in September 1971. When the British-Trucial Sheikhdoms treaty expired on December 1, 1971, they became fully independent.[34] The rulers of Abu Dhabi and Dubai decided to form a union between their two emirates independently, prepare a constitution, then call the rulers of the other five emirates to a meeting and offer them the opportunity to join. It was also agreed between the two that the constitution be written by December 2, 1971.[35] On that date, at the Dubai Guesthouse Palace, four other emirates agreed to enter into a union called the United Arab Emirates. Ras al-Khaimah joined later, in early 1972.[36][37]


Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan

The UAE supported military operations from the United States and other Coalition nations that are engaged in the war against the Taliban in Afghanistan (2001) and Saddam Hussein in Iraq (2003) as well as operations supporting the Global War on Terrorism for the Horn of Africa at Al Dhafra Air Base located outside of Abu Dhabi.[*citation needed*] The air base also supported Allied operations during the 1991 Persian Gulf War and Operation Northern Watch. The country had already signed a military defense agreement with the U.S. in 1994 and one with France in 1995.[*citation needed*]

On 2 November 2004, the UAE's first president, Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, died. His eldest son, Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, succeeded as Emir of Abu Dhabi. In accordance with the constitution, the UAE's Supreme Council of Rulers elected Khalifa as president. Sheikh Mohammad bin Zayed Al Nahyan succeeded Khalifa as Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi.[38] In January 2006, Sheikh Maktoum bin Rashid Al Maktoum, the prime minister of the UAE and the ruler of Dubai, died, and the crown prince Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum assumed both roles.

Geography

Main article: Geography of the United Arab Emirates


The landscape of Sir Bani Yas Island

The United Arab Emirates is situated in Southwest Asia, bordering the Gulf of Oman and the Persian Gulf, between Oman and Saudi Arabia; it is in a strategic location along southern approaches to the Strait of Hormuz, a vital transit point for world crude oil.[39]

Geography of the UAE	
Coastline	1,318 km (819 miles)
Bordering countries	Saudi Arabia, and Oman

The UAE lies between 22°30' and 26°10' north latitude and between 51° and 56°25′ east longitude. It shares a 530-kilometer border with Saudi Arabia on the west, south, and southeast, and a 450-kilometer border with Oman on the southeast and northeast. The land border with Qatar in the Khawr al Udayd area is about nineteen kilometers in the northwest; however, it is a source of ongoing dispute.[40] Additionally, island disputes with Iran and Qatar remain unresolved.[41]



The largest emirate, Abu Dhabi, accounts for 87% of the UAE's total area (67,340 square kilometers). The smallest emirate, Ajman, encompasses

only 259 square kilometers (see figure).

A view of the desert landscape on the outskirts of Dubai

The UAE coast stretches for more than 650 kilometers along the southern shore of the Persian Gulf. Most of the coast consists of salt pans that extend far inland. The largest natural harbor is at Dubai, although other ports have been dredged at Abu Dhabi, Sharjah, and elsewhere. Numerous islands are found in the Persian Gulf, and the ownership of some of them has been the subject of international disputes with both Iran and Qatar. The smaller islands, as well as many coral reefs and shifting sandbars, are a menace to navigation. Strong tides and occasional windstorms further complicate ship movements near the shore. The UAE also has a stretch of the Al Bāṭinah coast of the Gulf of Oman, although the Musandam Peninsula, the very tip of Arabia by the Strait of Hormuz is an enclave of Oman within the UAE.



The mountainous region in the north

South and west of Abu Dhabi, vast, rolling sand dunes merge into the Rub al-Khali (Empty Quarter) of Saudi Arabia. The desert area of Abu Dhabi includes two important oases with adequate underground water for permanent settlements and cultivation. The extensive Liwa Oasis is in the south near the undefined border with Saudi Arabia. About 100 kilometers to the northeast of Liwa is the Al-Buraimi oasis, which extends on both sides of the Abu Dhabi-Oman border.

Prior to withdrawing from the area in 1971, Britain delineated the internal borders among the seven emirates in order to preempt territorial disputes that might hamper formation of the federation. In general, the rulers of the emirates accepted the British intervention, but in the case of boundary disputes between Abu Dhabi and Dubai, and also between Dubai and Sharjah, conflicting claims were not resolved until after the UAE became independent. The most complicated borders were in the Al-Hajar al-Gharbi Mountains, where five of the emirates contested jurisdiction over more than a dozen enclaves.

Flora and fauna

The oases grow date palms, acacia and eucalyptus trees. In the desert the flora is very sparse and consists of grasses and thornbushes. The indigenous fauna had come close to extinction because of intensive hunting, which has led to a conservation program on Bani Yas island initiated by Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan in the 1970s, resulting in the survival of, for example, Arabian oryx and leopards. Coastal fish and mammals consist mainly of mackerel, perch and tuna, as well as sharks and whales.



Acacia trees growing in desert suburbs near Fujairah

Climate

Main article: Climate of the United Arab Emirates

The climate of the U.A.E is subtropical-arid with hot summers and warm winters. The hottest months are July and August, when average maximum temperatures reach above 40 °C (104.0 °F) on the coastal plain. In the Al Hajar Mountains, temperatures are considerably lower, a result of increased altitude.[42] Average minimum temperatures in January and February are between 10 and 14 °C (50 and 57.2 °F).[43] During the late summer months, a humid southeastern wind known as Sharqi (i.e. "Easterner") makes the coastal region especially unpleasant. The average annual rainfall in the coastal area is less than 120 mm (4.7 in), but in some mountainous areas annual rainfall often reaches 350 mm (13.8 in). Rain in the coastal region falls in short, torrential bursts

during the summer months, sometimes resulting in floods in ordinarily dry wadi beds.[44] The region is prone to occasional, violent dust storms, which can severely reduce visibility. The Jebel Jais mountain cluster in Ras al-Khaimah has experienced snow only twice since records began.[45]

Government and politics

Main article: Politics of the United Arab Emirates

See also: Military of the United Arab Emirates, Constitution of the United Arab Emirates, and UAE eGovernment

Government

National Symbols of the UAE[46]	
Flag	Flag of United Arab Emirates
Anthem	Ishy Bilady
Animal	Arabian Horse
Bird	Peregrine Falcon
Flower	Tribulus Omanense
Tree	Ghaf trees
Dairy	Camel Milk
Beverage	Arabic Coffee
Sport	Camel racing
Dress	Khandura



Current President of the United Arab Emirates, Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan

The politics of the United Arab Emirates take place in a framework of a federal, presidential system of a federation of absolute hereditary monarchies. The UAE is a federation of seven absolute monarchies: the emirates of Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Fujairah, Sharjah, Dubai, Ras al-Khaimah and Umm al-Qaiwain. The President of the United Arab Emirates is its head of state, and the Prime Minister of the United Arab Emirates is its head of government,[47] including foreign affairs, security and defense, nationality and immigration issues, education, public health, currency, postal, telephone and other communications services, air traffic control, licensing of aircraft, labor relations, banking, delimitation of territorial waters and extradition of criminals. All responsibilities not granted to the national government are reserved to the emirates.

The UAE government comprises three branches: the executive, legislature, and judiciary. The executive branch consists of the President, Vice President, Prime Minister, Federal Supreme Council, and a Council of Ministers (the cabinet). The Federal Supreme Council is composed of the emirs of the seven emirates. It elects the president, vice president, members of the Council of Ministers, and judges of the Federal Supreme Court. The Supreme Council also formulates government policy, proposes and ratifies national laws, and ratifies treaties.

Although elected by the Supreme Council, the president and prime minister are essentially hereditary. The emir of Abu Dhabi holds the presidency, and the emir of Dubai is prime minister. All but one prime minister served concurrently as vice president. The political influences and financial obligations of the emirates are reflected by their respective positions in the federal government. While each emirate still retains autonomy over its own territory, a percentage of its revenue is allocated to the UAE's central budget.[48]

Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan was the UAE's president from the nation's founding until his death on November 2, 2004. On the following day the Federal Supreme Council elected his son, Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, to the post. Abu Dhabi's crown prince, Mohammed bin Zayed Al Nahyan, is the heir apparent.[49]

The legislature is the Federal National Council (FNC), which consists of 40 members drawn from all the emirates. Half are appointed by the rulers of the constituent emirates, and the other half are indirectly elected to

serve two-year terms. The first indirect elections took place in 2006, and the goal is a wholly elected council. The council carries out the country's main consultative duties and has both a legislative and supervisory role provided by the constitution.[50] The council scrutinizes and amends proposed legislation, but cannot prevent it from becoming law. The main tasks of the FNC are:

- Discussing constitutional amendments and draft laws, which may be approved, amended or rejected
- Reviewing the annual draft budget of the federation
- Debating international treaties and conventions
- Influencing the Government's work through the channels of discussion, question and answer sessions, recommendations and following up on complaints

A constitutionally independent judiciary includes the Federal Supreme Court.[51] However, Dubai and Ras al-Khaimah do not belong to the national judiciary. All emirates have their own secular and Islamic law for civil, criminal, and high courts.[52]

In parallel to the economic developments of the UAE, the country's leaders have also initiated political reforms in order to further develop the political institutions. The political modernization process was envisaged in three stages: first, conduct elections to elect half the FNC members through an Electoral College; second expand the powers of the FNC and increase the number of FNC members, which would require extensive constitutional studies and possible modifications, at the end of which the political institution would be a more enabled body; and finally, an open election for half the council.

The purpose of the elections was to expand political participation and develop a culture of government reform. The limited scope of participation was conditioned by three reasons: (1) the country not having an electoral tradition, (2) the prevailing political tension and instability in the region meaning that there was no scope for error, and (3) elections in the region having proved to potentially be divisive affairs, based on sectarian and religious issues, which the UAE wanted to avoid.

In December 2008, the Supreme Council approved constitutional amendments both to empower the FNC and to enhance government transparency and accountability.[53]

United Arab Emirates Government

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) eGovernment is the extension of the UAE Federal Government in its electronic form. The UAE eGovernment enables convenient access to government information and services through innovative and customer-friendly delivery channels and streamlines the processes for quality and timely government service delivery. The UAE eGovernment engages modern tools in Information and Communication Technology to actively connect with its wide base of users from within the UAE and beyond. The setting up of the UAE eGovernment is a major step towards modernisation and upgradation of government functioning as it brings about a cost-effective, eco-friendly, transparent and participative government.

Law

Main article: Crime in the United Arab Emirates

The United Arab Emirates law originates from the old days of when the Emirates were a tribal society. Each of the seven Emirates have their own court system. This is comparable to the independent state court systems, in addition to the federal court system, in the United States of America. The federal court system is located in Abu Dhabi. Other systems of law are also in practice, such as in Abu Dhabi where an Open Court is held every Sunday. In Open Court, locals seek the aid of Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan and his court for help in a

variety of issues such as bankruptcy or familial disputes.

Registration of corporate directors is secret in the UAE. A company disputing the takeover of a Seán Quinn asset in India by the Irish Bank Resolution Corporation, Mecon Manufacturing and Contracting FZE, is registered in the UAE.[54]

Human rights and social development

Main article: Human rights in the United Arab Emirates

See also: LGBT rights in United Arab Emirates

Human rights are legally protected by the Constitution of the United Arab Emirates, which confers equality, liberty, rule of law, presumption of innocence in legal procedures, inviolability of the home, freedom of movement, freedom of opinion and speech, freedom of communication, freedom of religion, freedom of council and association, freedom of occupation, freedom to be elected to office and others onto all citizens, within the limit of the law.[55]

Because of the rapid development of the UAE from a traditional society in the mid-20th century to a modernizing one at the beginning of the 21st century, the concurrent development of legal provisions and the practical enforcement of existing laws has been challenging and, in consequence, problems exist mainly in regard to human rights of non-citizens, who make up around 80% of the population. Main issues include companies' and employers' non-compliance with labor laws.

Many expatriate workers, mostly of South Asian origin, have after their arrival in the UAE been turned into debt-ridden *de facto* indentured servants.[56] Confiscation of passports, although illegal, occurs on a large scale, primarily of unskilled or semi-skilled employees.[57]

The UAE's system of employment for non-citizens ties an employee to the employer and prevents him or her from seeking alternative employment without the express approval of the original employer. Also, among employers of foreign labourers non-payment of wages, cramped and unsanitary living conditions and poor health and safety practices are widespread and have been the subject of foreign media attention.

Labourers often toil in intense heat with temperatures reaching 54 degrees celsius (129 degrees Fahrenheit) in the cities in August. Temperatures in the desert can be higher. Official temperatures are censored during the summer months – this is a common practice among all Gulf countries.[58] Although attempts have been made since 2009 to enforce a midday break rule, these are frequently flouted and apply only to a narrow section of labourers – only those who work in direct sunlight, which neglects the vast majority, for example, those who work on construction sites without air-conditioning or even adequate ventilation. Those labourers who do receive a midday break often have no suitable place to rest and are seen seeking shade under bridges or palm trees, where outdoor temperatures remain intolerable.[59]

In order to institutionalize the fight against human trafficking, including that of expatriate workers for blue collar jobs, the UAE government has devised a four-pillar strategy: (1) legislation, (2) enforcement (3) victim support, and (4) bilateral agreements and international cooperation. In 2007 the National Committee to Combat Human Trafficking was established, which serves as a coordinating agency. The UAE has ratified the United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children (Palermo Protocol).

The victim support program includes protection, counseling and rehabilitation. Police departments and non-Government organizations provide shelter and support for human trafficking victims until they are able to

acquire the right documents and many victims are then sent home at the Government's expense, under the Crime Victim Assistance Programme. These shelters include the Dubai Women's and Children's Foundation, which was established in July 2007, and Ewaa in Abu Dhabi, which opened in late 2008, as well as the Human Rights Care Department in Dubai and the Social Support Centre in Abu Dhabi, which have been operating for several years.[53]

The issue of sexual abuse among female domestic servants is an area of concern, particularly given that domestic servants are not covered by the UAE Labor Law of 1980 or the Draft Labor Law of 2007.[60] Worker protests have been cracked down on.[61] Until today, the government has not allowed for trade unions to form despite having promised to do so since 2004.[62]

As Sharia prohibits sodomy, homosexual relationships are not commonly disclosed. The UAE is much more moderate on homosexual punishment than many of its neighbors.[*citation needed*] The death penalty is never implemented for homosexuality, and rarely life imprisonment.[*citation needed*] Foreigners generally receive deportation, which is sometimes temporary.[63][64] Prospective foreign employees infected with hepatitis, tuberculosis, or HIV will not be given work visas and have to leave the country.[65][66] There is, however, no screening of tourists.

The UAE authorities on the federal and local level have instituted a number of mechanisms and policies to improve the protection of human rights.[*citation needed*] For example, in 2004, the Dubai police opened designated departments in all emirate police stations that are mandated to protect the human rights of both victims and perpetrators of crime.[67]

UN rapporteurs – one on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, and the other on contemporary forms of racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance – visited the UAE separately and held discussions with various ministries, civil society organizations, academics and ordinary citizens. Commending the Government's 'cooperation and openness', a preliminary report of the rapporteur on racism said: "The recent review of the UAE by the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination and by the Universal Periodic Review of the Human Rights Council demonstrates that the authorities are willing to find ways and means of addressing human rights challenges faced by the people in the UAE and to ensure compliance with international human rights standards."

Efforts are under way to promulgate a draft national law for better protection of children, in line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The proposed law provides for the establishment of a hotline to respond to children's problems and encourages the establishment of associations or clubs specializing in child affairs, as well as calling for the appointment of a special judge to handle cases related to children.[53]

The *UAE National Human Rights Report*, prepared by a committee comprising representatives from various ministries and government institutions, with the participation of representatives from civil society and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and presented to the UN Human Rights Council on 4 December 2008 outlines efforts in the field of human rights observance and listed challenges facing the country, such as the following:

- Providing more mechanisms to protect human rights, keeping up with national and international developments, and updating laws and systems
- Meeting the state's expectations with regards to building national capabilities and deepening efforts for education on human rights and basic freedoms through a national plan
- Striving to regulate the relationship between employers and workers in framework that preserves dignity and rights, and is in harmony with international standards, especially with regard to domestic help

- Increasing the empowerment of women's role in society, increasing opportunities for involvement in a number of fields
- Working to confront human trafficking crimes by reviewing the best international practices in the field, working to update and improve the state's legislature in accordance with international standards, working to establish institutions and agencies to confront human trafficking crimes, and working to support the foundations of international cooperation with international organizations and institutions.

The UAE government is currently studying the establishment of a national human-rights commission.[68][69] Mean wages were $45.61 per manhour in 2009.

Foreign policy and military

Main articles: Foreign relations of the United Arab Emirates and Military of the United Arab Emirates

The UAE's liberal climate towards foreign cooperation, investment and modernization has prompted extensive diplomatic and commercial relations with other countries. It plays a significant role in OPEC and the UN, and is one of the founding members of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC).



United Arab Emirates Air Force F-16 Block 60 taking off from the Lockheed Martin plant in Fort Worth, Texas

Regionally, the UAE has a very close relationship with other GCC members as well as most of the Arab countries. The Emirates have long maintained close relations with Egypt and remain the highest investor in the country from among the rest of the Arab world.[70] Pakistan has also been a major recipient of economic aid and relations have been extremely close since the founding of the federation. Pakistan had been first to formally recognize the UAE upon its formation and continues to be one of its major economic and trading partners with about 400,000 expatriates receiving employment in the UAE.[71][72] India's large expat community in the UAE also has over the centuries evolved into current close political, economic and cultural ties. The largest demographic presence in the Emirates is Indian.[73] Like most countries in the region, the UAE and Iran dispute rights to a number of islands in the Persian Gulf but this has not significantly impacted relations because of the large Iranian community presence and strong economic ties.[74]



Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan with former Russian president, then Prime Minister, and now President again Vladimir Putin

Following the 1990 Iraq invasion of Kuwait, the UAE has maintained extensive relations with its allies for security and cooperation towards increasing interoperability of its defense forces and for liberating Kuwait. France and the United States have played the most strategically significant roles with defense cooperation agreements and military material provision.[75] Most recently, these relations culminated in a joint nuclear deal for the US to supply the UAE with nuclear power equipment, technology and fuel. In turn, the UAE – a Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) signatory – has agreed to open its nuclear facilities to full international inspections and refrain from producing its own reactor fuel.

Commercially, the UK and Germany are the UAE's largest export markets and bilateral relations have long been close as a large number of their nationals reside in the UAE.[76] [77]

Diplomatic relations between UAE and Japan were established as early as UAE's independence in December 1971.[78] The two countries had always enjoyed friendly ties and trade between each other. Exports from the UAE to Japan include crude oil and natural gas and imports from Japan to UAE include cars and electric items.[78]

The UAE is pursuing a policy of peaceful settling of the region's issues. The country supports the right of the Palestinian people to establish an independent state. At the second international conference to support the Palestinian economy and reconstruction of Gaza strip, which was held in Sharm el Sheikh, Egypt, the UAE said it would continue to offer political, economic and humanitarian support to the Palestinian cause. The UAE has provided over US$3 billion in aid to the Palestinians, including development funds for infrastructure, housing, hospital and school projects. In addition, the country donated US$174 million towards reconstruction in Gaza. The UAE has been an active supporter of the Iraqi Government in its efforts to draw up a comprehensive political formula to enable the country to achieve security and stability. It has one of the few functioning Arab embassies and resident ambassadors in Baghdad, and has canceled debts worth about US$7 billion to support Iraq’s reconstruction efforts. The UAE continues to contribute constructively to the international efforts aimed at stabilizing Afghanistan and supporting its bid to restore security. As part of its humanitarian and development assistance to Afghanistan, it provided US$550 million between 2002 and 2008. The UAE is the only Arab country performing humanitarian activities on the ground in Afghanistan.

One major diplomatic success for the UAE during 2009, which also reflected its growing international status, came with Abu Dhabi being chosen to host the headquarters of the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA). This is one of the few times that a developing country has had the opportunity to host the headquarters of a major international organization.[79]

Foreign aid

The UAE has continuously been a major contributor of emergency relief to regions affected by conflict and natural disasters in the developing world.[74] The main UAE governmental agency for foreign aid is the Abu Dhabi Fund for Development (ADFD) which was established in 1971. Since its establishment, the ADFD has provided over Dh12.6 billion (US$3.45 billion) in soft loans and grants to countries mainly in Africa.[80] Since 1971, these have accounted for a further Dh10 billion (US$2.7 billion), bringing the total amount of the loans, grants and investments provided by the fund or the Abu Dhabi government, and managed by the fund, to around Dh24 billion (US$6.5 billion), covering 258 different projects in a total of 52 countries.[81]

In November 2008 the Abu Dhabi Fund announced a long term loan of around US$278 million for rehabilitation of agricultural land in the state of Uzbekistan.[82] Between 1994 to mid-2008, for example, around Dh15.4 billion (US$4.2 billion) has been provided for the Palestinians, including, most recently, US$300 million pledged at a donor conference in Paris and an annual commitment of US$43 million to support the Palestine National Authority.[83]

The UAE has also used the Red Crescent authority and charities such as Dubai Cares and Noor Dubai to donate aid to foreign countries.

Political divisions

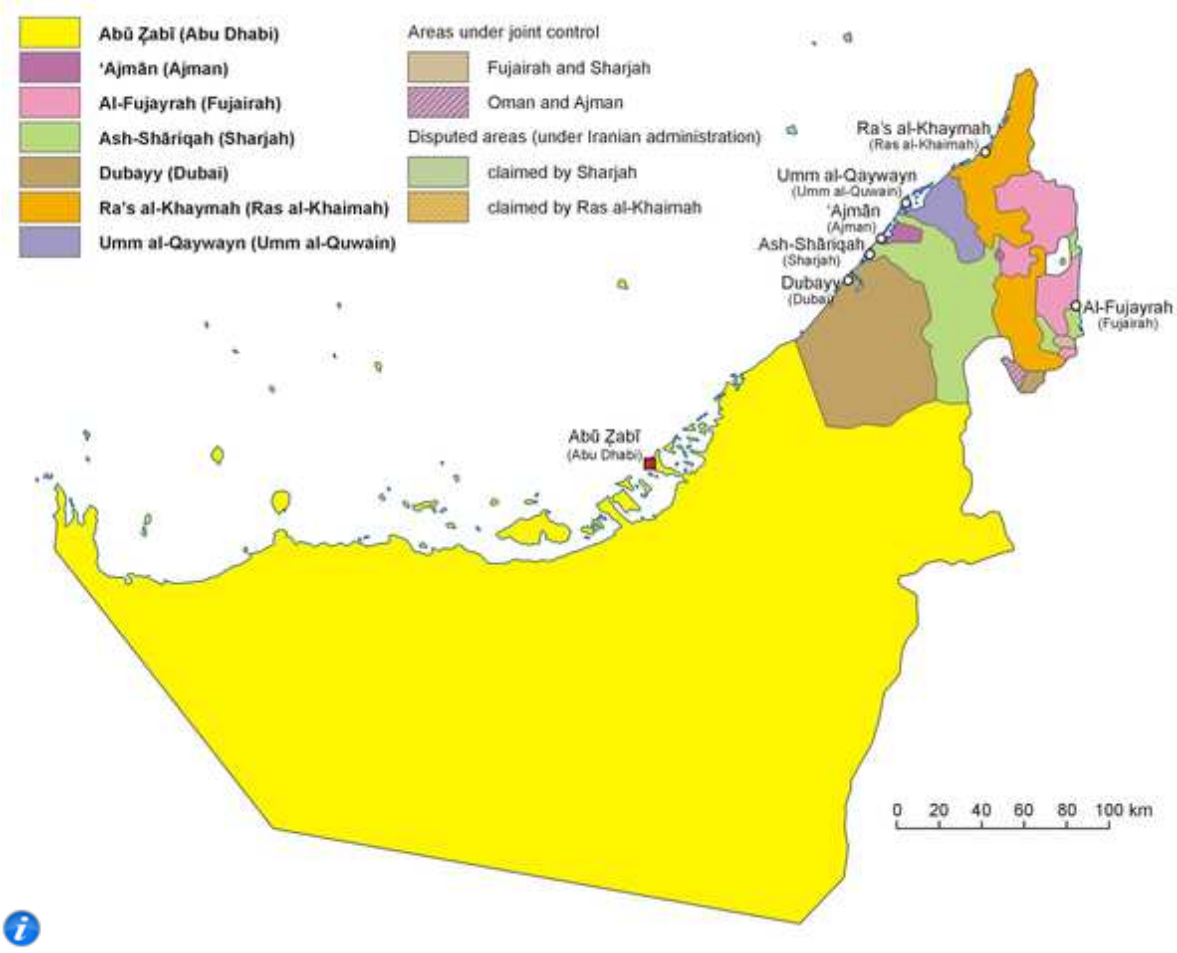
Main article: Emirates of the United Arab Emirates

See also: List of cities in the United Arab Emirates

The United Arab Emirates is divided into seven emirates. Abu Dhabi is the most populated Emirate with 38% of the UAE population. The city of Dubai has a further 30%, so over two-thirds of the UAE population live in either Abu Dhabi or Dubai.

Abu Dhabi has an area of 67,340 square kilometres, which is 86.7% of the country's total area, excluding the islands. It has a coastline extending for more than 400 kilometres and is divided for administrative purposes into three major regions. The Emirate of Dubai extends along the Persian Gulf coast of the UAE for approximately 72 kilometres. Dubai has an area of 3,885 square kilometers, which is equivalent to 5% of the country's total area, excluding the islands. The Emirate of Sharjah extends along approximately 16 kilometers of the UAE's Persian Gulf coastline and for more than 80 kilometers into the interior. The northern emirates which include Fujairah, Ajman, Ras al-Khaimah, and Umm al-Qaiwain all have a total area of 3,881 square kilometres. There are two areas under joint control. One is jointly controlled by Oman and Ajman, the other by Fujairah and Sharjah.

There is an Omani exclave surrounded by UAE territory, known as Wadi Madha. It is located halfway between the Musandam peninsula and the rest of Oman in the Emirate of Sharjah. It covers approximately 75 square kilometres (29 sq mi) and the boundary was settled in 1589. The north-east corner of Madha is closest to the Khor Fakkan-Fujairah road, barely 10 metres (33 ft) away. Within the Omani exclave of Madha, is a UAE exclave called Nahwa, also belonging to the Emirate of Sharjah. It is about 8 kilometres (5 mi) on a dirt track west of the town of New Madha. It consists of about forty houses with its own clinic and telephone exchange.



Demographics

Main article: Demographics of the United Arab Emirates

Historical populations

Year	Pop.	±%
1963	95,000	—
1968	180,226	+89.7%
1975	557,887	+209.5%
1980	1,042,099	+86.8%
1985	1,379,303	+32.4%
1995	2,411,041	+74.8%
1999	2,938,000	+21.9%
2005	4,106,427	+39.8%
2010	8,264,070	+101.2%

The United Arab Emirates first conducted a census in 1968. All population figures in this table prior to 1968 are estimates obtained from various sources.
Sources:[4][84]

Ethnicity (1982)

South Asian	50%
Emirati (Citizens)	19%
Other Arabs & Iranians	23%
Others (including Europeans & East Asians)	8%

Source: CIA[3]

In 2010, the UAE's population was estimated at 8,264,070,[4] of whom fewer than 20% were UAE nationals or Emiratis,[85] while the majority of the population were expatriates.[86] The country's net migration rate stands at 21.71, the world's highest.[87]

23% of the population are non-Emirati Arabs and Iranians and the majority of the population, about 50%, is from India.[3] Approximately 1.75 million Indian nationals reside in the UAE, making them the single largest expatriate community in the country. By 2020, Emiratis are projected to form only 10% of the population.[*citation needed*] There is also a growing presence of Europeans especially in multi-cultural cities such as Dubai [88] Those from other parts of Asia (including the Philippines, Iran or Sri Lanka) comprised up to 1 million people. The rest of the population were from other Arab states.[3][89]

Thousands of Palestinians, who came as either political refugees or temporary employment, also live in the United Arab Emirates. There is also a sizable population of people from Egypt, Somalia and Sudan who migrated to the UAE before its formation. The UAE has also attracted a small number of expatriates from countries in Europe, North America, Asia, and Oceania.[90] More than 100,000 British nationals live in the country.[91]

The population of the UAE has a skewed sex distribution: With a male/female sex ratio of 2.2 for the total population and 2.75 for the 15–65 age group, the UAE's gender imbalance is the highest in the world.[92]

The most populated city is Dubai, with approximately 1.7 million people. Other major cities include Abu Dhabi, Al-Ain, Sharjah, and Fujairah. About 88% of the population of the United Arab Emirates is urban.[93] The remaining inhabitants live in tiny towns scattered throughout the country or in the many desert oilfield camps in the nation.

The average life expectancy is 75 years, higher than any other Arab country.[94]

Largest cities of the United Arab Emirates

2008 Calculation



Dubai



Abu Dhabi

Rank	City name	Emirate	Pop.
1	**Dubai**	Dubai	1,770,533
2	**Abu Dhabi**	Abu Dhabi	896,751
3	**Sharjah**	Sharjah	845,617
4	**Al Ain**	Abu Dhabi	374,000
5	**Ajman**	Ajman	372,923
6	**Ras Al Khaimah**	Ras al Khaimah	171,903
7	**Fujairah**	Fujairah	107,940
8	**Um Al Quwain**	Um Al Quwain	69,936
9	**Khor Fakkan**	Sharjah	49,635
10	**Dibba**	Fujairah	30,000



Sharjah



Al Ain

Religion

Main article: Religion in the United Arab Emirates

Islam is the largest and the official state religion of the UAE, though the government follows a policy of tolerance toward other religions and rarely interferes in the activities of non-Muslims.[95]

However, it is illegal in the UAE to spread the ideas of any religion apart from Islam through any form of media as it is considered a form of proselytizing. There are approximately 31 churches throughout the country and one Hindu temple in the region of Bur Dubai.[96]

Based on the Ministry of Economy census in 2005, 76% of the total population was Muslim, 9% Christian, and 15% other (mainly Hindu).[95] Census figures do not take into account the many "temporary" visitors and workers while also counting Baha'is and Druze as Muslim.[95] Non-Islamic religions are mainly followed by foreigners or expatriates. As the majority of the population are non-citizens, of the citizens 85% are Sunni Muslim while 15% are Shi'a Muslims.[95] Omani immigrants are mostly Ibadi, while Sufi influences exist too.[97]

In 2011 was built the first in the history of Christianity, the Orthodox temple complex in the United Arab Emirates - St. Philip the Apostle, which is located in Sharjah. Yuri Sidorenko became a churchwarden (sponsor) of this temple complex.[98]

Education

Main article: Education in the United Arab Emirates

Literacy rate	
Year	**Rate**
1989	53.5%
2000	79%
2003	77.9%
2007	91%[99]
The illiteracy rate is mainly in the adult population, as a large majority of the population is foreign labourers. Sources:[53][3]	

The education system through secondary level is monitored by the Ministry of Education. It consists of primary schools, middle schools and high schools.[100] The public schools are government-funded and the curriculum is created to match the United Arab Emirates development's goals and values. The medium of instruction in the public school is Arabic with emphasis on English as a second language. There are also many private schools which are internationally accredited. Public schools in the country are free for citizens of the UAE, while the fees for private schools vary.

There has been significant improvement in private education across the UAE. This is particularly important given the fact that a relatively high percentage of students in the Emirates are enrolled in private schools: in Dubai 50% of all students are in private schools, while the number for Abu Dhabi stands at around 40%.

Many private international schools in the UAE are accredited by international bodies and there are currently 17 International Baccalaureate schools operating in the country, all of which have obtained approval from the International Baccalaureate Organization in Geneva to run their programs.

Reforms to special education are under way across the country. In 2006, the Cabinet passed the UAE Disabilities

Act, a comprehensive law that requires public and private schools to provide equal access to all children. The law was subsequently amended in 2009 to replace references to disability with the phrase "special needs".

The higher education system is monitored by the Ministry of Higher Education. The ministry also is responsible for admitting students to its undergraduate institutions.[101]

A recent survey showed that the illiteracy rate is on the decline in the UAE, and is now in the region of 7%. This is mainly owing to programmes that combat illiteracy amongst the adult population. Currently there are thousands of nationals pursuing formal learning at 86 adult education centres spread across the country.[102]

In fall 2009, the Masdar Institute of Science and Technology (MIST) opened its doors to its first class of graduate students. The Dubai School of Government (DSG), a research and teaching institution focusing on good governance and public policy in the Middle East, launched its first masters program also in 2009. A number of foreign universities, from the Paris Sorbonne to Michigan State University, have opened campuses in the UAE. In February 2008, a branch of the New York Film Academy opened in Abu Dhabi; it launched its first bachelor's degree program in 2010. In fall 2010 the opening of the Abu Dhabi campus of New York University marked a new milestone. INSEAD, one of the world's largest graduate business schools, has been operating a Middle East campus in Abu Dhabi since 2007, and now runs seven executive-education programs.

The Government has launched many programs and initiatives to improve the quality of education at schools across the country.

The UAE has shown a strong interest in improving education and research. Enterprises include the establishment of the CERT Research Centers and the Masdar Institute of Science and Technology and institute for enterprise development.[103]

Health

Main article: Healthcare in the United Arab Emirates

Standards of healthcare are considered to be generally high in the United Arab Emirates, resulting from increased government spending during strong economic years. According to the UAE government, total expenditures on healthcare from 1996 to 2003 were US$436 million. According to the World Health Organization, in 2006 total expenditures on health care constituted 2.6% of gross domestic product (GDP), and the per capita expenditure for health care was US$673. General government expenditure on health as percentage of total government expenditure is 8.7% and Health care currently is free only for UAE citizens, with a health insurance scheme in place for those working the Emirates. Hospital beds (per 10 000 population) was 18 in 2005. The number of doctors per 100,000 (annual average, 1990–2005) was 17 and dentistry personnel (per 100 000 population) was 30 in 2002. The pharmaceutical personnel (per 100 000 population) was 40.



Dubai Healthcare City is a specifically designated city for clinical and wellness services, medical education and research launched by the government to attract global companies to the city

The life expectancy at birth in the UAE is at 78.5 years.[94] According to World Health Organisation (WHO) statistics, the UAE is ranked fourth in the world in terms of health care.

In February 2008, the Ministry of Health unveiled a five-year health strategy for the public health sector in the northern emirates, which fall under its purview and which, unlike Abu Dhabi and Dubai, do not have separate

healthcare authorities. The strategy focuses on unifying healthcare policy and improving access to healthcare services at reasonable cost, at the same time reducing dependence on overseas treatment. The ministry plans to add three hospitals to the current 14, and 29 primary healthcare centres to the current 86. Nine were scheduled to open in 2008.[104]

The introduction of mandatory health insurance in Abu Dhabi for expatriates and their dependents was a major driver in reform of healthcare policy. Abu Dhabi nationals were brought under the scheme from 1 June 2008 and Dubai followed for its government employees. Eventually, under federal law, every Emirati and expatriate in the country will be covered by compulsory health insurance under a unified mandatory scheme.[105] Recently the country has been benefiting from medical tourists from all over the GCC. The UAE currently attracts medical tourists seeking plastic surgery and advanced procedures, cardiac and spinal surgery, and dental treatment, as health services have higher standards than other Arab countries in the Persian Gulf.[106]

Cardiovascular disease is the principal cause of death in the UAE, constituting 28% of total deaths; other major causes are accidents and injuries, malignancies, and congenital anomalies.[107] Diabetes and Cancer are also the main causes of death in the country, and statistics have indicated that the UAE has one of the highest rates of diabetes in the world.

Economy

Main article: Economy of the United Arab Emirates

Economic indicators	
Unemployment	4%May 2009 [note 1]
GDP growth	3.20%2010 [108]
CPI inflation	1.9%April 2008 – April 2009 [109]
National debt	$142 billionJune 18, 2009 [110]

At the time of independence, the UAE was already regarded as a rich country with GDP per capita exceeding US$ 2,000. In 2011, UAE is ranked as the 14th best nation in the world for doing business based on its economy and regulatory environment, ranked by the Doing Business 2011 Report published by the World Bank Group[111]

The UAE has an open economy with one of the highest per capita incomes in the world and a sizable annual trade surplus. In 2009, its GDP, as measured by purchasing power parity, stood at US$ 400.4 billion.[3] The GDP per capita is currently the third in the world and second in the Middle East, after Qatar and Kuwait as measured by the CIA World Factbook, or the 17th in the world as measured by the International Monetary Fund.



Dubai is the richest city in Western Asia.

With almost US$ 1 trillion in foreign invested assets, some[*citation needed*] argue the UAE to be the richest, with the highest average income in the world. Over half of this money is generated by the nation's capital, Abu Dhabi. With a population of just under 900,000 Abu Dhabi was labeled "The richest city in the world" by a CNN article [112][*citation needed*].

UAE's economy, particularly that of Dubai, was badly hit by the financial crisis of 2007–2010.[113] In 2009, the country's economy shrank by 4.00%, but UAE's overseas investments are expected to support its full economic recovery.[108] However, concern remains about the property sector. Property prices in Dubai fell dramatically when Dubai World, the government construction company, sought to delay a debt payment.[114] The ability to service debt remains a

problem.[115]

Petroleum and natural gas exports play an important role in the economy, especially in Abu Dhabi. More than 85% of the UAE's economy was based on the exports of natural resources in 2009.[3][116]

A massive construction boom, an expanding manufacturing base, and a thriving services sector are helping the UAE diversify its economy.[*citation needed*] Nationwide, there is currently $350 billion worth of active construction projects. Aluminum, steel, iron and other forms of metal exports along with textile produce much a significant amount of income and are expected to surpass the income brought in by petroleum and natural gas exports within the next 40 to 60 years.[*citation needed*] Government projects include the Burj Khalifa, which is the world's tallest building, Dubai World Central International Airport which, when completed, will be the most expensive airport ever built, and the three Palm Islands, the largest artificial islands in the world. Other projects include the Dubai Mall which is the world's largest shopping mall, and a man-made archipelago called The World which seeks to increase Dubai's rapidly growing tourism industry. Also in the entertainment sector is the construction of Dubailand, which is expected to be twice the size of Disney World, and of Dubai Sports City which will not only provide homes for local sports teams but may be part of future Olympic bids. However, this is concern that this construction boom has been built on debt and speculation, with little creation of true economic value.

Major increases in imports occurred in manufactured goods, machinery, and transportation equipment, which together accounted for 80% of total imports. Another important foreign exchange earner, the Abu Dhabi Investment Authority – which controls the investments of Abu Dhabi, the wealthiest emirate – manages an estimated $360 billion in overseas investments & an estimated $900 billion in assets.

More than 200 factories operate at the Jebel Ali complex in Dubai, which includes a deep-water port and a free trade zone for manufacturing and distribution in which all goods for re-export or transshipment enjoy a 100% duty exemption. A major power plant with associated water desalination units, an aluminium smelter, and a steel fabrication unit are prominent facilities in the complex. The complex is currently undergoing expansion, with sections of land set aside for different sectors of industry. A large international passenger and cargo airport, Dubai World Central International Airport, with associated logistics, manufacturing and hospitality industries, is also planned here.

Except in the free trade zones, the UAE requires at least 51% local citizen ownership in all businesses operating in the country as part of its attempt to place Emiratis into leadership positions. However, this law is under review and the majority ownership clause will very likely be scrapped in order to bring the country into line with World Trade Organisation regulations.



Emirati exports in 2006

As a member of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), the UAE participates in the wide range of GCC activities that focus on economic issues. These include regular consultations and development of common policies covering trade, investment, banking and finance, transportation, telecommunications, and other technical areas, including protection of intellectual property rights.

The currency of the United Arab Emirates is the Emirati Dirham.

Infrastructure

Main articles: Transport in the United Arab Emirates and Developments in Dubai

The UAE has been spending billions of dollars on infrastructure and is the biggest projects market in the region, accounting for 37% of total project value within the construction, oil and gas, petrochemicals, power and water and waste sectors. Many huge investments have been poured into real estate, tourism and leisure. These developments are particularly evident in the larger emirates of Abu Dhabi and Dubai. In the former, Masdar City and Saadiyat Island highlight the status as an emerging market. Dubai World Central, a 140-square kilometre multi-phase development under construction near Jebel Ali, will create 900,000 jobs, and will include Al Maktoum International Airport, which will be the largest airport in the world by 2020. Property developer Emaar's Burj Khalifa is a Dh3.67 billion (US$1billion) tower that is the world's tallest skyscraper.

Governments in the northern emirates are rapidly following suit, providing major incentives for developers of residential and commercial property.[120] In addition, UAE President Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan has allocated Dh16 billion (US$4.4 billion) for infrastructure projects in the northern emirates. The allocation will be used to fund the construction of road networks, new housing communities, drainage networks and other projects, providing integrated solutions to some infrastructure deficits in these areas.[121]

The United Arab Emirates has an extensive road network that connects all major cities and towns. Roads in the western and southern regions are still relatively undeveloped. Those are highly dangerous roads passing through desert regions and many are still unsealed, gravel roads. This has resulted in the continued use of airplanes as the main or alternative mode of transportation for the residents.[122]

There are seaports throughout the country. The major ports are Port Jebel Ali, Port Rashid, Port Khalid, Port Saeed, Port Khor Fakkan, and Port Zayed.[123]

The UAE contains a number of significant airports. Dubai International Airport (DXB) is the main airport of the country. In 2008, the airport was the 20th busiest airport in the world by passenger traffic and 11th busiest by cargo traffic. The airport also was the 6th busiest airport in the world by international passenger traffic.[124] Other important airports include Abu Dhabi International Airport, Sharjah International Airport, and Al-Ain International Airport. There are also airports in smaller towns, as well as small domestic airstrips in the rural Western region. There are daily flight services between West and East UAE, which is the only convenient option for passengers travelling between the two parts of the country to places such as Sir Bani Yas.[125] The UAE is home to the largest airline in the Middle East, Emirates Airline. It has Dubai as its hub, and flies to over 100 destinations across six continents. The airline was the eighth-largest airline in the world in terms of international passengers carried,[126] and fifth-largest[127] in the world in terms of scheduled international passenger-kilometres flown in 2008. Etihad Airways, from Abu Dhabi, is also growing,



A highway interchange in Dubai



Jebel Ali Port is the largest port in the Middle East, and the seventh busiest in the world



Terminal 3 at Dubai International Airport is the second largest building in the world by floor space[117] and has increased the total capacity of the airport to 60 million passengers per year



The Red Line on the Dubai Metro. The Dubai Metro is the first urban train network in the Arabian Peninsula.[118]



with over 100 aircraft on order.

The Etisalat Tower in Dubai. Based in Abu Dhabi, Etisalat is the 14th largest mobile network operator in the world, with a total customer base of 100 million.[119]

The Dh15.5 billion (US$4.2 billion) Dubai Metro project includes a 52-kilometre Red Line viaduct, which stretches the length of Sheikh Zayed Road between Al Rashidiya and Jebel Ali and was opened in September 2009 after round-the-clock work for three years. The Red Line when fully complete will carry an estimated 27,000 passengers per hour in each direction on 42 trains.[128] Work also on the Green Line, which will link Al Qusais to Dubai Healthcare City, began in 2006 and is scheduled for completion in late 2010.[129] In Abu Dhabi plans are underway for all a metro system and also a country-wide national railway, which will connect all the major cities and is later to connect to the GCC wide network.[130] The cost for the railway will be between Dh25bn and Dh30bn, and will be a total length of 1,100 kilometres, connecting Ghuwaifat, bordering the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, in the west and the border with the Sultanate of Oman in the east.[131]

The Federal Electricity and Water Authority (FEWA) is the body responsible for overseeing federal utilities, whilst authorities in individual emirates, including Abu Dhabi Water and Electricity Authority (ADWEA), Dubai Water and Electricity Authority (DEWA) and Sharjah Water and Electricity Authority (SEWA), oversee power and water generation in their individual emirates. The UAE plans to build 68 rechargeable dams in the coming five years to augment the 114 dams in existence, all but two of which are rechargeable, to help with providing for the growing population.

The UAE is also planning to develop a peaceful nuclear energy programme to generate electricity. So far, the UAE has signed peaceful nuclear agreements with France, United States, and South Korea, and a MOU with the United Kingdom.[132]

The UAE is presently serviced by two telecommunications operators, Etisalat and Emirates Integrated Telecommunications Company ("du"). Etisalat operated a monopoly until du launched mobile services in February 2007.[133] However, Etisalat, with over 80% of the market, remains the UAE's biggest telecom provider and is expanding dramatically internationally and is now the sixteenth largest telecommunications firm in the world.[134] Du is targeting a 30% market share by 2010. Between 2002 and 2007, the number of mobile phone subscribers in the UAE grew by an annual average of 25.6%, almost four times its population growth. In 2007, there were 7.7 million subscribers. Forecasts indicate that the UAE mobile market will increase to 11.9 million users by 2012.[135]

Current UAE internet penetration figures assume 2.4 users per subscription. TRA projections indicate that over the next few years growth in both users and subscriptions will be coupled with a fall in the number of users per subscription: the number of subscribers are expected to increase from 0.904 million in 2007 to 1.15 million in 2008, 1.44 million in 2009 and 2.66 million in 2012.[136] Internet use is extensive; by 2007 there were 1.7 million users.[137] The authorities filter websites for religious, political and sexual content.[138]

Culture

Main article: Culture of the United Arab Emirates



Life in the UAE

The United Arab Emirates has a diverse and multicultural society.[139] The country's cultural imprint as a small, ethnically homogenous pearling community was changed with the arrival of other ethnic groups and nationals—first by the Iranians in the early 1900s, and later by Indians and Pakistanis in the 1960s. Despite the diversity of the population,


A traditional *souk* in Deira, Dubai

only minor and infrequent episodes of ethnic tensions have been reported in the country. Major holidays in Dubai include *Eid al Fitr*, which marks the end of *Ramadan*, and National Day (2 December), which marks the formation of the United Arab Emirates.[140]

Emirati culture mainly revolves around the religion of Islam and traditional Arab, and Bedouin culture. The influence of Islamic and Arab culture on the region's architecture, music, attire, cuisine and lifestyle are very prominent as well. Five times every day, Muslims are called to prayer from the minarets of mosques which are scattered around the country.[141] Since 2006, the weekend has been Friday-Saturday, as a compromise between Friday's holiness to Muslims and the Western weekend of Saturday-Sunday.[142]

Cuisine
Culture
Communications
Cinema
Demography
Education
Geography
Human rights
Military
Media
Politics
Music
Transport
Religion
Sport
Tourism

This unique socioeconomic development in the Persian Gulf has meant that the UAE is relatively liberal. While Islam is the main religion, the UAE has been known for its tolerant practices. Christian churches can be found alongside mosques and this courtesy has seemingly been extended to Hinduism and Sikhism as there is a place tucked away inside a residential style building which houses a Hindu temple and a Sikh gurudwara. There is evidently no persecution of Hindus or Sikhs which is why it is home to several communities that have faced persecution elsewhere, who are now contributing to the cosmopolitan atmosphere. There are a variety of Asian-influenced schools, cultural centers and restaurants. Increasing numbers of European centers, schools, and restaurants can also be seen in the UAE.

Dress and etiquette

Most Emirati males prefer to wear a kandura, an ankle-length white tunic woven from wool or cotton, and most Emirati women wear an abaya, a black over-garment covering most parts of the body.[143] Western-style clothing is, however, dominant because of the large expatriate population, and this practice is beginning to grow in popularity among Emiratis.

Etiquette is an important aspect of UAE culture and tradition, to which visitors are expected to conform. Recently, many expatriates have disregarded the law and been arrested for indecent clothing at beaches.[144] Western-style dress is tolerated in appropriate places, such as bars or clubs, but the UAE has maintained a strict policy of protecting highly public spaces from cultural insensitivity. This is due, in large part, to the effects such practices are considered to have on the social integration and participation of a largely conservative Emirati population.

Food

Main article: Emirati cuisine

See also: Arab cuisine

The traditional food of the Emirates has always been rice, fish, and meat. The people of the United Arab Emirates have adopted most of their foods from the surrounding countries including Iran, Saudi Arabia, and Oman. Seafood has been the mainstay of the Emirati diet for centuries. Meat and rice are other staple foods; lamb and mutton are the more favored meats, then goat and beef. Popular beverages are coffee and tea, which can be supplemented with cardamom, saffron, or mint to give them a distinct flavor.[145]

Muslims are prohibited from eating pork, so it is not included in local menus. Hotels frequently have pork substitutes such as beef sausages and veal rashers on their breakfast menus. If pork is available, it is clearly labeled as such.

Alcohol is generally only served in hotel restaurants and bars (but not in Sharjah). All nightclubs and golf clubs are permitted to sell alcohol. Specific supermarkets may sell alcohol and pork, but these products are sold in separate sections.[146]

Dishes forming part of the Emirati cuisine:[147]

- Machboos
- Harees
- Lukaimat
- Batheeth
- Khamir
- Al-Madrooba
- Al-Saloona (curry)
- Fareed
- Al-Khabeesah
- Al-Khanfaroosh
- Raqaq (flat)
- Al Jabab bread



Traditional Emirati tea

Literature and poetry

The main themes in Emirati poetry for Arab Poets range from satire, chivalry, self-praise, patriotism, religion, family and love, and could range from descriptive to narrative.

The style and form of ancient poetry in the UAE was strongly influenced by the 8th-century Arab scholar Al Khalil bin Ahmed. This form underwent slight modification (Al Muwashahat) during the period of Islamic civilization in Andalucia (Spain).

The earliest known poet in the UAE is Ibn Majid, who was born between 1432 and 1437 in Ras Al-Khaimah. Coming from a family of successful sailors, Ibn Majid's oeuvre has a total of 40 surviving compositions, 39 of which are verses.

The greatest luminaries in the UAE literary realm during the 20th century, particularly for Classical Arabic poetry, were Mubarak Al Oqaili (1880–1954), Salem bin Ali al Owais (1887–1959) and Ahmed bin Sulayem (1905–1976). Three other poets from Sharjah, known as the Hirah group, also thrived during the 20th century including Khalfan Musabah (1923–1946), Sheikh Saqr Al Qasimi (1925–1993), an ex-ruler of Sharjah, and Sultan bin Ali al Owais (1925–2000). The Hirah group's works are observed to have been heavily influenced by the Apollo and romantic poets.[148]

The meeting of classical Arabic poetry and media continued through the regionally highly successful television shows – *Million's Poet* and *The Prince of Poets* – broadcast on Abu Dhabi TV and poetry TV channels. *The Prince of Poets* also won the International Broadcasting Award in London in the specialist genre TV category.

There are three annual book fairs in the UAE, the well-known Sharjah International Book Fair, the oldest and largest in the country, its Abu Dhabi counterpart and the newly launched Al-Ain Book Fair.

The UAE has a booming magazine and newspaper industry. the biggest selling English language magazine is Ahlan! magazine. The biggest selling English language newspaper is Gulf News.

Museums and art galleries

Many emirates have established museums of regional repute, most famously Sharjah with its Heritage District containing 17 museums,[149] which in 1998 was the Cultural Capital of the Arab World.[150] Abu Dhabi's cultural foundation is also an important place for the presentation of indigenous and foreign art. In Dubai, the area of Al Quoz has attracted a number of art galleries.[151]

Abu Dhabi has embarked on the path to become an art center of international caliber, by creating a culture district on Saadiyat Island. There, six grand projects are planned: the Sheikh Zayed National Museum by Foster + Partners, the modern art museum Guggenheim Abu Dhabi to be built by Frank Gehry, the classical museum Louvre Abu Dhabi by Jean Nouvel, a maritime museum by Tadao Ando, a Performing Arts Center by Zaha Hadid, and a Biennale Park with 16 pavilions.[152]

Dubai also plans to build a Kunsthal museum and a district for galleries and artists.[153]

2009 saw the UAE's first pavilion at the Venice Biennale, one of the top cultural events in Europe. The pavilion was called 'It's Not You, It's Me' and was designed to offer a playful and provocative look at what has been described as the world's most prestigious contemporary art event. This was the first occasion on which a country from the Persian Gulf has taken part in the Biennale.

Music, dance and cinema

Main articles: Music of the United Arab Emirates and Cinema of the United Arab Emirates

The United Arab Emirates is a part of the khaliji tradition, and is also known for Bedouin folk music. Liwa is a type of music and dance performed mainly in communities which contain descendants of East Africans.[154] During celebrations singing and dancing also took place and many of the songs and dances, handed down from generation to generation, have survived to the present time. Young girls would dance by swinging their long black hair and swaying their bodies in time to the strong beat of the music. Men would re-enact battles fought or successful hunting expeditions, often symbolically using sticks, swords or rifles.

Hollywood movies are the most popular in the UAE. The UAE has an active music scene, with musicians Amr Diab, Diana Haddad, Tarkan, Aerosmith, Santana, Mark Knopfler, Christina Aguilera, Elton John, Pink, Shakira, Celine Dion, Coldplay, Ahlam, and Phil Collins and a slew of Bollywood stars having performed in the country. Kylie Minogue was paid 4.4 million dollars to perform at the opening of the Atlantis resort on November 20, 2008.[155] The Dubai Desert Rock Festival is also another major festival consisting of heavy metal and rock artists.[156]



UAE's Traditional dance, Yowalah

In 2009 the highly successful Abu Dhabi Classics series celebrated its second season by treating the Emirates Palace audience to the Middle Eastern debut of the New York Philharmonic with pieces by Beethoven and Mahler, as well as holding a concert inside the recently renovated Jahili Fort in Al-Ain.

Sports

Main article: Sport in the United Arab Emirates


Dubai Tennis Championships 2006

Association football is the national sport of the United Arab Emirates. Emirati Soccer clubs Al-Ain, Al-Wasl, Al-Shabbab ACD, Al-Sharjah, Al-Wahda, and Al-Ahli are the most popular teams and enjoy the reputation of long-time regional champions.[157] The great rivalries keep the UAE energized as people fill the streets when their favorite team wins. The United Arab Emirates Football Association was first established in 1971 and since then has dedicated its time and effort to promoting the game, organizing youth programs and improving the abilities of not only its players, but of the officials and coaches involved with its regional teams. The UAE football team qualified for the World Cup in 1990—with Egypt it was the third consecutive World Cup with two Arab nations qualifying after Kuwait and Algeria in 1982 and Iraq and Algeria again in 1986. The UAE also recently won the Gulf Cup Championship held in Abu Dhabi January 2007.[158]

Cricket is one of the most popular sports in the UAE, largely because of the expatriate population from the Indian subcontinent, the United Kingdom, and Australia. The Sharjah Cricket Association Stadium in Sharjah has hosted 4 international Test matches so far.[159] Sheikh Zayed Stadium and Al Jazira Mohammed Bin Zayed Stadium in Abu Dhabi also host international cricket matches. Dubai has two cricket stadiums (Dubai Cricket Ground No.1 and No.2) with a third, 'S3' currently under construction as part of Dubai Sports City. Dubai is also home to the International Cricket Council.[160] The United Arab Emirates national cricket team qualified for the 1996 Cricket World Cup and narrowly missed out on qualification for the 2007 Cricket World Cup.[161]

Formula One is particularly popular in the United Arab Emirates, and is annually held at the picturesque Yas Marina Circuit. The race is held at evening time, and is the first ever Grand Prix to start in daylight and finish at night.[162]

Other popular sports include camel racing, falconry, endurance riding, and tennis.[163]

See also

- Outline of the United Arab Emirates
- Index of United Arab Emirates-related articles
- Takatof
- UAE eGovernment

Notes

1. ^ The unemployment rate may be much higher as many people have become unemployed due to the global economic crisis taking a heavy toll on property values, construction and employment.

References

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History of the United Arab Emirates

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The United Arab Emirates was formed from the group of tribally organised Arabian Peninsula sheikhdoms along the southern coast of the Persian Gulf and the northwestern coast of the Gulf of Oman.

Contents

- 1 Advent of Islam
- 2 Portuguese control
- 3 British and Ottoman rule
- 4 The Treaty of 1892
- 5 The rise and fall of the pearling industry
- 6 The beginning of the oil era
- 7 Border disputes
- 8 Sheikh Zayed and the Union
- 9 Involvement in US "War on Terror"
- 10 Death of Sheikhs Zayed and Maktoum
- 11 Arab Spring
- 12 See also
- 13 References

Advent of Islam

Main article: Islam in the United Arab Emirates

The arrival of envoys from Muhammad in 630 heralded the conversion of the region to Islam. After Muhammad's death one of the major battles of the Ridda Wars was fought at Dibba, resulting in the defeat of the non-Muslims and the triumph of Islam in the Arabian Peninsula.

In 637, Julfar (today Ras al-Khaimah) was used as a staging post for the conquest of Iran. Over many centuries, Julfar became a wealthy port and pearling center from which dhows traveled throughout the Indian Ocean.

Portuguese control

See also: Portuguese Empire and History of Oman

Portuguese expansion into the Indian Ocean in the early 16th century following Vasco da Gama's route of exploration saw them battle the Ottomans up the coast of the Persian Gulf. The Portuguese controlled the area for 150 years in which they conquered the inhabitants of the Arabian peninsula.[1] Vasco da Gama was helped by Ahmad ibn Mājid, a navigator and cartographer from Julfar, to find the route of spices from Asia.[2][3]

British and Ottoman rule

portions of the nation came under the direct influence of the Ottoman Empire during the 16th century.[4]

Thereafter, the region was known to the British as the "Pirate Coast", as raiders based there harassed the shipping industry despite both European and Omani navies patrolling the area from the 17th century into the 19th century.[5] British expeditions to protect the Indian trade from raiders at Ras al-Khaimah led to campaigns against that headquarters and other harbours along the coast in 1819. The next year, a peace treaty was signed to which all the sheikhs of the coast adhered. Raids continued intermittently until 1835, when the sheikhs agreed not to engage in hostilities at sea. In 1853, they signed a treaty with the United Kingdom, under which the sheikhs (the Trucial Sheikhdoms) agreed to a "perpetual maritime truce". It was enforced by the United Kingdom, and disputes among sheikhs were referred to the British for settlement.[6]



Flag of the Trucial Coast

The Treaty of 1892

Primarily in reaction to the ambitions of other European countries, the United Kingdom and the Trucial Sheikhdoms established closer bonds in an 1892 treaty, similar to treaties entered into by the UK with other Persian Gulf principalities. The sheikhs agreed not to dispose of any territory except to the United Kingdom and not to enter into relationships with any foreign government other than the United Kingdom without its consent. In return, the British promised to protect the Trucial Coast from all aggression by sea and to help in case of land attack.[7]

The rise and fall of the pearling industry

During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the pearling industry thrived in the relative calm at sea, providing both income and employment to the people of the Persian Gulf. It began to become a good economic resource for the local people. The First World War had a severe impact on the pearl fishery, but it was the Great Depression of the late 1920s and early 1930s, coupled with the Japanese invention of the cultured pearl, that all but destroyed it. The industry eventually faded away shortly after the Second World War, when the newly independent Government of India imposed heavy taxation on pearls imported from the Arab states of the Persian Gulf.[8] The decline of pearling resulted in a very difficult era, with little opportunity to build any infrastructure.

The beginning of the oil era

In the beginning of the 1960s, the first oil company teams carried out preliminary surveys and the first cargo of crude was exported from Abu Dhabi in 1962. As oil revenues increased, the ruler of Abu Dhabi, Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, undertook a massive construction program, building schools, housing, hospitals and roads. When Dubai's oil exports commenced in 1969, Sheikh Rashid bin Saeed Al Maktoum, the ruler of Dubai, was also able to use oil revenues to improve the quality of life of his people.[9]

Border disputes

In 1955, the United Kingdom sided with Abu Dhabi in the latter's dispute with Oman over the Buraimi Oasis, another territory to the south.[10] A 1974 agreement between Abu Dhabi and Saudi Arabia would have settled the Abu Dhabi – Saudi border dispute; however, the agreement has yet to be ratified by the UAE government and is not recognised by the Saudi government. The border with Oman also remains officially unsettled, but the two governments agreed to delineate the border in May 1999.[11]

Sheikh Zayed and the Union

In the early 1960s, oil was discovered in Abu Dhabi, an event that led to quick unification calls made by UAE sheikdoms. Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan became ruler of Abu Dhabi in 1966 and the British started losing their oil investments and contracts to U.S. oil companies.[12]



Al Fahdi Fort in Dubai in the late 1950s

The British had earlier started a development office that helped in some small developments in the emirates. The sheikhs of the emirates then decided to form a council to coordinate matters between them and took over the development office. They formed the Trucial States Council,[13] and appointed Adi Bitar, Sheikh Rashid bin Saeed Al Maktoum's legal advisor, as Secretary General and Legal Advisor to the Council. The council was terminated once the United Arab Emirates was formed.[14]

In 1968, the United Kingdom announced its decision, reaffirmed in March 1971, to end the treaty relationships with the seven Trucial Sheikhdoms which had been, together with Bahrain and Qatar, under British protection. The nine attempted to form a union of Arab emirates, but by mid-1971 they were still unable to agree on terms of union, even though the British treaty relationship was to expire in December of that year.[15]



Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan

Bahrain became independent in August, and Qatar in September 1971. When the British – Trucial Sheikhdoms treaty expired on December 1, 1971, they became fully independent.[16]

The rulers of Abu Dhabi and Dubai decided to form a union between their two emirates independently, prepare a constitution, then call the rulers of the other five emirates to a meeting and offer them the opportunity to join. It was also agreed between the two that the constitution be written by December 2, 1971.[17]

On that date, at the Dubai Guesthouse Palace, four other emirates agreed to enter into a union called the United Arab Emirates. Ras al-Khaimah joined later, in early 1972.[18][19]

Involvement in US "War on Terror"

After the 9/11 terrorist attacks on the United States, the UAE was identified as a major financial centre used by Al-Qaeda in transferring money to the hijackers. The nation immediately cooperated with the U.S, freezing accounts tied to suspected terrorists and strongly clamping down on money laundering.

The country had already signed a military defence agreement with the U.S. in 1994 and one with France in 1995.

The UAE supports military operations from the United States and other coalition nations engaged in the invasion of Afghanistan (2001) and Iraq (2003) as well as operations supporting the Global War on Terrorism for the Horn of Africa at Al Dhafra Air Base located outside of Abu Dhabi. The air base also supported Allied operations during the 1991 Persian Gulf War and Operation Northern Watch.

Death of Sheikhs Zayed and Maktoum

On 2 November 2004 the UAE's first ruler, Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, died. His eldest son, Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, succeeded as ruler of Abu Dhabi. In accordance with the constitution, the UAE's

Supreme Council of Rulers elected Khalifa as president. Sheikh Mohammad bin Zayed Al Nahyan succeeded Khalifa as Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi.[20] In January 2006, Sheikh Maktoum bin Rashid Al Maktoum, the prime minister of the UAE and the ruler of Dubai, died, and Crown Prince Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum assumed both roles.

Arab Spring

In 2011, the Middle East saw a number of pro-democratic uprisings, popularly known as the Arab Spring. The UAE saw comparatively little unrest, but did face one high-profile case in which five pro-democratic activists were arrested on charges of insulting President Khalifa, Vice President Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, and Crown Prince Mohammed bin Zayed Al Nahyan.[21] The trial of the UAE Five attracted international publicity and protest from a number of human rights groups,[22] including Amnesty International, which named the five men prisoners of conscience.[21] The defendants were convicted and given two- to three-year prison sentences on 27 November 2011, but were pardoned without comment by President Khalifa the following day.[23]

See also

- History of Asia
- History of the Middle East
- List of presidents of the United Arab Emirates
- List of Prime Ministers of the United Arab Emirates
- National Center for Documentation and Research
- Politics of the United Arab Emirates
- United Arab Emirates

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President of the United Arab Emirates

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The President is the Head of State of the United Arab Emirates. Because the current ruler of Abu Dhabi customarily also holds the presidency of the UAE, the office is *de facto* hereditary. The President is also Supreme Commander of the UAE Armed Forces and Chairman of the Supreme Council and Supreme Petroleum Council.

The current President is Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan. Nahyan became president on 3 November 2004, following the death of his father, Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan.

Contents

- 1 Presidents of the United Arab Emirates (1971–Present)
  - 1.1 House of Al Nahyan (1971–Present)
- 2 Insignia
- 3 See also
- 4 External links

Presidents of the United Arab Emirates (1971–Present)

House of Al Nahyan (1971–Present)

President of the United Arab Emirates

MONARCHY
FEDERAL



Arms of His Royal Majesty the President of the United Arab Emirates



Incumbent:
Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan
since 3 November 2004

Style:	His Royal Majesty
Heir apparent:	Mohammed bin Zayed Al Nahyan
First monarch:	Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan
Formation:	2 December 1971
Website:	Official Website (http://www.uaepresident.ae)

#	Name	Picture	Born-Died	Took Office	Left Office
1	Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan		1918–2004	2 December 1971	2 November 2004 (deceased)

-	Maktoum bin Rashid Al Maktoum (Acting)		1943–2006	2 November 2004	3 November 2004
2	Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan		1948–	3 November 2004	Incumbent

Insignia



Standard of the President, 1973 to 2008.



Standard of the President, 2008 to present.



Coat of arms, 1973 to 2008.



Coat of arms, 2008 to present.

See also

- Prime Minister of the United Arab Emirates

External links

- Official Website (http://www.uaepresident.ae)

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=President_of_the_United_Arab_Emirates&oldid=480022750"

Categories: Government of the United Arab Emirates | Presidents of the United Arab Emirates

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Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Sheikh **Khalifa bin Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan** (Arabic: خليفة بن زايد بن سلطان آل نهيان; born 25 January 1948; referred to as **Sheikh Khalifa**) is the President of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and emir of Abu Dhabi. He succeeded to both posts on 3 November 2004, taking rule over from his father Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan who had died the day before. He had effectively been acting president earlier, since his father was in ill health. Khalifa is also chairman of Abu Dhabi Fund for Development (ADFD).

Contents

- 1 Biography
  - 1.1 1966-1971
  - 1.2 Independence in 1971
  - 1.3 President (2004 –)
  - 1.4 Seychelles
- 2 Philanthropy
- 3 See also
- 4 References
- 5 External links

Biography

1966-1971

The eldest son of Sheikh Zayed, Khalifa was appointed as Ruler's Representative in the Eastern Region of Abu Dhabi (the mayor) and as Head of the Courts Department in Al Ain in 1966, as his father Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan became the new ruler of Abu Dhabi. Zayed was the Ruler's Representative in the Eastern Region. Few months later the position was handed to Tahnoun bin Mohammed Al Nahyan[2]

On 1 February 1969, Sheikh Khalifa was nominated as the Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi, and on the next day he was appointed as the Head of the Abu Dhabi Department of Defense, in which post he oversaw the building up of the Abu Dhabi Defense Force, ADDF, which later became the nucleus of the UAE Armed Forces.

Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan



2nd President of the United Arab Emirates

Incumbent

Assumed office

3 November 2004

Prime Minister	Maktoum bin Rashid Al Maktoum (2004-06) Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum (2006-)
Vice President	Maktoum bin Rashid Al Maktoum (2004-06) Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum (2006-)
Preceded by	Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan

2nd Deputy Prime Minister of the United Arab Emirates

In office

1973–1977

President	Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan
Prime Minister	Maktoum bin Rashid Al Maktoum
Preceded by	Hamdan bin Rashid Al Maktoum
Succeeded by	Hamdan bin Mohammed Al Nahyan

Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi

Incumbent

Sheikh Khalifa has two sons, Mohammad Al Nahyan and Sultan Al Nahyan [3]

Independence in 1971

Following the establishment of the UAE in 1971, Sheikh Khalifa became the Prime Minister of Abu Dhabi (and head of Abu Dhabi Cabinet, under his father), Minister of Defense of Abu Dhabi and Minister of Finance of Abu Dhabi. Following the reconstruction of the Cabinet of the United Arab Emirates including the abolishing of Abu Dhabi Cabinet and setting up of Executive Council of Abu Dhabi, he became the 2nd Deputy Prime Minister of the United Arab Emirates on 23 December 1973 and Chairman of Executive Council of Abu Dhabi on 20 January 1974, under his father.

In May 1976 he became deputy commander of the UAE armed forces, under the President.

He also heads the Supreme Petroleum Council in the late 1980s (until today), which enjoys wide powers in energy matters.

He was the Chairman of the Environmental Research and Wildlife Development Agency, ERWDA.

Assumed office	
2 November 2004	
Preceded by	Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan
In office	
1969 – 3 November 2004	
Monarch	Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan
Succeeded by	Mohammed bin Zayed Al Nahyan
Ruler's Representative in the Eastern Region of Abu Dhabi	
In office	
1966–1967	
Monarch	Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan
Preceded by	Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan
Succeeded by	Tahnoun bin Mohammed Al Nahyan
Personal details	
Born	January 25, 1948 Al Ain, Abu Dhabi, Trucial States[1]
Spouse(s)	Shamsa bint Suhail Al Mazrouei Daughter of Tahnoun bin Mohammed Al Nahyan

President (2004 –)



Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan with then President of Russia Vladimir Putin on 10 September 2007.

He succeeded to both posts on 3 November 2004, replacing his father Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, who had died the day before. He had effectively been acting president earlier, since his father was ill during the period prior to his passing.

On 1 December 2005, the President announced that half of the members of the Federal National Council, the closest body the country has to a parliament, will be indirectly elected. However, half of the council's members will still need to be appointed by the leaders of the emirates. The 40-member FNC serves in an advisory capacity. The elections were set to take place in December 2006.

On 4 January 2010, the world's tallest man-made structure, originally known as Burj Dubai, was renamed to Burj Khalifa, in honor of the Sheikh [1] (http://news.bbc.co.uk /2/hi/middle_east/8439618.stm) .

Sheikh Khalifa is known for his interest in sports traditional to UAE, chiefly horse and camel racing. He is generally regarded as a pro-Western modernizer. Early in his term, in April 2005, he authorized a 100% salary increase for employees of the state.

In 2010 Khalifa was described in a recent WikiLeaks cable signed by the U.S. ambassador as a "distant and uncharismatic personage."[4]

In recent times there have been question marks over his health as he has not been seen in public for a number of months since returning from receiving medical treatment in Europe for an undisclosed condition. In 2011 he sent in the UAE's Air Force and Navy to support the Anti - Gaddafi rebels against Muammar Gaddafi alongside NATO, Qatar, Sweden and Jordan.

Seychelles

Seychellois government records show that since 1995, Sheikh Khalifa has spent $2 million buying up more than 66 acres of land on the Seychelles' main island of Mahe, where his palace is being built. [5] Since 1995 the Seychelles' government has received large aid packages from the UAE, the UAE has pledged more than $130 million in social-service and military aid, including patrol boats for the Seychelles' antipiracy efforts. In 2008, the UAE came to the indebted Seychelles government's aid, with a $30 million injection. [5]

Khalifa paid $500,000 for the 29.8-acre site of his palace in 2005, according to the sales document. A Seychelles planning authority initially rejected the palace's building plans, a decision overturned by President James Michel's cabinet. [5] A month after the start of construction of the palace, the national utility company warned that the site's plans posed threats to the water supply. Joel Morgan, the Seychelles' minister of environment, said the government did not tender the land because it wanted it to go to Khalifa. Morgan said "the letter of the law" might not have been followed in the land sale. [5]

On Feburary 13, 2010, the sewage system set up by Ascon, the company building the palace, for construction workers building the palace, overflowed, sending rivers of waste through the region, home to more than 8000 residents. [5] Local government agencies and officials from Khalifa's office responded quickly to the problem, sending in technical experts and engineers. Government officials concluded that Ascon ignored health and building codes for their workers, and fined the company $81,000. Ascon blamed the incident on "Unpredicted weather conditions".[5]

Khalifa's presidential office offered to pay $15 million to replace the water-piping system for the mountainside. [5] Government officials and residents say Ascon has offered to pay roughly $8,000 to each of the 360 households that the government says have been affected by the pollution.[5]

Philanthropy

According to Forbes, Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan is the world's third wealthiest monarch, with an estimated wealth of US$19 billion.[6]

On 30 April 2007, Johns Hopkins Medicine announced a "magnificent" and "transformational" gift by Sheikh Khalifa,[7] most of which, made in honor of Sheikh Khalifa’s father, Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, was planned to support construction of the Johns Hopkins Hospital’s new cardiovascular and critical care tower (also to be named after Sheikh Zayed). Additionally, some funds would be directed to cardiovascular as well as AIDS research.

He also founded the Khalifa Award for Education and finances a major housing programme in Sheikh Khalifa City (Gaza Strip).

A building in the theology department at the University of Wales is named after him, due to his being a benefactor.

MD Anderson Cancer Center announced on January 19, 2011 that they received $150 Million From Abu Dhabi Charity;.

The Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan Charity Foundation has pledged $150 million to the University of Texas, M. D. Anderson Cancer Center to establish a cancer treatment clinic, the Emirates News Agency reports.

The largest grant in the center's history will support construction of a state-of-the-art facility to house the Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan Specialty Institute for Cancer Diagnosis and the Ahmed bin Zayed Al Nahyan Pancreatic Cancer Center. The grant also will fund a number of annual fellowships and will be used to endow an oncology chair named after Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, a cancer research chair named after Sheikh Khalifa University, and a scientific and medical research chair named after Mohammed bin Zayed Al Nahyan.

Speaking at a signing ceremony, M. D. Anderson Center president John Mendelsohn said that the funding will be channeled into research programs dedicated to discovering new and more effective ways of diagnosing and treating cancer.

See also

- Al Nahyan family
- List of national leaders
- List of rulers of separate Emirates of the United Arab Emirates
- List of the wealthiest royals

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External links

Abu Dhabi Princely Family



HH Sheikha Hassa

- **HH The President**
  HH Sheikha Shamsa
  - HH Sheikh Sultan
  - HH Sheikh Mohammed

HH Sheikha Al Mashghouni

- HH Sheikh Sultan
  HH Sheikha Shamsa

HH Sheikha Fatima

- HH The Crown Prince
- HH Sheikh Hamdan
- HH Sheikh Hazza
- HH Sheikh Tahnoun
- HH Sheikh Mansour
- HH Sheikh Abdullah
- HH Sheikha Alyazia
- HH Sheikha Shamma

HH Sheikha Mouza

- HH Sheikh Saif

- official biography (http://www.government.ae/gov/en/gov/federal/president.jsp)
- Sheikh Khalifa Bin Zayed (http://www.uaeinteract.com/government/zayed.asp) Biography of U.A.E. President

- HH Sheikh Hamed
- HH Sheikh Omar
- HH Shiekh Ahmed
- HH Sheikh Khalid
- HH Sheikha Shamsa
- HH Sheikha Afra

HH Sheikha Ayesha

- HH Sheikh Saeed
- HH Sheikh Falah
- HH Sheikh Nahyan
- HH Sheikh Diab
- HH Sheikha Latifa
- HH Sheikha Mouza
- HH Sheikha Wadeema
- HH Sheikha Sheikha
- HH Sheikha Maitha

HH Ayesha Al Darmaki

- HH Sheikh Issa
- HH Sheikh Nasser
- HH Sheikha Rawdha

HH Fatima Al Muhairi

- HH Sheikha Salamah

Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan **House of Al Nahyan** **Born:** 1945		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan**	**Ruler of Abu Dhabi** 2004–present	**Incumbent**
Political offices		
Preceded by **Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan**	**President of the United Arab Emirates** 2004–present	**Incumbent**

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Categories: 1945 births | United Arab Emirati politicians | Current national leaders | Honorary Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath | Reigning monarchs | Living people | Sheikhs of Abu Dhabi | Presidents of the United Arab Emirates | United Arab Emirati billionaires | House of Al Nahyan | Government ministers of the United Arab Emirates | Children of Presidents of the United Arab Emirates

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Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan

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Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan (Arabic: زايد بن سلطان آل نهيان), (1918 – 2 November 2004), the principal driving force behind the formation of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), was the ruler of Abu Dhabi and first president of the UAE, a post which he held for over 30 years (1971–2004).

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Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan bin Zayed Al Nahyan
الشيخ زايد بن سلطان آل نهيان

Emir (Prince) and Hakim (Ruler) of Abu Dhabi and Rais (President) of the United Arab Emirates



Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, on a state visit to Brazil in December 2003: photo by Antônio Milena/ABr

Reign	6 August 1966 – 2 November 2004
Full name	Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan bin Zayed bin Khalifa Al Nahyan
Titles	*His Highness* Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, Past President of the United Arab Emirates Ruler of Abu Dhabi
Born	1918
Birthplace	In Al Ain, Abu Dhabi
Died	2 November 2004 (aged 86)
Place of death	In Al Ain, Abu Dhabi
Buried	Sheikh Zayed Grand Mosque, Abu Dhabi, 3 November 2004 (aged 86)
Predecessor	Sheikh Shakhbut bin Sultan Al Nahyan
Successor	Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan
Wives	Sheikha Hassa bint Mohammed bin Khalifa Al Nahyan Sheikha Sheikha bint Ma'dhad Al Mashghouni Sheikha Fatima bint Mubarak Al Ketbi Sheikha Mouza bint Suhail bin Awaidah Al Khaili Sheikha Ayesha bint Ali Al Darmaki Sheikha Amna Al Darmaki
Royal House	House of Al Nahyan
Father	Sultan bin Zayed Al Nahyan
Religious beliefs	Islam

Early life

Zayed was the youngest son of Sheikh Sultan bin Zayed bin Khalifa Al Nahyan, the traditional ruler of Abu Dhabi from 1922 until his assassination in 1926. Zayed was named after his famous grandfather, Sheikh Zayed bin Khalifa Al Nahyan ("Zayed the Great"), who ruled the emirate from 1855 to 1909. His eldest brother, Sheikh Shakhbut Bin-Sultan Al Nahyan, became ruler of Abu Dhabi in 1928 after their uncle, Saqr bin Zayed Al Nahyan, was also assassinated. Zayed's mother, Sheikha Salaamah, extracted a promise from her sons not to use violence against each other, a promise which they kept.[1]

At the time of Zayed's birth, the sheikhdom of Abu Dhabi was one of seven Trucial States along the coast of the lower coast of the Persian Gulf. These territories were in treaty relations with Britain, their rulers having signed a series of maritime truces with the British in the 19th century.[2]

As Zayed was growing up, there were no modern schools anywhere along the coast. He received only a basic instruction in the principles of Islam, and lived in the desert with Bedouin tribesmen, familiarising himself with the life of the people, their traditional skills and their ability to survive under the harsh climatic conditions.[3]

Zayed was appointed the governor of the Eastern Region of Abu Dhabi in 1946 and was based in the Muwaiji fort in Al Ain. At this time, the area was poor and prone to outbreaks of disease. When survey parties from Petroleum Development (Trucial Coast) began exploring for oil in the area, Zayed assisted them.[4]

In 1952, a small Saudi Arabian force led by Turki bin Abdullah al-Otaishan occupied the village of Hamasa in the Buraimi Oasis (the so-called Buraimi dispute). Zayed was prominent in his opposition to Saudi territorial claims and reportedly rejected a bribe of about £30 million to allow Aramco to explore for oil in the disputed territory. As part of this dispute, Zayed and his brother Hazza attended the Buraimi arbitration tribunal in Geneva in September 1955 and gave evidence to tribual members. When the tribunal was abandoned amid allegations of Saudi bribery, the British initiated the reoccupation of the Buraimi Oasis through a local military force, the Trucial Oman Levies. A period of stability followed during which Zayed helped to develop the region and took a particular interest in the restoration of the *falaj* system, a network of water channels which kept the plantations of the Buraimi Oasis irrigated and fertile.[4][5]

The discovery of oil in 1958, and the start of oil exports in 1962, led to frustration among members of the ruling family about the lack of progress under Sheikh Shakhbut's rule. On 6 August 1966 Shakhbut was deposed in a bloodless palace coup. Although it is not entirely clear from the historical record, the coup appeared to have the full backing of the Al-Nahyan family and the support of the British, with the Trucial Oman Scouts providing safe transport for Sheikh Shakbut out of Abu Dhabi.[5][6] In 1971, after occasionally difficult negotiations with the other six rulers of the Trucial States, the United Arab Emirates came into being. Zayed was appointed to the presidency of the UAE in 1971 and was reappointed on four more occasions: 1976, 1981, 1986, and 1991.[7]

In 1974, Zayed apparently settled the outstanding border dispute with Saudi Arabia by the Treaty of Jeddah by which Saudi Arabia received the output of the Shaybah oilfield and access to the lower Persian Gulf in return for recognising the UAE.[8] He was considered a relatively liberal ruler, and permitted private media. However, they were expected to practice self-censorship and avoid criticism of Zayed or the ruling families. Freedom of worship was permitted, and to a certain extent allowances were made for expatriate cultures, but this did not always sit comfortably in the eyes of the wider Arab world with Zayed's role as a Muslim head of state.[5]

Attitudes

His religious tolerance of Christians and the freedom given Western workers sojourning in the UAE was in marked contrast to most neighbors in the region and exposed him to criticism from other more conservative nations. Sheikh Zayed was respected around the world[*citation needed*] for his unifying influence and his drive to make the Emirates one nation. His calls for cooperation extended across Persian Gulf to Iran. Sheikh Zayed advocated dialogue as the means to settle the row with Tehran over three strategic Persian Gulf islands which Iran seized from the (future) UAE Emirate of Sharjah in 1971, though the islands remain in Iranian hands, despite over three decades of UAE diplomatic initiatives.

Zayed did not shy away from controversy when it came to expressing his opinion on current events in the Arab world. Troubled by the suffering of Iraqi civilians[*citation needed*], he took the lead in calling for lifting sanctions on Iraq imposed by the United Nations in the aftermath of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in 1990, despite Kuwaiti displeasure and opposition.

Zayed was considered one of the wealthiest men in the world. A Forbes magazine estimate put his fortune at around USD ?? billion. The source of this wealth could be almost exclusively attributed to the immense oil wealth of Abu Dhabi and the Emirates, which sit on a pool of a tenth of the world's proven oil reserves. Nevertheless he chose to live a relatively modest and traditional lifestyle, riding and hunting with falcons, though he gave up hunting with firearms, a sport at which he excelled, to set an example for wildlife conservation in his fragile desert homeland. He was personally popular, and was regarded to be considerably pious in his religious observances.[*citation needed*]

Policies and charity

At the time the British withdrew from the Persian Gulf in 1971, Zayed oversaw the establishment of the Abu Dhabi Fund for Arab Economic Development; through its oil riches were channeled to some forty less fortunate Islamic nations in Asia and Africa during the decades that followed. He is also remembered as "the man who turned the desert green," because he invested oil revenues into projects to improve the harsh desert environment.

Using the country's enormous oil revenues, Zayed built up institutions such as hospitals, schools and universities and made it possible for UAE citizens to enjoy free access to them. He also decreed that the State would undertake the cost of foreign health care for those families unable to afford it. Other charitable acts included adopting hundreds of orphans and building several hospitals abroad in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

When asked by the New York Times in April 1997 why there is no elected parliamentary democracy, Zayed replied,

> "Why should we abandon a system that satisfies our people in order to introduce a system that seems to engender dissent and confrontation? Our system of government is based upon our religion and that is what our people want. Should they seek alternatives, we are ready to listen to them. We have always said that our people should voice their demands openly. We are all in the same boat, and they are both the captain and the crew. Our doors are open for any opinion to be expressed, and this well known by all our citizens. It is our deep conviction that Allah has created people free, and has prescribed that each individual must enjoy freedom of choice. No one should act as if they own others. Those in the position of leadership should deal with their subjects with compassion and understanding, because this is the duty enjoined upon them by Allah, who enjoins upon us to treat all living creatures with dignity. How can there be anything less for mankind, created as Allah's vicegerent (khalif or Caliphate) on earth? Our system of government does not derive its authority from man, but is enshrined in our religion and is based on Allah's Book, the Quran. What need have we of what others have conjured up? Its teachings are eternal and complete, while the systems conjured up by man are transitory and incomplete."[9][10]

Land was also often distributed gratis. However, whilst this policy benefited many landless families, enormously wealthy clans and individuals were given free land grants in proportion to their status and influence with the royal family. His majlis (a traditional Arab consultation council) was open to the public, and as well as discussing national and personal issues, he enjoyed hearing people's opinions on poetry, as well as recitals by new and young poets. His tolerance towards other people and their faiths was evident, and he allowed the building of religious buildings such as churches and temples. This action in particular helped his image with the vast multitudes of expatriate workers who make up approximately three quarters of the population of the UAE. Zayed was also an advocate for the education and participation of women in the work force, within traditional parameters. His views regarding women's rights were considerably more liberal than his contemporaries in the GCC nations.

Collapse of BCCI

In 1972, Agha Hasan Abedi, a Pakistani banker who had set up a new bank called Bank of Credit and Commerce International (BCCI), approached Zayed for investment. Abedi had previously set up the United Bank of Pakistan in 1959, which became a leading nationalized bank in 1971. Zayed fronted the majority of the investment for the BCCI. Bank of America (25%) and the CIA allegedly invested, too. It is claimed that the CIA was seeking a funding route for the mujahideen in Afghanistan, similar to the Investors Overseas Service and the Nugen Hand Bank in the 1960s.

By 1977, the bank was almost insolvent. It took on the attributes of a Ponzi scheme, as it funded its operating expenses by deposits it received, rather than by returns from investments it made. In eight years, it reported assets of over $4 billion with over 150 branches in 46 countries. Bank of America reduced its shares, while holding companies in Abu Dhabi took on a controlling block.

In 1990, an audit of the BCCI by Price Waterhouse revealed an unaccountable loss of hundreds of millions of dollars. The bank approached Sheikh Zayed, who funded the loss in exchange for increasing his share to 78% of the bank. The bank was shut down in 1991 by the Bank of England. At the time Zayed's shareholding was 77%.[11]

In December 1991, further investigation found layers of criminal activity taking place through the bank. The law enforcement in the U.S. established the BCCI as an organized crime syndicate[*citation needed*]. Although Sheikh Zayed was not directly mentioned during interrogations, other family members were implicated in the criminal activity tied to the bank[*citation needed*]. The investigation found evidence of bribery, money laundering, arms trafficking, prostitution, and support of terrorism.[12] See: CIA Reading Room Document of William Kerr dated October 25, 1991 for details of Iran Contra and ElSalvador links.

Zayed Center

Controversy over the opinions of the Zayed Center caused the Harvard Divinity School to return Sheikh Zayed's $2.5 million gift to the institution in 2000 as "tainted money." Former United States president Jimmy Carter accepted the Zayed International Prize for the Environment, 2001. The award included a monetary prize of $500,000 from the Zayed Center, and Carter stated in his acceptance that this award meant a lot to him, since it was named after his personal friend, Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahayan.[13]

There was similar controversy when the London School of Economics accepted a large donation by the Zayed Center, to build a new lecture theatre in the New Academic Building in 2008.[14] Despite student protests[*citation needed*], the gift was accepted with the Sheik Zayed Theatre being the second largest lecture hall on the campus.

Harvard's equivocation, the Carter controversy, and the engendering negative publicity, prompted Sheikh Zayed to shut down the center in August 2003, saying that the Zayed Center "had engaged in a discourse that starkly contradicted the principles of interfaith tolerance."[15]

Final years

In 1999, while he was in a hospital for some tests, the people of the UAE wrote him a personal thank-you letter with 1.5 million signatures. He underwent a kidney transplant in 2000 at the Cleveland Clinic in the U.S.

On 2 November 2004, Zayed died, as announced by Abu Dhabi TV. He was believed to be 86 years old. He is buried in the courtyard of the new Sheikh Zayed Grand Mosque in Abu Dhabi.

His eldest son, Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, born in 1948, took an increasing role in the government from the 1990s; he was ratified as the Ruler of the United Arab Emirates by his fellow rulers on the Supreme Council directly after his father's death.

Shaikh Zayed International Airport located at Rahim Yar Khan, Punjab, Pakistan is named in his honor.

Children

- With Sheikha Hassa bint Mohammed bin Khalifa Al Nahyan
  - Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan (born 1948)
- With Sheikha Sheikha bint Ma'dhad Al Mashghouni
  - Sultan bin Zayed Al Nahyan (born 1953)
- With Sheikha Fatima bint Mubarak Al Ketbi
  - Mohammed bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Hamdan bin Zayed Al Nahyan (born 1963)
  - Hazza bin Zayed Al Nahyan (born 1965)
  - Tahnoun bin Zayed Al Nahyan

- Mansour bin Zayed Al Nahyan (born 1970)
- Abdullah bin Zayed Al Nahyan (born 1972)
- Alyazia bint Zayed Al Nahyan
- Shamma bint Zayed Al Nahyan

- With Sheikha Mouza bint Suhail bin Awaidah Al Khaili
  - Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Ahmed bin Zayed Al Nahyan (1968–2010)
  - Hamed bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Omar bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Khalid bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Shamsa bint Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Afra bint Zayed Al Nahyan
- With Sheikha Ayesha Al Darmaki
  - Saeed bin Zayed Al Nahyan (born 1966)
  - Falah bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Nahyan bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Dhiab bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Latifa bint Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Mouza bint Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Wadeema bint Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Sheikha bint Zayed Al Nahyan
- With Sheikha Amna Al Darmaki
  - Issa bin Zayed Al Nahyan
  - Nasser bin Zayed Al Nahyan (1967–2008)
  - Rowdha bint Zayed Al Nahyan

See also

- Champions of the Earth, 2005 award by United Nations Environment Programme
- Sheikh Zayed lecture theatre, in the London School of Economics (http://www.independent.co.uk/news/education/higher/the-lses-jawdropping-16371m-structure-is-a-building-to-wow-students-1025412.html)

Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan **House of Al Nahyan** **Born:** 1918 **Died:** 2 November 2004		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Shakhbut Bin-Sultan Al Nahyan**	**Ruler of Abu Dhabi** 6 August 1966 – 2 November 2004	Succeeded by **Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan**
Political offices		
Preceded by **Post Created**	**President of the United Arab Emirates** 2 December 1971 – 2 November 2004	Succeeded by **Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan**

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External links

- Sheikh Zayed's website (http://www.sheikhzayed.com/index_noflash.htm)
- CooperativeResearch - Zayid bin Sultan Al Nahyan (http://www.cooperativeresearch.org/entity.jsp?entity=zayed_bin_sultan_al_nahyan_1)
- Official UAE tribute to Sheikh Zayed (http://www.ourfatherzayed.ae/)
- Biography at Brazil Embassy (http://www.uae.org.br/_PDF/zayed.pdf)

Bahrain

Coordinates: 26°01′39″N 50°33′00″E

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Bahrain (Arabic: البحرين, *al-Baḥrayn*), officially the **Kingdom of Bahrain** (Arabic: مملكة البحرين, *Mamlakat al-Baḥrayn*), is a small island state near the western shores of the Persian Gulf. It is ruled by the Al Khalifa royal family. The population in 2010 stood at 1,234,571, including 666,172 non-nationals.[1] Formerly an emirate, Bahrain was declared a kingdom in 2002.

Bahrain is an archipelago of 33 islands, the largest being Bahrain Island, at 55 km (34 mi) long by 18 km (11 mi) wide. Saudi Arabia lies to the west and is connected to Bahrain by the King Fahd Causeway. Qatar is to the southeast across the Gulf of Bahrain. The planned Qatar Bahrain Causeway will link Bahrain and Qatar and become the world's longest marine causeway.[4]

Known for its oil and pearls, Bahrain is also home to many large structures, including the Bahrain World Trade Center and the Bahrain Financial Harbour, with a proposal in place to build the 1,022 m (3,353 ft) high Murjan Tower. The *Qal'at al-Bahrain* (the harbour and capital of the ancient land of Dilmun) was declared a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2005.[5] The Bahrain Formula One Grand Prix takes place at the Bahrain International Circuit.[6]

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Kingdom of Bahrain
مملكة البحرين
Mamlakat al-Baḥrayn

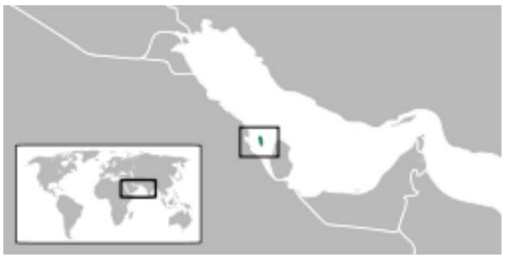


Flag



Emblem

Anthem: *Bahrainona*



Location of **Bahrain** (green)
in the Middle East (grey) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Manama 26°13′N 50°35′E
Official language(s)	Arabic
Demonym	Bahraini
Government	Constitutional Monarchy
- King	Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
- Crown Prince	Salman bin Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
- Prime Minister	Khalifa bin Salman Al Khalifa
Legislature	National Assembly of Bahrain
Independence	
- From Persia	1783
- Termination of special treaty with the United Kingdom	15 August 1971
Area	
- Total	750 km^2 (185th) 290 sq mi

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  - 9.2 Formula One and other motorsports events
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- Water (%)	0
Population	
- 2010 estimate	1,234,571[1] (155th)
- Density	1,646.1/km^2 (7th) 4,257.2/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$30.963 billion[2]
- Per capita	$27,433[2]
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$26.484 billion[2]
- Per capita	$23,465[2]
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.806[3] (very high) (42nd)
Currency	Bahraini dinar (BHD)
Time zone	AST (UTC+3)
Drives on the	Right
ISO 3166 code	BH
Internet TLD	.bh
Calling code	973

Etymology

In Arabic, *bahrayn* is the dual form of *bahr* ("sea"), so *al-Bahrayn* means "the Two Seas". However, which two seas were originally intended remains in dispute.[7] The term appears five times in the Qur'an, but does not refer to the modern island — originally known to the Arabs as "Awal" — but rather to the oases of al-Katif and Hadjar (modern al-Hasa).[7] It is unclear when the term began to refer exclusively to the Awal islands, but it was probably after the 15th century.

Today, al-Hasa belongs to Saudi Arabia and Bahrain's "two seas" are instead generally taken to be the bay east and west of the island,[8] the seas north and south of the island,[*citation needed*] or the salt and fresh water present above and below the ground.[9] In addition to wells, there are places in the sea north of Bahrain where fresh water bubbles up in the middle of the salt water, noted by visitors since antiquity.[10]

An alternate theory offered by al-Ahsa was that the two seas were the Great Green Ocean and a peaceful lake on the mainland; still another provided by al-Jawahari is that the more formal name *Bahri* (lit. "belonging to the sea") would have been misunderstood and so was opted against.[9]

History

Main article: History of Bahrain

Pre-Islamic period

Inhabited since ancient times, Bahrain occupies a strategic location in the Persian Gulf. It is the best natural port between the mouth of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers and Oman, a source of copper in ancient times. Bahrain may have been associated with **Dilmun**, an important Bronze age trade centre linking Mesopotamia and the Indus Valley.[11] It has been ruled by the Assyrians,[*citation needed*] Babylonians,[*citation needed*] Persians,[12] and then Arabs, under whom the island became first



Christian and then Islamic.

Asia in 600 AD, showing the Persian Empire in Sassanid era before the Arab conquest.

From the 6th to 3rd century BC, Bahrain was added to the Persian Empire by the Achaemenian dynasty. By about 250 BC, the Parthians brought the Persian Gulf under its control and extended its influence as far as Oman. During the classical era, the island was known as **Tylos** in Europe. In order to control trade routes, the Parthians established garrisons along the southern coast of the Persian Gulf.[13] In the 3rd century, Ardashir I, the first ruler of the Sassanid dynasty, marched on Oman and Bahrain, where he defeated Sanatruq II.[14] At this time, Bahrain comprised the southern Sassanid province along with the Persian Gulf's southern shore.[15]

The Sassanid Empire divided their southern province into the three districts of Haggar (now al-Hafuf province in Saudi Arabia), Batan Ardashir (now al-Qatif province in Saudi Arabia) and Mishmahig (which in Middle-Persian/Pahlavi means "ewe-fish").[14] Early Islamic sources describe the country as inhabited by members of the Abdul Qais,[16] Tamim, and Bakr tribes who worshipped the idol Awal, from which the Arabs named the island of Bahrain **Awal** for many centuries. However, Bahrayn was also a center of Nestorian Christianity, including two of its bishoprics.[14]

Islamic conversion and Portuguese control

Traditional Islamic accounts state that Al-ʿAlāʾ Al-Ḥaḍrami was sent as an envoy to the Bahrain region by the prophet Muhammad in AD 628 and that Munzir ibn-Sawa al-Tamimi, the local ruler, responded to his mission and converted the entire area.[17]

In 899 AD, the Qarmatians, a millenarian Ismaili Muslim sect seized Bahrain, seeking to create a utopian society based on reason and redistribution of property among initiates. Thereafter, the Qarmatians demanded tribute from the caliph in Baghdad, and in 930 AD sacked Mecca and Medina, bringing the sacred Black Stone back to their base in Ahsa, in medieval Bahrain, for ransom. According to historian Al-Juwayni, the stone was returned 22 years later in 951 under mysterious circumstances. Wrapped in a sack, it was thrown into the Great Mosque of Kufa in Iraq, accompanied by a note saying "By command we took it, and by command we have brought it back." The theft and removal of the Black Stone caused it to break into seven pieces.[14][18][19]

Following a 976 AD defeat by the Abbasids,[20] the Quarmations were overthrown by the Arab Uyunid dynasty of al-Hasa, who took over the entire Bahrain region in 1076.[21] The Uyunids controlled Bahrain until 1235, when the archipelago was briefly occupied by the Iranian ruler of Fars. In 1253, the Bedouin Usfurids brought down the Uyunid dynasty, thereby gaining control over eastern Arabia, including the islands of Bahrain. In 1330, the archipelago became a tributary state of the rulers of Hormuz,[22] though locally the islands were controlled by the Shi'ite Jarwanid dynasty of Qatif.[23]

Until the late Middle Ages, "Bahrain" referred to the larger historical region of Bahrain that included Al-Ahsa, Al-Qatif (both now within the Eastern Province of Saudi Arabia) and the Awal Islands (now the Bahrain Islands). The region stretched from Basra in Iraq to the Strait of Hormuz in Oman. This was Iqlīm al-Bahrayn's "Bahrayn Province". The exact date at which the term "Bahrain" began to refer solely to the Awal archipelago is unknown.[24] In the mid-15th century, the archipelago came under the rule of the Jabrids, a Bedouin dynasty also based in Al-Ahsa that ruled most of eastern Arabia.

In 1521, the Portuguese allied with Hormuz and seized Bahrain from the Jabrid ruler Migrin ibn Zamil, who was killed during the takeover. Portuguese rule lasted for around 80 years, during which time they depended mainly on Sunni Persian governors.[25] The Portuguese were expelled from the islands in 1602 by Abbas I of the

Safavid dynasty of Iran, who declared Shia Islam the official religion of Bahrain.[26] For the next two centuries, Iranian rulers retained control of the archipelago, interrupted by the 1717 and 1738 invasions of the Ibadhis of Oman.[27][28] During most of this period, they resorted to governing Bahrain indirectly, either through the city of Bushehr or through immigrant Sunni Arab clans. The latter were tribes returning to the Arabian side of the Persian Gulf from Persian territories in the north who were known as *Huwala* (literally: those that have changed or moved).[25][29][30] In 1753, the Huwala clan of Al Madhkur invaded Bahrain on behalf of the Iranians and restored direct Iranian rule.[31]

Rise of the Bani Utbah

In 1783, Nasr Al-Madhkur, ruler of Bahrain and Bushire, lost the islands of Bahrain following his defeat by the Bani Utbah tribe at the 1782 Battle of Zubarah. Bahrain was not new territory to the Bani Utbah; they had been a presence there since the 17th century.[32] During that time, they started purchasing date palm gardens in Bahrain. A document belonging to Shaikh Salama Bin Saif Al Utbi, one of the shaikhs of the Al Bin Ali tribe (an offshoot of the Bani Utbah), states that Mariam Bint Ahmed Al Sindi, a Shia woman, sold a palm garden on the island of Sitra to Shaikh Salama Bin Saif Al Utbi in the year 1699–1111 Hijri calendar, preceding the arrival of the Al-Khalifa to Bahrain by more than 90 years.[33]

The Al Bin Ali were the dominant group controlling the town of Zubarah on the Qatar peninsula,[34][35] originally the center of power of the Bani Utbah. After the Bani Utbah gained control of Bahrain, the Al Bin Ali had a practically independent status there as a self-governing tribe. They used a flag with four red and three white stripes, called the Al-Sulami flag[36] in Bahrain, Qatar, Kuwait, and the Eastern province of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It was raised on their ships during wartime, in the pearl season and on special occasions such as weddings and during Eid ul-Fitr as well as in the "Ardha of war".[37] The Al Bin Ali were known for their courage, persistence, and abundant wealth.[38]

Later, different Arab family clans and tribes, mostly from Qatar, moved to Bahrain to settle after the fall of the Zand Dynasty of Persia. These families and tribes included the Al Khalifa, Al-Ma'awdah, Al-Fadhil, Al-Mannai, Al-Noaimi, Al-Sulaiti, Al-Sadah, Al-Thawadi, and other families and tribes.

Most of these tribes settled in Muharraq, the capital of Bahrain and center of power at that time since the Al Bin Ali lived there. The oldest and largest neighbourhood in Muharraq city is called Al Bin Ali. Members of this tribe lived in this area for more than three centuries.[*citation needed*]

Al Khalifa ascendancy to Bahrain and their treaties with the British

In 1797, fourteen years later after gaining the power of the Bani Utbah, the Al Khalifa family moved to Bahrain and settled in Jaww, later moving to Riffa. They were originally from Kuwait having left in 1766. Al-Sabah family traditions relates that the ancestors of their tribe and those of the Al-Khalifa tribe came to Kuwait after their expulsion from Umm Qasr upon Khor Zubair by the Turks, an earlier base from which they preyed on the caravans of Basra and pirated ships in the Shatt al-Arab waterway.[39]

In the early 19th century, Bahrain was invaded by both the Omanis and the Al Sauds. In 1802 it was governed by a twelve year old child, when the Omani ruler Sayyid Sultan installed his son, Salim, as Governor in the Arad Fort.[40]

In 1820, the Al Khalifa tribe regained power in Bahrain and entered a treaty relationship with Great Britain, by then the dominant military power in the Persian Gulf. This treaty granted the Al Khalifa the title of Rulers

("Al-Hakim" in Arabic) of Bahrain.

After Egyptian ruler Mohammad Ali Pasha took the Arabian Peninsula from the Wahhabis on behalf of the Ottoman Empire in 1830, Sheikh Abdul Al Khalifa declared allegiance to the Iranian Government to avoid the Egyptians taking control of Bahrain.

In 1860, the Government of Al Khalifa used the same tactic when the British tried to overpower Bahrain. Sheikh Mohammad bin Khalifa Al Khalifa wrote a letter to Nasseredin Shah of Iran declaring himself, his brother and all of members of Al Khalifa and the people of Bahrain Iranian subjects. In another letter to the Iranian Foreign Minister, Sheikh Mohammad demanded that the Government of Iran provide direct guidance and protection from British pressure.

Later on, under pressure from Colonel Sir Lewis Pelly, Sheikh Mohammad requested military assistance from Iran, but the Government of Iran at that time had no ability to protect Bahrain from British aggression. As a result the Government of British India eventually overpowered Bahrain. Colonel Pelly signed an agreement with Sheikh Mohammad in May 1861 and later with his brother Sheikh Ali that placed Bahrain under British rule and protection. In 1868, British representatives signed another agreement with the rulers of Al Khalifa making Bahrain part of the British protectorate territories in the Persian Gulf. This treaty was similar to those entered into by the British Government with the other Persian Gulf principalities. It specified that the ruler could not dispose of any of his territory except to the United Kingdom and could not enter into relationships with any foreign government without British consent. In return the British promised to protect Bahrain from all aggression by sea and to lend support in case of land attack. More importantly the British promised to support the rule of the Al Khalifa in Bahrain, securing its unstable position as rulers of the country. Other agreements in 1880 and 1892 sealed the protectorate status of Bahrain to the British.

According to School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS) academic, Nelida Fuccaro:

> From this perspective state building under the Al Khalifa shayks should not be considered exclusively as the result of Britain's informal empire in the Persian Gulf. In fact, it was a long process of strategic negotiation with different sections of the local population in order to establish a pre-eminence of their particularly artistic Sunni/Bedouin tradition of family rule.
>
> —Nelida Fuccaro, *Persians and the space in the city in Bahrain 1869–1937*[41]

Unrest amongst the people of Bahrain began when Britain officially established complete dominance over the territory in 1892. The first revolt and widespread uprising took place in March 1895 against Sheikh Issa bin Ali, then Ruler of Bahrain. Sheikh Issa was the first of the Al Khalifa to rule without Iranian relations. Sir Arnold Wilson, Britain's representaive in the Persian Gulf and author of *The Persian Gulf*, arrived in Bahrain from Mascat at this time. The uprising developed further with some protesters killed by British forces.

Peace and trade brought a new prosperity to Bahrain. With the country no longer dependent upon pearling, by the mid-19th century it became the pre-eminent trading centre in the Persian Gulf, overtaking rivals Basra, Kuwait, and finally, in the 1870s, Muscat.[42] At the same time, Bahrain's socio-economic development began to diverge from the rest of the Persian Gulf undergoing transformation from a tribal trading centre to a modern state.[43] This process was spurred by the arrival of large numbers of Persian, Huwala, and Indian merchant families who set up businesses on the island, making it the hub of a web of trade routes across the Persian Gulf, Persia and the Indian sub-continent. A contemporary account of Manama in 1862 found:

> Mixed with the indigenous population [of Manamah] are numerous strangers and settlers, some of whom have been established here for many generations back, attracted from other lands by the profits of either commerce or the pearl fishery, and still retaining more or less the physiognomy and garb of their native countries. Thus the gay-coloured dress of the southern Persian, the saffron-

> stained vest of Oman, the white robe of Nejed, and the striped gown of Bagdad, are often to be seen mingling with the light garments of Bahreyn, its blue and red turban, its white silk-fringed cloth worn Banian fashion round the waist, and its frock-like overall; while a small but unmistakable colony of Indians, merchants by profession, and mainly from Guzerat, Cutch, and their vicinity, keep up here all their peculiarities of costume and manner, and live among the motley crowd, ‘among them, but not of them’.
>
> —WG Palgrave, *Narrative of a Year's Journey through Central and Eastern Arabia (1862–3)*[44]

Palgrave's description of Manama's coffee houses in the mid-19th century portrays them as cosmopolitan venues in contrast to what he describes as the ‘closely knit and bigoted universe of central Arabia’.[44] Palgrave describes a people with an open – even urbane – outlook: "Of religious controversy I have never heard one word. In short, instead of Zelators and fanatics, camel-drivers and Bedouins, we have at Bahrain [Manama] something like 'men of the world, who know the world like men' a great relief to the mind; certainly it was so to mine."[44]

The great trading families that emerged during this period have been compared to the Borgias and Medicis[44] and their great wealth – long before the oil wealth the region would later be renowned for – gave them extensive power, and among the most prominent were the Persian Al Safar family, who held the position of Native Agents of Britain in 19th century.[44] The Al Safar enjoyed an 'exceptionally close'[44] relationship with the Al Khalifa clan from 1869, although the Al-Khalifa never intermarried with them – it has been speculated that this was to limit the Al-Safars' influence on the ruling family or because the Al-Safars were Shia Muslims.

Bahrain's trade with India saw the cultural influence of the subcontinent grow dramatically, with styles of dress, cuisine, and education all showing a marked Indian influence. According to Exeter University's James Onley "In these and countless other ways, eastern Arabia's ports and people were as much a part of the Indian Ocean world as they were a part of the Arab world."[44]

In 1911, a group of Bahraini merchants demanded restrictions on the British influence in the country. The group's leaders were subsequently arrested and exiled to India. In 1923, the British deposed Sheikh Issa bin Ali whom they accused of opposing Britain and set up a permanent representative in Bahrain. This coincided with renewal of Iran's claim over the ownership of Bahrain, a development that Sheikh Issa had been accused of welcoming. The preference shown by the people of Bahrain towards the renewal of Iran ownership's claim also caused concern for Britain. To remedy these problems, in 1926, Britain dispatched Sir Charles Belgrave, one of her most experienced colonial officers, as an advisor to the Ruler of Bahrain. His harsh measures intensified the increasing aversion of people towards him and led to his eventual expulsion from Bahrain in 1957. Belgrave's colonial undertakings were not limited to violent deeds against Bahrainis but also included a series of initiatives that included removal of Iranian influence on Bahrain and the Persian Gulf. In 1937, Belgrave proposed changing the name of the Persian Gulf to the "Gulf of Arabia", a move that did not take place.

In 1927, Rezā Shāh demanded the return of Bahrain in a letter to the Allied Nations Community. Britain believed that weakened domination over Bahrain would cause her to lose control all over the Persian Gulf, and decided to bring uprisings amongst the people of Bahrain under control at any cost. To achieve this they encouraged conflicts between Shiite and Sunni Muslims in Bahrain[*citation needed*].

Bahrain underwent a period of major social reform between 1926 and 1957, under the *de facto* rule of Charles Belgrave, the British advisor to Shaikh Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa (1872–1942). The country's first modern school, the Al-Hiddaya Boys School, was established in 1919, whilst the Arab Persian Gulf's first girls' school opened in 1928. The American Mission Hospital, established by the Dutch Reformed Church, began work in 1903. Other reforms included the abolition of slavery. At the same time, the pearl diving industry developed at a

rapid pace.

These reforms were often vigorously opposed by powerful groups within Bahrain including sections within the ruling family, tribal forces, the religious authorities and merchants. In order to counter conservatives, the British removed the Ruler, Isa ibn Ali Al Khalifa in 1923 and replaced him with his son. Some Sunni tribes such as the al Dossari left Bahrain to mainland Arabia, whilst clerical opponents of social reforms were exiled to Saudi Arabia and Iran. The heads of some merchant and notable families were likewise exiled[*citation needed*]. Britain's interest in Bahrain's development was motivated by concerns over the ambitions of the Saudi-Wahabi and the Iranians.

Discovery of petroleum

The discovery of oil in 1932[45] brought rapid modernisation to Bahrain. Relations with the United Kingdom became closer, as evidenced by the British Royal Navy moving its entire Middle Eastern command from Bushehr in Iran to Bahrain in 1935.[46] British influence continued to grow as the country developed, culminating with the appointment of Charles Belgrave as advisor.[44] He went on to establish a modern education system in Bahrain.[44] After World War II, increasing anti-British sentiment spread throughout the Arab World and led to riots in Bahrain. The riots focused on the Jewish community, which included distinguished writers, singers, accountants, engineers and middle managers working for the oil company, textile merchants with business all over the peninsula, and free professionals.



Bahrain political map, 2003

In 1948, following rising hostilities and looting,[47] most members of Bahrain's Jewish community abandoned their properties and evacuated to Bombay, later settling in Israel (Pardes Hanna-Karkur) and the United Kingdom. As of 2008, 37 Jews remained in the country.[47] The issue of compensation was never settled. In 1960, the United Kingdom put forward Bahrain's future for international arbitration and requested that the United Nations Secretary-General take on this responsibility.

Drop of Iranian claim

Iran's parliament passed a bill in November 1957 declaring Bahrain to be the 14th province of Iran,[48] with two empty seats allocated for its representatives. This action caused numerous problems for Iran in its international relations, especially with some United Nations bodies, Britain, Saudi Arabia, and a number of Arab countries.

At this time, Britain set out to change the demographics of Bahrain. The policy of “deiranisation” consisted of importing a large number of different Arabs and others from British colonies as labourers.[49]

Demonstrations in 1956 forced the Al Khalifa rulers to leave Manama (the capital) for the village of Refae Al Gharbi where only Sunni Arabs serving as their bodyguards were allowed to live.

In 1965 Britain began dialogue with Iran to determine their borders in the Persian Gulf. Before long extensive differences over borders and territory came to light, including the dispute over the dominion of Bahrain. The two were not able to determine the maritime borders between the northern and southern countries of the Persian Gulf. At the same time King Faisal of Saudi Arabia arrived in Iran on a visit which included the creation of

Islamic Conference and the decision to determine the maritime borders of the two countries. In return, the Shah of Iran agreed to visit Saudi Arabia in 1967. A week before this visit, the Saudis received Sheikh Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa, the that time Ruler of Bahrain as a head of state in the Saudi capital Riyadh. As a result the Shah's visit was cancelled, seriously damaging relations between the two countries. Following mediation by King Hassan II of Morocco the relationship was repaired.

Eventually Iran and Britain agreed to put the matter of Dominion of Bahrain to international judgment and requested the United Nations General Secretary take on this responsibility.

Iran pressed hard for a referendum in Bahrain in the face of strong opposition from both the British and the Bahraini leaders.[49] Their opposition was based on Al Khalifa's view that such a move would negate 150 years of their clan's rule in the country. In the end, as an alternative to the referendum, Iran and Britain agreed to request the United Nations conduct an opinion poll in Bahrain that would determine the political future of the territory. In reply to letters from the British and Iranians, U Thant, then Secretary General of the United Nations, declared that an opinion poll would take place on 30 March 1970. Vittorio Winspeare-Giucciardi, Manager of the United Nations office in Geneva was put in charge of the project. Report no. 9772 was submitted to the UN General Secretary and on 11 May 1970, the United Nations Security Council endorsed Winspeare's conclusion that an overwhelming majority of the people wished recognition of Bahrain's identity as a fully independent and sovereign state free to decide its own relations with other states.[50] Both Britain and Iran accepted the report and brought their dispute to a close.

The oil boom of the 1970s benefited Bahrain greatly, although the subsequent downturn hurt the economy. The country had already begun diversification of its economy and benefited further from the 1970s Lebanese Civil War, when Bahrain replaced Beirut as the Middle East's financial hub after Lebanon's large banking sector was driven out of the country by the war.[51] Following the 1979 Islamic revolution in Iran, in 1981 Bahraini Shīʿa fundamentalists orchestrated a failed coup attempt under the auspices of a front organisation, the Islamic Front for the Liberation of Bahrain. The coup would have installed a Shīʿa cleric exiled in Iran, Hujjatu l-Islām Hādī al-Mudarrisī, as supreme leader heading a theocratic government.[52] In 1994, a wave of rioting by disaffected Shīa Islamists was sparked by women's participation in a sporting event.

During the mid-1990s, Bahrain was badly affected by sporadic violence between the government and the cleric-led opposition in which over forty people were killed.[53] In March 1999, Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifah succeeded his father as Emir (head of state) and instituted elections for parliament, gave women the right to vote, and released all political prisoners. These moves were described by Amnesty International as representing an "historic period of human rights".[54] As part of the adoption of the National Action Charter on 14 February 2002, Bahrain changed its formal name from the State (*dawla*) of Bahrain to the Kingdom of Bahrain.[55]

Politics

Main article: Politics of Bahrain

See also: Bahraini parliamentary election, 2006 and Human rights in Bahrain

Bahrain is a Constitutional monarchy headed by the King, Shaikh Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa; the head of government is the Prime Minister, Shaikh Khalīfa bin Salman al Khalifa, who is the uncle of the current king. Bahrain has a bicameral National Assembly (*al-Jamiyh al-Watani*) consisting of the Shura Council (*Majlis Al-Shura*) with 40 seats and the Council of Representatives (*Majlis Al-Nuwab*) with 40 seats. The 40 members of the Shura are appointed by the king. In the Council of Representatives, 40 members are elected by absolute majority vote in single-member constituencies to serve 4-year terms.[56]



The *Bahrain Royal Flight* (Boeing 747SP).

The first round of voting in the 2006 parliamentary election took place on 25 November 2006, and in the second round Islamists hailed a huge election victory.[57]

The opening up of politics has seen big gains for both Shīa and Sunnī Islamists in elections, which have given them a parliamentary platform to pursue their policies[*citation needed*]. This has meant parties launching campaigns to impose bans on female mannequins displaying lingerie in shop windows,[58] and the hanging of underwear on washing lines.[59]

Analysts of democratisation in the Middle East cite the Islamists' references to respect for human rights in their justification for these programmes as evidence that these groups can serve as a progressive force in the region[*citation needed*]. Islamist parties have been particularly critical of the government's readiness to sign international treaties such as the United Nation's International Convention on Civil and Political Rights.[60] At a parliamentary session in June 2006 to discuss ratification of the Convention, Sheikh Adel Mouwda, the former leader of salafist party, Asalah, explained the party's objections: "*The convention has been tailored by our enemies, God kill them all, to serve their needs and protect their interests rather than ours. This why we have eyes from the American Embassy watching us during our sessions, to ensure things are swinging their way*".[61]

Both Sunnī and Shī'a Islamists suffered a setback in March 2006 when 20 municipal councillors, most of whom represented religious parties, went missing in Bangkok on an unscheduled stopover when returning from a conference in Malaysia.[62] After the missing councillors eventually arrived in Bahrain they defended their stay at the Radisson Hotel in Bangkok, telling journalists it was a "fact-finding mission", and explaining: "*We benefited a lot from the trip to Thailand because we saw how they managed their transport, landscaping and roads*".[63] Bahraini liberals have responded to the growing power of religious parties by organising themselves to campaign through civil society in order to defend basic personal freedoms from being legislated away[*citation needed*]. In November 2005, al Muntada, a grouping of liberal academics, launched "*We Have A Right*", a campaign to explain to the public why personal freedoms matter and why they need to be defended[*citation needed*].



President George W. Bush welcomes His Majesty King Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa of Bahrain to the Oval Office Monday, Nov. 29, 2004

Women's rights

Main article: Women's political rights in Bahrain

Women's political rights in Bahrain saw an important step forward when women were granted the right to vote and stand in national elections for the first time in the 2002 election.[64] However, no women were elected to office in that year's polls. Instead, Shī'a and Sunnī Islamists dominated the election, collectively winning a majority of seats[*citation needed*]. In response to the failure of women candidates, six were appointed to the Shura Council, which also includes representatives of the Kingdom's indigenous Jewish and Christian communities[*citation needed*]. Dr. Nada Haffadh became the country's first female cabinet minister on her appointment as Minister of Health in 2004. The quasi-governmental women's group, the Supreme Council for Women, trained female candidates to take part in the 2006 general election. When Bahrain was elected to head

the United Nations General Assembly in 2006 it appointed lawyer and women's rights activist Haya bint Rashid Al Khalifa President of the United Nations General Assembly, only the third woman in history to head the world body.[65] The King recently created the Supreme Judicial Council[66] to regulate the country's courts and institutionalise the separation of the administrative and judicial branches of government;[67] the leader of this court is Mohammed Humaidan.

On 11–12 November 2005, Bahrain hosted the Forum for the Future, bringing together leaders from the Middle East and G8 countries to discuss political and economic reform in the region.[68] The near total dominance of religious parties in elections has given a new prominence to clerics within the political system, with the most senior Shia religious leader, Sheikh Isa Qassim, playing an extremely important role. According to one academic paper, "In fact, it seems that few decisions can be arrived at in Al Wefaq – and in the whole country, for that matter – without prior consultation with Isa Qassim, ranging from questions with regard to the planned codification of the personal status law to participation in elections".[69] In 2007, Al Wefaq-backed parliamentary investigations were credited with forcing the government to remove ministers who had frequently clashed with MPs: the Minister of Health, Dr. Nada Haffadh and the Minister of Information, Dr Mohammed Abdul Gaffar.[70]

1990s uprising in Bahrain

Main article: 1990s uprising in Bahrain

The "1990s Uprising in Bahrain" or "1990s Intifada" was a rebellion in Bahrain between 1994 and 2000 in which leftists, liberals and Islamists joined forces. The event resulted in approximately forty deaths and ended after Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa became the Emir of Bahrain in 1999.[71] A referendum on 14–15 February 2001 massively supported the National Action Charter.[72]

2011–2012 Bahraini uprising

Main article: 2011–2012 Bahraini uprising


Protesters raising their hands towards Pearl Roundabout

The protests in Bahrain were initially aimed at achieving greater political freedom and respect for human rights, and were not intended to threaten the monarchy nor were they as large as those in other countries.[73] Lingering frustration among the Shiite majority with being ruled by the Sunni government was a major root cause, but the protests in Tunisia and Egypt are cited as the inspiration for the demonstrations.[74] The protests began in Bahrain on 14 February[73] and were largely peaceful, until a raid by police on the night of 17 February against protestors sleeping at the Pearl Roundabout in Manama, in which police killed four protestors.[75][76] Following the deadly raid, some of the protestors' begins to expand their aims to a call for the end of the monarchy, who has ruled Bahrain since the late 18th century.[77] On 18 February, government forces opened fire on protesters, mourners, and news journalists,[78] prompting protesters to begin calling for the overthrow of the Bahraini monarchy and government.[79] On 19 February, protesters occupied Pearl Roundabout after the government ordered troops and police to withdraw.[80][81][82] On 22 February, an estimated one hundred thousand people, one fifth of all Bahrainis, marched. On 14 March, at the request of the Crown Prince, GCC Saudi Arabian troops entered the country,[83] and opened fire on the protesters, several of whom were killed.[84][85] Later thousands of Shia

protesters arose in Iraq and Qatif in opposition to the Saudi-led intervention in Bahrain.[86][87][88]



One of the huge marches that swept across Bahrain in February 2011



Panoramic image for the march of 9 March 2012

King Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa declared a three-month state of emergency on 15 March and asked the military to reassert its control as clashes spread across the country.[89] It was later lifted on 1 June 2011.[90] On 16 March 2011, the protesters' camp in the Pearl Roundabout was evacuated, bulldozed, and set on fire by the Bahraini Defense Force and riot police.[91] Later on 18 March, the Pearl Roundabout monument was torn down as part of the crackdown on protesters.[92] Human rights organizations reported that since the in the 8 months following the outbreak of protests on 14 February, more than 1,600 peaceful political protesters, medical professionals, journalists, human rights defenders and innocent bystanders were arrested and more than 100 people convicted by a special military court established by the government.[93]

Since the lifting of emergency law on 1 June, several large rallies have been staged by the Shi'ite community demanding the release of detained protesters, greater political representation, and an end to sectarian discrimination. In July 2011, medical personnel were tried by special military courts for treating injured protesters and sentenced to multi-year prison sentences.[94] Several human rights groups and news organizations have alleged they have been deliberately targeted by the Bahraini government.[95]

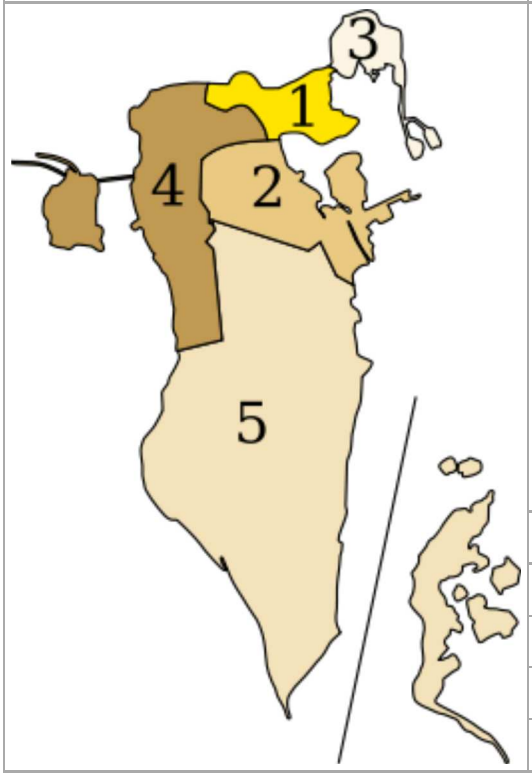
On 23 November 2011, the Bahrain Independent Commission of Inquiry released its report on human rights violations during the February and March 2011 protests, finding that the government "systematically" tortured prisoners, summarily fired Shi'ite employees and university students, and committed other gross human rights violations.[96] One of the report's recommendations was to allow human rights groups into the country to monitor the situation. Between 23 November and the end of January, however, the Bahraini government refused entry to several international human rights groups including Freedom House,[97][98] Human Rights First [99] and Physicians for Human Rights.[100]

On 9 March 2012, hundreds of thousands protested in one of the biggest anti-govemrent rallies to date. According to CNN, the march "filled a four-lane highway between Duraz and Muksha".[101] The government said 100,000 participated in the march while opposition activists estimated the number to be more than 200,000. The march was called for by Sheikh Isa Qassim, Bahrain's top Shia cleric. Protesters called for downfall of King and the release of imprisoned political leaders. The protest ended peacefully, however hundreds of youth tried to march back to the site of the now demolished symbolic Pearl roundabout, and were dispersed by security forces with tear gas.[102] Nabeel Rajab, president of BCHR called the march "the biggest in our history".[103]

Governorates

For further information, see Decree-Law establishing governorates (http://www.capital.gov.bh/pages/pdf/govlawe.pdf) PDF (732 KB) from the Bahrain official website.

Bahrain is split into five governorates. These governorates are:

Map	Governorates
	**1.** Capital Governorate
	2. Central Governorate
	3. Muharraq Governorate
	4. Northern Governorate
	5. Southern Governorate

Economy

Main article: Economy of Bahrain


Sunset at the King Fahd Causeway

According to a January 2006 report by the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia, Bahrain has the fastest growing economy in the Arab world.[104] Bahrain also has the freest economy in the Middle East and is tenth freest overall in the world based on the 2011 Index of Economic Freedom published by the Heritage Foundation/*Wall Street Journal*, .[105]

In 2008, Bahrain was named the world's fastest growing financial center by the City of London's Global Financial Centres Index.[104][104] Bahrain's banking and financial services sector, particularly Islamic banking, have benefited from the regional boom driven by demand for oil.[104] In Bahrain, petroleum production and processing account for about 60% of export receipts, 60% of government revenues, and 30% of GDP.

Economic conditions have fluctuated with the changing price of oil since 1985, for example during and following the Persian Gulf crisis of 1990–91. With its highly developed communication and transport facilities, Bahrain is home to a number of multinational firms and construction proceeds on several major industrial projects. A large share of exports consist of petroleum products made from imported crude oil. In 2004, Bahrain signed the US-Bahrain Free Trade Agreement, which will reduce certain trade barriers between the two nations.[106]

Unemployment, especially among the young, and the depletion of both oil and underground water resources are

major long-term economic problems. In 2008, the jobless figure was at 4%,[107] with women over represented at 85% of the total.[108] In 2007 Bahrain became the first Arab country to institute unemployment benefits as part of a series of labour reforms instigated under Minister of Labour, Dr. Majeed Al Alawi.[109]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Bahrain


Desert landscape in Bahrain

Bahrain is a generally flat and arid archipelago in the Persian Gulf, east of Saudi Arabia. It consists of a low desert plain rising gently to a low central escarpment with the highest point the 134 m (440 ft) Mountain of Smoke *(Jabal ad Dukhan)*. Bahrain has a total area of 665 km^2 (257 sq mi), which is slightly larger than the Isle of Man, though it is smaller than the nearby King Fahd International Airport near Dammam, Saudi Arabia (780 km^2 (301 sq mi)).

As an archipelago of thirty-three islands, Bahrain does not share a land boundary with another country but does have a 161 km (100 mi) coastline. The country also claims a further 22 km (12 nmi) of territorial sea and a 44 km (24 nmi) contiguous zone. Bahrain's largest islands are Bahrain Island, Muharraq Island, Umm an Nasan, and Sitrah. Bahrain has mild winters and very hot, humid summers. The country's natural resources include large quantities of oil and natural gas as well as fish in the offshore waters. Arable land constitutes only 2.82%[110] of the total area.

92% of Bahrain is desert with periodic droughts and dust storms the main natural hazards for Bahrainis. Environmental issues facing Bahrain include desertification resulting from the degradation of limited arable land, coastal degradation (damage to coastlines, coral reefs, and sea vegetation) resulting from oil spills and other discharges from large tankers, oil refineries, distribution stations, and illegal land reclamation at places such as Tubli Bay. The agricultural and domestic sectors' over-utilization of the Dammam Aquifer, the principal aquifer in Bahrain, has led to its salinisation by adjacent brackish and saline water bodies.[*citation needed*]

Climate

Main articles: Geography of Bahrain and Climate of Bahrain

The Zagros Mountains across the Persian Gulf in Iraq cause low level winds to be directed toward Bahrain. Dust storms from Iraq and Saudi Arabia transported by northwesterly winds cause reduced visibility in the months of June and July.

Due to the Persian Gulf area's low moisture, summers are very hot and dry. The seas around Bahrain are very shallow, heating up quickly in the summer to produce high humidity, especially at night. Summer temperatures may reach more than 40 °C (104 °F) under the right conditions. Rainfall in Bahrain is minimal and irregular. Rainfalls mostly occur in winter, with a recorded maximum of 71.8 mm (2.83 in).[111]

Climate data for Manama													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Average high °C (°F)	20.0 (68.0)	21.2 (70.2)	24.7 (76.5)	29.2 (84.6)	34.1 (93.4)	36.4 (97.5)	37.9 (100.2)	38.0 (100.4)	36.5 (97.7)	33.1 (91.6)	27.8 (82.0)	22.3 (72.1)	30.1 (86.2)

Average low °C (°F)	14.1 (57.4)	14.9 (58.8)	17.8 (64.0)	21.5 (70.7)	26.0 (78.8)	28.8 (83.8)	30.4 (86.7)	30.5 (86.9)	28.6 (83.5)	25.5 (77.9)	21.2 (70.2)	16.2 (61.2)	23.0 (73.4)
Precipitation mm (inches)	14.6 (0.575)	16.0 (0.63)	13.9 (0.547)	10.0 (0.394)	1.1 (0.043)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.5 (0.02)	3.8 (0.15)	10.9 (0.429)	70.8 (2.787)
Avg. precipitation days	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.4	0.2	0	0	0	0	0.1	0.7	1.7	9.9
Source: World Meteorological Organisation (UN) [112]													

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Bahrain

Religion in Bahrain 2010	[1]
Islam	70.2%
Other	29.8%

In 2010, Bahrain's population grew to 1.2 million, of which 568,399 were Bahraini and 666,172 were non-nationals.[1] It had risen from 1.05 million (517,368 non-nationals) in 2007, the year when Bahrain's population crossed the one million mark.[113] Though a majority of the population is ethnically Arab, a sizeable number of people from South Asia live in the country. In 2008, approximately 290,000 Indian nationals lived in Bahrain, making them the single largest expatriate community in the country.[114][115]

Bahrain is the fourth most densely populated sovereign state in the world with a population density of 1,646 people per km^2 in 2010 [116]. The only sovereign states with larger population densities are city states. Much of this population is concentrated in the north of the country with the Southern Governorate being the least densely populated part.[1] The north of the country is so urbanized that it is considered by some to be one large metropolitan area.[117]

The official religion of Bahrain is Islam and 99.8% of Bahraini citizens are Muslim. There are no official figures for the proportion of Shia and Sunni among the Muslims of Bahrain, but approximately 66-70% percent of Bahraini Muslims are Shias. [118][119][120][121] Due to an influx of immigrants and guest workers from non-Muslim countries, such as India, Philippines and Sri Lanka,[122] the overall percentage of Muslims in the country has declined in recent years. According to the 2001 census, 81.2% of Bahrain's population was Muslim, 9% were Christian, and 9.8% practised Hinduism or other religions.[110] The 2010 census records that the Muslim proportion had fallen to 70.2% (the 2010 census did not differentiate between the non-Muslim religions).[123]

Culture

Main articles: Culture of Bahrain and Music of Bahrain

Bahrain is sometimes described as "Middle East lite"[124] due to its combination of modern infrastructure with a Persian Gulf identity. While Islam is the main religion, Bahrainis are known for their tolerance towards the practice of other faiths.[*citation needed*]

It is too early to say whether political liberalisation under King Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa has augmented or undermined Bahrain's traditional pluralism. The new political space for Shia and Sunni Islamists has meant that they are now more able to pursue programs that often seek to directly confront this pluralism. At the same time,

political reforms have encouraged an opposite trend whereby society becomes more self-critical and shows a greater willingness to examine previous social taboos.[*citation needed*]

In common with the rest of the Muslim world, though Bahrain has take strong strides for women's rights, it does not recognise lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender rights.[*citation needed*]

Another facet of the new openness is Bahrain's status as the most prolific book publisher in the Arab world, with 132 books published in 2005 for a population of 700,000. In comparison, the 2005 average for the entire Arab world was seven books published per one million people, according to the United Nations Development Programme.[125] Ali Bahar is the most famous singer in Bahrain. He performs his music with his Band Al-Ekhwa (*The Brothers*).



Shi'a Muslims in Bahrain strike their chests during the Remembrance of Muharram.

Language

Arabic is the official language of Bahrain though English is widely used. Bahrani Arabic is the most widely spoken language.

Formula One and other motorsports events

Bahrain has a Formula One race-track, which hosted the inaugural Gulf Air Grand Prix on 4 April 2004, the first in an Arab country. This was followed by the Bahrain Grand Prix in 2005. Bahrain hosted the opening Grand Prix of the 2006 season on 12 March of that year. Both the above races were won by Fernando Alonso of Renault. The 2007 event took place on 13, 14 April and 15.[126]

In 2006, Bahrain also hosted its inaugural Australian V8 Supercar event dubbed the "*Desert 400*". The V8s will return every November to the Sakhir circuit. The Bahrain International Circuit also features a full length drag strip where the Bahrain Drag Racing Club has organised invitational events featuring some of Europe's top drag racing teams[*citation needed*] to try to raise the profile of the sport in the Middle East.



The podium ceremony of the 2007 Bahrain Grand Prix.

Holidays

On 1 September 2006, Bahrain changed its weekend from being Thursdays and Fridays to Fridays and Saturdays, in order to have a day of the weekend shared with the rest of the world. Other non-regular holidays are listed below:

Date	English name	Local (Arabic) name	Description
1 January	New Year's Day	رأس السنة الميلادية	The Gregorian New Year's Day, celebrated by most parts of the world.

Date	English name	Local (Arabic) name	Description
1 May	Labour Day	يوم العمال	
16 December	National Day	اليوم الوطني	National Day, Accession Day for the late Amir *Sh. Isa Bin Salman Al Khalifa*
17 December	Accession Day	يوم الجلوس	
1st *Muharram*	Islamic New Year	رأس السنة الهجرية	Islamic New Year (also known as: *Hijri New Year*).
9th, 10th *Muharram*	Day of *Ashura*	عاشوراء	Commemorates the martyrdom of Imam Hussein.
12th *Rabiul Awwal*	Prophet Muhammad's birthday	المولد النبوي	Commemorates Prophet Muhammad's birthday, celebrated in most parts of the Muslim world.
1st, 2nd, 3rd *Shawwal*	Little Feast	عيد الفطر	Commemorates end of Ramadan.
9th *Zulhijjah*	Arafat Day	يوم عرفة	
10th, 11th, 12th *Zulhijjah*	Feast of the Sacrifice	عيد الأضحى	Commemorates Ibrahim's willingness to sacrifice his son. Also known as the *Big Feast* (celebrated from the 10th to 13th).

Military

Main article: Military of Bahrain

See also: Bahrain Royal Medical Services, Royal Bahraini Army, Royal Bahraini Air Force, and Royal Bahrain Naval Force


Royal Bahraini Navy RBNS *Sabha*

The kingdom has a small but well equipped military called the Bahrain Defence Force (BDF). The BDF is primarily equipped with United States equipment, such as the F16 Fighting Falcon, F5 Freedom Fighter, UH60 Blackhawk, M60A3 tanks, and the ex-USS *Jack Williams*, an Oliver Hazard Perry class frigate renamed the RBNS *Sabha*. The Government of Bahrain has a cooperative agreement with the United States Military and has provided the United States a base in Juffair since the early 1990s. This is the home of the headquarters for Commander, *United States Naval Forces Central Command* (COMUSNAVCENT) / *United States Fifth Fleet* (COMFIFTHFLT), and about 1500 United States and coalition military personnel.[127]

Education

Main article: Education in Bahrain

See also: List of universities in Bahrain

At the beginning of the 20th century, Qur'anic schools (*Kuttab*) were the only form of education in Bahrain. They were traditional schools aimed at teaching children and youth the reading of the Qur'an. After World War I,

Bahrain became open to western influences, and a demand for modern educational institutions appeared. 1919 marked the beginning of modern public school system in Bahrain when the Al-Hidaya Al-Khalifia School for boys opened in Muharraq. In 1926, the Education Committee opened the second public school for boys in Manama, and in 1928 the first public school for girls was opened in Muharraq.


Students at the University of Bahrain, wearing the traditional garb

In 2004 King Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa introduced the "King Hamad Schools of Future *project that uses Information Communication Technology to support K–12 education in Bahrain. The project's objective is to connect all schools within the kingdom with the Internet. In addition to British intermediate schools, the island is served by the Bahrain School (BS). The BS is a United States Department of Defense school that provides a K-12 curriculum including International Baccalaureate offerings. There are also private schools that offer either the IB Diploma Programme or United Kingdom A-Levels.*

In 2007, St. Christopher's School Bahrain became the first school in Bahrain to offer a choice of International Baccalaureate or A-Levels for students. Numerous international educational institutions and schools have established links to Bahrain. A few prominent institutions are DePaul University, Bentley University, the Ernst & Young Training Institute, NYIT and the Birla Institute of Technology International Centre Schooling is paid for by the government. Primary and secondary school attendance is high[*citation needed*] even though it is not compulsory.

Bahrain also encourages institutions of higher learning, drawing on expatriate talent and the increasing pool of Bahrain Nationals returning from abroad with advanced degrees. The University of Bahrain was established for standard undergraduate and graduate study, and the King Abdulaziz University College of Health Sciences, operating under the direction of the Ministry of Health, trains physicians, nurses, pharmacists, and paramedics. The 2001 National Action Charter paved the way for the formation of private universities such as the Ahlia University in Manama and University College of Bahrain in Saar. The Royal University for Women (RUW), established in 2005, was the first private, purpose-built, international University in Bahrain dedicated solely to educating women. The University of London External has appointed MCG as the regional representative office in Bahrain for distance learning programs. MCG is one of the oldest private institutes in the country. Institutes have also opened which educate Asian students, such as the Pakistan Urdu School, Bahrain and the Indian School, Bahrain.

Tourism

Main article: Tourism in Bahrain


A 123 m (404 ft) high fountain off the coast

As a tourist destination, Bahrain receives over eight million visitors per annum[*citation needed*]. Most of these are from the surrounding Arab states although an increasing number hail from outside the region due to growing awareness of the kingdom's heritage and its higher profile as a result of the Bahrain International F1 Circuit. The Lonely Planet Guide describes Bahrain as "*an excellent introduction to the Persian Gulf*",[128] because of its authentic Arab heritage and reputation as a liberal and modern country. The kingdom is also home to the popular tourist attraction, the Bahrain City Center.

of Manama. The mechanism is contained in a barge, anchored to the seabed.

The kingdom combines modern Arab culture and the archaeological legacy of five thousand years of civilisation. The island is home to castles including Qalat Al Bahrain which has been listed by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site. The Bahrain National Museum has artefacts from the country's history dating back to the island's first human inhabitants some 9000 years ago.

See also

- Outline of Bahrain
- Index of Bahrain-related articles
- Bahrain World Trade Center
- Manama
- Utub
- List of towns and villages of Bahrain
- List of tallest buildings and structures in Bahrain

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History of Bahrain

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Bahrain is a island country in the Persian Gulf. Although Bahrain became an independent country in 1971, the history of these islands starts from ancient times. Bahrain's strategic location in the Persian Gulf has brought rule and influence from the Sumerians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Persians, Portuguese, the Arabs, and the British.

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- 1 Ancient history
- 2 Islam
- 3 The Qarmatian Republic
- 4 Uyunid, Usfurid, and Jabrid dynasties
- 5 Portuguese rule
- 6 Safavid hegemony and the Beglarbegi of Kuhgilu
- 7 Omani invasion and subsequent instability
- 8 Al Khalifa and British Protectorate
  - 8.1 Treaties with Britain
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- 9 Independent Bahrain
  - 9.1 The constitutional experiment
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  - 9.3 1990s
  - 9.4 2000s
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- 10 See also
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Ancient history

Bahrain has been proposed as the possible site of Dilmun, a land mentioned by Mesopotamians as a trade partner, source of raw material, copper, and entrepot of the Mesopotamia and the Indus Valley Civilization trade route. However, the exact location of Dilmun is unclear, it might be associated with the islands of Bahrain, Eastern Province, Qatar and nearby Iranian coast in the Persian Gulf.[1] One of the early settlements discovered in Bahrain suggests that Sennacherib, king of Assyria (707-681 BC) attacked northeast Arabia and captured the Bahrain islands.[2]

From the 6th century BC to the 3rd century BC Bahrain was

History of Bahrain



This article is part of **a series**

Ancient Bahrain

Dilmun

Tylos and Mishmahig

Awal

Historical region

Islam in Bahrain

Al-Ala'a Al-Hadrami

Qarmatians

Usfurid dynasty

Jarwanid dynasty

Jabrid dynasty

Portuguese occupation

Muqrin ibn Zamil

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Safavid hegemony (1602-1717)

1717 Omani invasion of Bahrain

Al Khalifa and the British Protectorate

1783 Bani Utbah invasion of Bahrain

Perpetual Truce of Peace and Friendship (1861)

First Oil Well (1932)

20th Century Bahrain

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State Security Law era

1981 coup d'état attempt

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Topical

Military history of Bahrain

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included in the Persian Empire by the Achaemenids, an Iranian dynasty.[2] Bahrain was referred to by the Greeks as "Tylos", the centre of pearl trading, when Nearchus discovered it while serving under Alexander the Great.[3] From the 3rd century BC to the arrival of Islam in the 7th century AD, Bahrain was controlled by two other Iranian dynasties, the Parthians and the Sassanids. By about 130 BC, the Parthian dynasty brought the Persian Gulf under their control and extended their influence as far as Oman. Because they needed to control the Persian Gulf trade route, the Parthians established garrisons along the southern coast of the Persian Gulf.[4]

Bahrain Portal



Asia in 600 CE, showing the Sassanid Empire before the Arab conquest.

In the 3rd century AD, the Sassanids succeeded the Parthians and held the area until the arrival of Islam four centuries later.[4] Ardashir, the first ruler of the Iranian Sassanid dynasty marched to Oman and Bahrain and defeated Sanatruq[5] (or Satiran[2]), probably the Parthian governor of Bahrain.[6] He appointed his son Shapur I as governor of Bahrain. Shapur constructed a new city there and named it Batan Ardashir after his father.[2] At this time, Bahrain incorporated the southern Sassanid province covering the Persian Gulf's southern shore plus the archipelago of Bahrain.[6] The southern province of the Sassanids was subdivided into three districts; Haggar (now al-Hafuf province, Saudi Arabia), Batan Ardashir (now al-Qatif province, Saudi Arabia), and Mishmahig (now Bahrain Island)[2] (In Middle-Persian/Pahlavi it means "ewe-fish").[7]

Islam

From the time when Islam emerged in the 7th century until the early 16th century, the name *Bahrain* referred to the wider historical region of Bahrain stretching from Basrah to the Strait of Hormuz along the Persian Gulf coast. This was *Iqlīm al-Baḥrayn*, i.e. the Province of Bahrain, and the Arab inhabitants of the province were descendants of the Arab tribe Bani Abd al-Qais.

Bahrainis were amongst the first to embrace Islam. The Prophet Mohammed ruled Bahrain through one of his representatives, Al-Ala'a Al-Hadhrami. Bahrain embraced Islam in 629 (the seventh year of hijra). During the time of Umar I the famous companion of the Prophet(Peace and Blessings upon Him), Abu Hurayrah ,was the governor of Bahrain. Umar I also appointed Uthman bin Abi Al Aas as governor of the area. Al Khamis Mosque, founded in 692, was one of the earliest mosques built in Bahrain, in the era of Umayyad caliph Umar II.

The expansion of Islam did not affect Bahrain's reliance on trade, and its prosperity continued to be dependent on markets in Mesopotamia. After Baghdad emerged as the seat of the caliph in 750 and the main centre of Islamic civilization, Bahrain greatly benefited from the city's increased demand for foreign goods especially from China and South Asia.

Bahrain became a principal centre of knowledge for hundreds of years stretching from the early days of Islam in the 6th century to the 18th century. Philosophers of Bahrain were highly esteemed, such as the 13th century mystic, Sheikh Maitham Al Bahrani (died in 1299). (The mosque of Sheikh Maitham and his tomb can be visited in the outskirts of the capital, Manama, near the district of Mahooz.).

The Qarmatian Republic

Main article: Qarmatians

In the end of the 3rd Hijri century, Abu Sa'id al-Hasan al-Janaby led the Revolution of al-Qaramita, a rebellion by a messianic Ismaili sect originating in Kufa in present day Iraq. Al-Janaby took over the city of Hajr, Bahrain's capital at

that time, and al-Hasa, which he made the capital of his republic. Once in control of the state he sought to create a utopian society.

The Qarmatians' goal was to build a society based on reason and equality. The state was governed by a council of six with a chief who was a first among equals.[8] All property within the community was distributed evenly among all initiates. The Qarmatians were organized as an esoteric society but not as a secret one; their activities were public and openly propagated, but new members had to undergo an initiation ceremony involving seven stages. The Qarmatian world view was one where every phenomenon repeated itself in cycles, where every incident was replayed over and over again.

Even before taking over Bahrain, the Qarmatians had instigated what some scholars have termed a ‘century of terrorism’ in Kufa.[9] From Bahrain they launched raids along the pilgrim routes crossing Arabia: in 906 they ambushed the pilgrim caravan returning from Mecca and massacred 20,000 pilgrims.[10] Under Abu Tahir Al-Jannabi they came close to capturing Baghdad in 923 and sacked Mecca in 930. In the assault on Islam's holiest sites, the Qarmatians desecrated the Well of Zamzam with corpses of Hajj pilgrims, and took the Black Stone from Mecca to Bahrain.[11] The sack of Mecca followed millenarian excitement among the Qarmatians (and in Persia) over the conjunction of Saturn and Jupiter in 928. Bahrain became the seat of the Qarmatian Mahdi-Caliph from Isfahan who abolished Sharīa law. The new Mahdi also changed the qibla of prayer from Mecca to that of fire, a specifically Zoroastrian practice. Some scholars take the view that "they may not have been Isamailis at all at the outset, and their conduct and customs gave plausibility to the belief that they were not merely heretics but bitter enemies of Islam."[12]

For much of the 10th century the Qarmatians were the most powerful force in the Persian Gulf and Middle East, controlling the coast of Oman, and collecting tribute from the Abbasid caliph in Baghdad and from the rival Ismaili Fatimid caliph in Cairo, whom they did not recognize. The land they ruled over was extremely wealthy with a huge slave-based economy according to academic Yitzhak Nakash:

> “The Qarmatian state had vast fruit and grain estates both on the islands and in Hasa and Qatif. Nasiri Khusru, who visited Hasa in 1051, recounted that these estates were cultivated by some thirty thousand Ethiopian slaves. He mentions that the people of Hasa were exempt from taxes. Those impoverished or in debt could obtain a loan until they put their affairs in order. No interest was taken on loans, and token lead money was used for all local transactions. The Qarmathian state had a powerful and long-lasting legacy. This is evidenced by a coin known as Tawila, minted around 920 by one of the Qarmathian rulers, and which was still in circulation in Hasa early in the twentieth century[13] ”

The Qarmatians were defeated in battle in 976 by the Abbasids, which encouraged them to look inward to build their utilitarian society. Around 1058, a revolt on the island of Bahrain led by two Shi'a members of the Abd al-Qays tribe, Abul-Bahlul al-‘Awwam and Abu’l-Walid Muslim,[14] precipitated the waning of Qarmatian power and eventually the ascendancy to power of the Uyunids, an Arab dynasty belonging to the Abdul Qays tribe.[15]

Uyunid, Usfurid, and Jabrid dynasties

The Uyunids ruled from 1076 to 1235, when the islands were briefly occupied by the Turkic Salgharid Atabeg of Fars. Supported by the Seljuk rulers of Iraq, the Uyunids relied on the power of the Banu 'Amir tribes such as the Banu Uqayl.

In 1253, the Bahrani dynasty of the Usfurids of Banu Uqayl — named after its founder, Usfur ibn Rashid — gained control over eastern Arabia, including the islands of Bahrain. The late Middle Ages were a time of chronic instability with local disputes allowing various Persian-based Arab Kingdoms based in Qais, Qishm and Hormuz to involve themselves in Bahrain's affairs.[16] In 1330, the islands became tributary to the rulers of Hormuz.[17]

According to historian Juan Cole it was under Sunni rule that Twelver Shiaism became established in Bahrain, as Shia Bahrainis gradually moved away from the radical, egalitarian Ismaili Qarmatian sect to the more quietist Twelver or Imami branch, a process which the Sunni rulers encouraged.[18] But even in the 14th century, the North African traveller Ibn Battuta visiting Qatif around 1331, found it inhabited by Arabs whom he described as "extremist Shi`is" (rafidiyya ghulat), which Cole presumes is how a 14th century Sunni would describe Ismailis. Ibn Battuta also noted the great wealth of the area thanks to the pearling industry.[19]



The historical region of Bahrain on a 1745 Bellin map

Until the late Middle Ages, "Bahrain" referred to the larger historical region of Bahrain. Ibn Battuta's 14th century account contains an early use of the term "Bahrain" to refer solely to the Awal islands. However, the exact date at which the term "Bahrain" began to refer solely to the Awal archipelago is unknown.[20]

In the mid-15th century, another branch of the Banu Uqayl, led by Zamil ibn Jabir, wrested control of Bahrain, founding the dynasty of the Bedouin Jabrids. Based in al-Ahsa, the Jarbids ruled most of eastern Arabia and followed the Sunni Maliki rite, which they actively promoted within their domain.[20][21]

Portuguese rule

Portuguese expansion into the Indian Ocean in the early 16th century followed Vasco da Gama's voyages of exploration in which the Portuguese battled the Ottomans up the coast of the Persian Gulf. Reputedly, the first Portuguese traveller to visit Bahrain was Duarte Barbosa in 1485.

The Arab navigator, Ahmad Bin Majid, visited Bahrain in 1489 and gave a contemporary account of the country that the first Portuguese would have seen: "In Awal (Bahrain) there are 360 villages and fresh water can be found in a number of places. A most wonderful al-Qasasir, where a man can dive into the salt sea with a skin and can fill it with fresh water while he is submerged in the salt water. Around Bahrain are pearl fisheries and a number of islands all of which have pearl fisheries and connected with this trade are 1,000 ships".

In 1521, a Portuguese force led by commander António Correia invaded Bahrain to take control of the wealth created by its pearl industry. The defeated King Muqrin was beheaded after Correia defeated his forces near present day Karbabad and took control of the fort "Qala'at Al-Bahrain". The bleeding head of King Muqrin was later depicted on the Coat of Arms of António Correia.

The Portuguese ruled through force against the inhabitants for eighty years, until they were driven out of the island in 1602, when an uprising was sparked by the governor's order of the execution of the island's richest traders. The uprising coincided with regional disputes between the Portuguese and rival European powers. The power vacuum that resulted was almost immediately filled by the Persian ruler, Shah Abbas I, who invaded the island and subsumed it within the Safavid Empire.

Safavid hegemony and the Beglarbegi of Kuhgilu

Under Persian Safavid rule (1602–1717), Bahrain fell under the administrative jurisdiction of the Beglarbegi of Kuhgilu centered at Behbahan in southern Iran. In fact, the Safavids ruled Bahrain from a distance, seeking to control the islands not by force, but through ideology and the manipulation of local rivalries. Safavid rule was a period of intellectual flowering among the Shia theological elite, with Bahrain's seminaries producing such theorists as Sheikh Yusuf Al Bahrani. The Safavid's used the clergy to buttress their rule, hoping that by firmly implanting Imami Shiaism they could secure the islands of Bahrain, with their centrality to trade routes and pearl wealth.[22]

However, the Safavids' strategy was in many ways too successful: the power and influence of the religious class meant that they had a great deal of autonomy, and it was the subsequent tension between Safavid state and the clergy that drove Bahrain's theological vitality. Part of this flourishing was borne of the Bahraini clerics' adherence to conservative Akhbari Shiaism, while the Safavids encouraged the more state-centric, Usulism. Attempts by the Persians to reign in the Bahraini ulema were often counterproductive, and ended up strengthening the clerics against their local land-owning Bahraini rivals who challenged the clerics' control over the lucrative pearl trade. Cleric-landowner conflict was usually contained within very limited parameters given that the senior ulema were usually the sons of the land-owning class.[23]

Omani invasion and subsequent instability

An Afghan invasion of Iran at the beginning of the 18th century resulted in the near collapse of the Safavid state. In the resultant power vacuum, Oman invade Bahrain in 1717, ending over a hundred years of Persian hegemony. The Omani invasion began a period of political instability and a quick succession of outside rulers took power with consequent destruction. According to a contemporary account by theologian, Sheikh Yusuf Al Bahrani, in an unsuccessful attempt by the Persians and their Bedouin allies to take back Bahrain from the Kharijite Omanis, much of the country was burnt to the ground.[24] Bahrain was eventually sold back to the Persians by the Omanis, but the weakness of the Safavid empire saw Huwala tribes seize control.[25]

In 1730, the new Shah of Persia, Nadir Shah, sought to re-assert Persian sovereignty in Bahrain, bring the island back under central rule and to challenge Oman in the Persian Gulf. He sought help from the British and Dutch, and he eventually recaptured Bahrain in 1736.[26] In 1753, Bahrain was occupied by the Arabs of Abu Shahr of the Bushire-based Al Madhkur family[27], who ruled Bahrain in the name of Persia and paid allegiance to Karim Khan Zand.

The years of almost constant warfare and instability in the period led to a demographic collapse - German geographer Carsten Niebuhr found in 1763 that Bahrain's 360 towns and villages had, through warfare and economic distress, been reduced to only 60.[28] The influence of Iran was further undermined at the end of the 18th century when the ideological power struggle between the Akhbari-Usuli strands culminated in victory for the Akhbaris in Bahrain.[29]

Al Khalifa and British Protectorate

In 1782, war broke out between the Zubarah-based Bani Utbah tribe and the army of Nasr Al-Madhkur, Ruler of Bahrain and Bushire.[30] The prosperity of Zubarah, which is in modern Qatar, had brought it to the attention of the two main powers at the time, Persia and Oman,[31] which were presumably sympathetic to Sheikh Nasr's ambitions. At the same time, Bahrain offered great potential wealth because of the extensive pearls found in its waters.

See also: 1783 Bani Utbah invasion of Bahrain

In 1783, after defeat in the battle of Zubarah, Nasr Al-Madhkur lost the islands of Bahrain to the Bani Utbah tribe. Fourteen years later in 1797 the Al Khalifa family, a clan of the tribe, moved from Zubarah to Bahrain, where they initially settled in Jaw and later moved to Riffa. The first ruler of the Al Khalifa was Shaikh Ahmed Al-Fateh.



In the early 19th century, Bahrain was invaded by the Omanis and by the Al Sauds. In 1802 it was governed by a twelve-year-old child, when the Omani ruler Sayyid Sultan installed his son, Salim, as Governor in the Arad Fort.[32]

Treaties with Britain

A view of Arad Fort

In 1820 Al Khalifa power in Bahrain was buttressed when it entered into a treaty relationship with Britain, which was by then the dominant military power in the Persian Gulf. This treaty granted the Al Khalifa the title of Rulers of Bahrain. It was the first of several treaties including the 1861 Perpetual Truce of Peace and Friendship, which was further revised in 1892 and 1951.



Riffa Fort at night

In the 19th century, the Al-Khalifas controlled the main archipelago of Bahrain, the Hawar Islands and the section of the Qatar peninsula around Zubarah called the Zubarah Bloc. Between 1869 and 1872 Midhat Pasha brought the islands nominally under the authority of the Ottoman Empire in coordination with the British. Ottoman ships starting appearing in the area as well.


Inside Riffa Fort

This treaty was similar to those entered into by the British Government with the other Persian Gulf principalities. It specified that the ruler could not dispose of any of his territory except to the United Kingdom and could not enter into relationships with any foreign government without British consent. In return the British promised to protect Bahrain from all aggression by sea and to lend support in case of land attack. More importantly, the British promised to support the rule of the Al Khalifa in Bahrain, securing its unstable position as rulers of the country. According to School of Oriental and African Studies academic, Nelida Fuccaro, this treaty relationship with Britain was one aspect of an evolving polity:

> From this perspective state building under the Al Khalifa shayks should not be considered exclusively as the result of Britain's informal empire in the Persian Gulf. In fact, it was a long process of strategic negotiation with different sections of the local population in order to establish a pre-eminence of their particularly artistic Sunni/Bedouin tradition of family rule.[33]

Economic and social development

Peace and trade brought a new prosperity. Bahrain was no longer dependent upon pearling, and by the mid-19th century, it became the pre-eminent trading centre in the Persian Gulf, overtaking rivals Basra, Kuwait, and finally in the 1870s, Muscat.[34] At the same time, Bahrain's socio-economic development began to diverge from the rest of the Persian Gulf: it transformed itself from a tribal trading centre in to a modern state.[35] This process was spurred by the attraction of large numbers of Persian, Huwala, and Indian merchant families who set up businesses on the island, making it the nexus of a vast web of trade routes across the Persian Gulf, Persia and the Indian sub-continent. A contemporary account of Manama in 1862 found:

> Mixed with the indigenous population [of Manamah] are numerous strangers and settlers, some of whom have been established here for many generations back, attracted from other lands by the profits of either commerce or the pearl fishery, and still retaining more or less the physiognomy and garb of their native countries. Thus the gay-coloured dress of the southern Persian, the saffron-stained vest of Oman, the white robe of Nejed, and the striped gown of Bagdad, are often to be seen mingling with the light garments of Bahreyn, its blue and red turban, its white silk-fringed cloth worn Banian fashion round the waist, and its frock-like overall; while a small but unmistakable colony of Indians, merchants by profession, and mainly from Guzerat, Cutch, and their vicinity, keep up here all their peculiarities of costume and manner, and live among the motley crowd, ‘among them, but not of them’.
>
> WG Palgrave, *Narrative of a Year's Journey through Central and Eastern Arabia (1862-3)*[36]

Palgrave's description of Manama's coffee houses in the mid-19th century portrays them as cosmopolitan venues in contrast to what he describes as the ‘closely knit and bigoted universe of central Arabia’.[37] Palgrave describes a people with an open – even urbane – outlook: "Of religious controversy I have never heard one word. In short, instead of Zelators and fanatics, camel-drivers and Bedouins, we have at Bahrain [Manama] something like ‘men of the world, who know the world like men’ a great relief to the mind; certainly it was so to mine."[38]

The great trading families that emerged during this period have been compared to the Borgias and Medicis[39] and their great wealth - long before the oil wealth for which the region would later be renowned - gave them extensive power, and among the most prominent were the Persian Al Safar family, who held the position of Native Agents of Britain in 19th Century.[40] The Al Safar enjoyed an 'exceptionally close'[41] relationship with the Al Khalifa clan from 1869, although the al-Khalifa never intermarried with them - it has been speculated that this could be related to political reasons (to limit the Safars’ influence with the ruling family) and possibly for religious reasons (because the Safars were Shia).

As a result of Bahrain's trade with India, the cultural influence of the subcontinent grew dramatically, with styles of dress, cuisine, and education showing a marked Indian influence. According to Exeter University's James Onley "In these and countless other ways, eastern Arabia's ports and people were as much a part of the Indian Ocean world as they were a part of the Arab world."[42]

Bahrain underwent a period of major social reform between 1926 and 1957, under the *de facto* rule of Charles Belgrave, the British advisor to Shaikh Hamad ibn Isa Al-Khalifa (1872-1942). The country's first modern school was established in 1919, with the opening of the Al-Hiddaya Boys School, while the Persian Gulf's first girls school opened in 1928. The American Mission Hospital, established by the Dutch Reform Church, began work in 1903. Other reforms include the abolition of slavery, while the pearl diving industry developed at a rapid pace.

These reforms were often opposed vigorously by powerful groups within Bahrain including sections within the ruling family, tribal forces, the religious authorities and merchants. In order to counter conservatives, the British removed the Emir, Isa bin Ali Al Khalifa, replacing him with his son in 1923. Some Sunni tribes such as the al Dosari left Bahrain to mainland Arabia, while clerical opponents of social reforms were exiled to Saudi and Iran, and the heads of some merchant and notable families were likewise exiled. Britain's interest in pushing Bahrain's development was motivated by concerns about Saudi-Wahabbi and Iranian ambitions.

Discovery of oil

The discovery of oil in 1932 made Bahrain the first location in the Persian Gulf to have oil wells sunk. Oil production required thousands of workers, attracting peasants and enfranchised slaves who had become free men thanks to the end of slavery and debt bondage. As the first oil wells were being drilled, the pearl diving industry, hitherto the main source of income for the country, collapsed because of competition from cultured pearls produced in Japan. This provided a further pool of labour needed by the new oil industry. It was the bringing together of all these disparate groups that prompted the emergence of an indigenous working class and the Leftist politics they adopted was to have important repercussions for the development of Bahraini society over the next fifty years.

During the Second World War, Bahrain fought on the side of the Allies, declaring war on Germany on September 10, 1939. It was a key base for the Allies to safeguard oil supplies in the Persian Gulf and was the subject of Italian air raids on its oil refineries on October 20, 1940 from bases in East Africa. The Bahraini provided two divisions to join the war in North Africa just before the Second Battle of El Alamein: the First Cavalry, led by General Benjamin Segal, and the Second Infantry, led by General Aaron Landberg. Both divisions were mentioned in dispatches in late 1942.

The leftist movement

Main article: National Union Committee

The National Union Committee (NUC), a leftist nationalist movement associated with the labour unions, was formed in 1954 calling for the end of British interference and political reforms. Work sites were plagued with frequent strikes and occasional riots (including several fatalities) during this period. Following riots in support of Egypt defending itself against the tripartite invasion during 1956 Suez Crisis, the British decided to put an end to the NUC challenge to their presence in Bahrain. The NUC and its offshoots were declared illegal. Its leaders were arrested, tried and imprisoned. Some fled the country while others were forcibly deported.[43][44]


The National Union Committee members in 1954

Strikes and riots continued during the 1960s, now under the leadership of underground cells of the NUC, namely the communist National Liberation Front and the Popular Front for the Liberation of Bahrain, the Bahraini section of the Arab Nationalist Movement.

In March 1965, an uprising broke out, called the March Intifada, against the British presence in Bahrain. The spark of the riots was the laying off of hundreds of Bahraini workers at the Bahrain Petroleum Company. Several people died in the sometimes violent clashes between protesters and police.

Independent Bahrain

After World War II, Bahrain became the centre for British administration of the lower Persian Gulf. In 1968, when the British Government announced its decision to end the treaty relationships with the Persian Gulf sheikdoms, Bahrain joined with Qatar and the seven Trucial States (which now form the United Arab Emirates) under British protection in an effort to form a union of Arab emirates. By mid-1971, however, the nine sheikhdoms still had not agreed on the terms of union. Accordingly, Bahrain sought independence as a separate entity declaring independence on August 15, 1971, and becoming formally independent as the State of Bahrain on December 16, 1971.[45]

At independence, the permanent Royal Navy presence in Bahrain ended and the United States Navy moved onto the 10 acres (40,000 m^2) previously occupied by British operations. The installation later grew into Naval Support Activity Bahrain, headquarters for the United States Fifth Fleet.

The emirate emerged just as the price of oil sky rocketed after the 1973 Arab-Israeli war; while Bahrain's own reserves were being depleted the high oil price meant there was massive capitalisation in the Kingdom's neighbours. The Kingdom was able to exploit the situation thanks to another war in the Levant in 1975: the Lebanese Civil War. Beirut had long been the financial centre of the Arab world, but the outbreak of hostilities in the country had an immediate impact on the banking industry. Bahrain offered a new location at the centre of the booming Persian Gulf with a large educated indigenous workforce and sound fiscal regulations. Realizing the opportunity to become a financial centre resulted in growth in other industry in the country.

This bolstered the development of the middle class and gives Bahrain a very different class structure from its tribal dominated neighbours. Although there had long been a large Indian presence in Bahrain, it was at this time that mass migration to the Kingdom began to take off with subsequent consequences for the Kingdom's demographics, as large numbers of third world immigrants from countries such as the Philippines, Pakistan, Egypt and Iran were attracted by better salaries than at home.

The constitutional experiment

Main article: Politics of Bahrain

Based on its new constitution, Bahraini men elected its first National Assembly in 1973 (although Article 43 of the 1973 Constitution states that the Assembly is to be elected by "universal suffrage", the conditional clause "in accordance with the provisions of the electoral law" allowed the regime to prevent women from participating). Although the Assembly and the then emir Isa ibn Salman al-Khalifa quarreled over a number of issues: foreign policy; the U.S. naval presence, and the budget, the biggest clash came over the State Security Law (SSL). The Assembly refused to ratify the government-sponsored law, which allowed, among other things, the arrest and detention of people for up to three years, (renewable) without a trial. The legislative stalemate over this act created a public crisis, and on August 25, 1975, the emir dissolved the Assembly. The emir then ratified the State Security Law by decree, and suspended those articles in the constitution dealing with the legislative powers of the Assembly. In that same year, the emir established the State Security Court, whose judgments were not subject to appeal.

See also: Bahraini parliamentary election, 1973

Iranian Revolution and social and political change

The tide of political Islam that swept the Middle East in the 1970s culminating in the Iranian Revolution in 1979 was to have profound implications for Bahrain's social and political development.

There were a number of factors that had caused Bahrain to be more liberal than its neighbours, but these were challenged by the zeitgeist of religious fundamentalism. Bahrain's pluralist traditions were to a large extent a result of the complex confessional and demographic make up of the state, which required Shias, Sunnis, Southern Persians (i.e. Huwala and Ajams) and a plethora of minority faiths to live and work together; this tolerance had been buttressed by the prominence of Arab nationalism and Marxism as the main modes of dissent, both of which were socially progressive and downplayed religious affiliations; while the country's traditional dependence on trade further encouraged openness.

Even before Iran's revolution in 1979, there was a noticeable conservative trend growing, with the traditional abaya being donned by women in preference to the then popular mini-skirt. But it was the political earthquake represented by the Shah's fall that changed the dynamics of Bahrain's politics. The prelude and aftermath of the Iranian Revolution in 1979 encouraged Shia Islamist dissent across the Middle East. Ayatollah Khomeini's Iran immediately saw their co-religionists in Bahrain, who had grown more conscious of their own religious identity during this period, as prime agents to export the revolution. The failure of the Left to offer a political or philosophical challenge to the Islamists allowed them quickly to dominate the avenues of dissent.

In 1981, an Iranian front organisation, the Islamic Front for the Liberation of Bahrain attempted a coup d'état through a plan involving the assassination of Bahrain's leadership and an Islamist uprising. The aim was to install a clerical leadership with Iraqi cleric Hādī al-Mudarrisī as supreme leader, but the coup was detected after a tip off from a friendly intelligence source.

The failed coup and the outbreak of the Iran–Iraq War led to the formation of the Gulf Cooperation Council which Bahrain joined with Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. The sense of regional uncertainty was further heightened when Saddam Hussein's Iraq invaded Kuwait followed by the 1991 Persian Gulf War.

1990s

Main article: 1990s Uprising in Bahrain

Years of political stasis, the collapse of the price of oil, and growing frustration at the lack of democracy exploded into an uprising in 1994. While previous advocacy of reforms had been secular in character, the uprising was specifically Islamist, beginning with the stoning of female competitors in a marathon race for wearing 'inappropriate' clothing. There was also a strong sense of grievance due to perceived discrimination against the majority Shia population of Bahrain by the Al Khalifa rulers.

In the 1990s, a group consisting mainly of clerics and businessmen led by Islamist leader Abdul Amir Al Jamri, drew up two petitions that were then signed by Shia, Sunni and secular nationalist individuals. They asked for reforms such as restoration of the National Assembly and the constitution of 1975, and participation by the population in decision making. To pre-empt the delivery of the petition to the emir, the regime arrested several of the leading Shia clerics who were organising the petition, including Ali Salman.

The political impasse continued over the next few years during which time the regime dealt with its opponents using severe repression. Bomb attacks and police brutality marked this period in which over forty people were killed in violence between the two sides. Although the violence was never entirely stopped by the security measures, it was contained and continued as low-level intermittent disturbances.[46]

In 1999 Shaykh Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa became Emir after the death of his father, Shaykh Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa, and carried out some social and political reforms.

2000s

Main article: 2000s in Bahrain

King Hamad tried to end the political repression that had defined the 1990s by scrapping security laws, releasing all political prisoners, instituting elections, giving women the vote and promising a return to constitutional rule. The move brought an end to political violence, but did not initially bring about a reconciliation between the government and most of the opposition groups, because the changes are seen as largely superficial and do not address the true issues facing Bahrainis today.[*citation needed*]

The country participated in military action against the Taliban in 2001 with its ships patrolling the Arabian Sea searching for vessels, but opposed the invasion of Iraq. Relations improved with neighbouring Qatar after the border dispute over the Hawar Islands was resolved by the International Court of Justice in The Hague in 2001. Following the political liberalization Bahrain negotiated a free trade agreement with the United States in 2004.[*citation needed*]

Qatar and Bahrain have made plans to build the Qatar-Bahrain Friendship Bridge to link the countries across the Persian Gulf, which would be the longest fixed-link bridge in the world if completed.[*citation needed*]

2011–2012 Bahraini uprising

Main article: 2011–2012 Bahraini uprising



Protesters raising their hands towards Pearl Roundabout

The protests in Bahrain were initially aimed at achieving greater political freedom and respect for human rights, and were not intended to threaten the monarchy nor were they as large as those in other countries.[47] Lingering frustration among the Shiite majority with being ruled by the Sunni government was a major root cause, but the protests in Tunisia and Egypt are cited as the inspiration for the demonstrations.[48] The protests began in Bahrain on 14 February[47] and were largely peaceful, until a raid by police on the night of 17 February against protestors sleeping at the Pearl Roundabout in Manama, in which police killed four protestors.[49][50] Following the deadly raid, some of the protestors' begins to expand their aims to a call for the end of the monarchy, who has ruled Bahrain since the late 18th century.[51] On 18 February, government forces opened fire on protesters, mourners, and news journalists,[52] prompting protesters to begin calling for the overthrow of the Bahraini monarchy and government.[53] On 19 February, protesters occupied Pearl Roundabout after the government ordered troops and police to withdraw.[54][55][56] On 22 February, an estimated one hundred thousand people, one fifth of all Bahrainis, marched. On 14 March, at the request of the Crown Prince, GCC

Saudi Arabian troops entered the country,[57] and opened fire on the protesters, several of whom were killed.[58][59] Later thousands of Shia protesters arose in Iraq and Qatif in opposition to the Saudi-led intervention in Bahrain.[60][61][62]



One of the huge marches that swept across Bahrain in February 2011

King Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa declared a three-month state of emergency on 15 March and asked the military to reassert its control as clashes spread across the country.[63] It was later lifted on 1 June 2011.[64] On 16 March 2011, the protesters' camp in the Pearl Roundabout was evacuated, bulldozed, and set on fire by the Bahraini Defense Force and riot police.[65] Later on 18 March, the Pearl Roundabout monument was torn down as part of the crackdown on protesters.[66] Human rights organizations reported that since the in the 8 months following the outbreak of protests on 14 February, more than 1,600 peaceful political protesters, medical professionals, journalists, human rights defenders and innocent bystanders were arrested and more than 100 people convicted by a special military court established by the government.[67]



Panoramic image for the march of 9 March 2012

Since the lifting of emergency law on 1 June, several large rallies have been staged by the Shi'ite community demanding the release of detained protesters, greater political representation, and an end to sectarian discrimination. In July 2011, medical personnel were tried by special military courts for treating injured protesters and sentenced to multi-year prison sentences.[68] Several human rights groups and news organizations have alleged they have been deliberately targeted by the Bahraini government.[69]

On 23 November 2011, the Bahrain Independent Commission of Inquiry released its report on human rights violations during the February and March 2011 protests, finding that the government "systematically" tortured prisoners, summarily fired Shi'ite employees and university students, and committed other gross human rights violations.[70] One of the report's recommendations was to allow human rights groups into the country to monitor the situation. Between 23 November and the end of January, however, the Bahraini government refused entry to several international human rights groups including Freedom House,[71][72] Human Rights First [73] and Physicians for Human Rights.[74]

On 9 March 2012, hundreds of thousands protested in one of the biggest anti-govemrent rallies to date. According to CNN, the march "filled a four-lane highway between Duraz and Muksha".[75] The government said 100,000 participated in the march while opposition activists estimated the number to be more than 200,000. The march was called for by Sheikh Isa Qassim, Bahrain's top Shia cleric. Protesters called for downfall of King and the release of imprisoned political leaders. The protest ended peacefully, however hundreds of youth tried to march back to the site of the now demolished symbolic Pearl roundabout, and were dispersed by security forces with tear gas.[76] Nabeel Rajab, president of BCHR called the march "the biggest in our history".[77]

See also

- Ahmed Al-Fateh
- Al-Khalifa
- Bahrain National Museum
- Bandargate scandal
- Bahrain
- Bahrain (historical region)
- Dilmun
- History of Asia
- History of the Jews in Bahrain
- History of Kuwait: The Anazia and Bani Utub (Early Migration and Settlement)
- History of the Middle East
- History of Qatar
- King of Bahrain
- Murair
- Politics of Bahrain
- Rahmah bin Jabir al-Jalahimah
- Zubarah

Further reading

King of Bahrain

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **King of Bahrain** (Arabic: ملك البحرين) is the monarch and head of state of Bahrain. Between 1783 and 1971, the Bahraini monarch held the title of Hakim, and, from 1971 until 2002, the title of Emir. On 14 February 2002, the then-Emir of Bahrain, Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa, declared Bahrain a kingdom and proclaimed himself the first king.

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- 1 List of monarchs
  - 1.1 Hakims of Bahrain (1783–1971)
  - 1.2 Emirs of Bahrain (1971–2002)
  - 1.3 King of Bahrain (2002–Present)
- 2 See also

King of Bahrain
ملك البحرين
Malik al-Baḥrayn
MONARCHY



Arms of His Majesty the King of Bahrain



Incumbent:
Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
since 6 March 1999 as Emir
since 14 February 2002 as King

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Salman bin Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
First monarch:	Ahmed bin Muhammad bin Khalifa (Hakim) Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifah (King)
Formation:	1783 (Hakimmiyah) 16 August 1971 (Emirate) 14 February 2002 (Kingdom)
Residence:	Riffa Palace

List of monarchs

Hakims of Bahrain (1783–1971)

The Arabic title of the Hakim, as transliterated, was *Hakim al-Bahrayn* (English: Lord of Bahrain). The Hakim also held the honorific title of sheikh.

Name	Reign		Remarks
	From	Until	
Sheikh Ahmed ibn Muhammad ibn Khalifa	1783	1796	
Sheikh Abdullah ibn Ahmad Al Khalifa	1796	1843	As co-regent
Sheikh Sulman ibn Ahmad Al Khalifa	1796	1825	As co-regent with Abdullah ibn Ahmad Al Khalifa
Sheikh Khalifah ibn Sulman Al	1825	1834	As co-regent with Abdullah ibn Ahmad Al

Khalifa			Khalifa
Sheikh Muhammad ibn Khalifah Al Khalifa	1834	1842	First reign as co-regent with Abdullah ibn Ahmad Al Khalifa
Sheikh Muhammad ibn Khalifah Al Khalifa	1843	1868	Second reign
Sheikh Ali ibn Khalifah Al Khalifa	1868	1869	
Sheikh Muhammad ibn Khalifah Al Khalifa	1869	1869	Third reign
Sheikh Muhammad ibn Abdullah Al Khalifa	September 1869	1 December 1869	
HH Sheikh Isa ibn Ali Al Khalifa	December 1869	9 December 1932	
HH Sheikh Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa	10 December 1932	20 February 1942	
HH Sheikh Salman ibn Hamad Al Khalifa	20 February 1942	2 November 1961	
HH Sheikh Isa ibn Salman Al Khalifa	2 November 1961	16 August 1971	Proclaimed himself Emir

Emirs of Bahrain (1971–2002)

The Arabic title of the Emir, as transliterated, was *Amir dawlat al-Bahrayn* (English: Prince of the State of Bahrain). The Emir also held the honorific title of sheikh.

Name	Image	Reign		Remarks
		From	Until	

HH Sheikh Isa ibn Salman Al Khalifa		16 August 1971	6 March 1999	Previously ruled as Sheikh
HH Sheikh Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa		6 March 1999	14 February 2002	Proclaimed himself King

King of Bahrain (2002–Present)

The Arabic title of the King, as transliterated, is *Malik al-Bahrayn* (English: King of Bahrain). The King also holds the honorific title of sheikh.

Name	Image	Reign		Remarks
		From	Until	
HM Sheikh Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa		14 February 2002	Present	Previously ruled as Emir

See also

- House of Khalifa
- Line of succession to the Bahraini throne
- 2011 Bahraini uprising

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Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa (Arabic: حمد بن عيسى آل خليفة; born 28 January 1950, Riffa, Bahrain) is the King of Bahrain (since 14 February 2002), having previously been its *Emir* (from 6 March 1999).[2] He is the son of Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa, the previous *Emir*.

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- 1 Early life and education
  - 1.1 Crown prince
- 2 Reign
  - 2.1 Political turmoil
  - 2.2 Bahrain uprising
  - 2.3 Prince William wedding decline
- 3 Family
- 4 Titles and styles
- 5 Honours and awards
- 6 See also
- 7 References
- 8 External links

Early life and education

Hamad ibn Isa Al Khalifa was born on 28 January 1950 in Riffa, Bahrain. His parents were Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa who in 1950 was the Crown Prince and Hessa bint Salman Al Khalifa. After attending Manama Secondary School in Bahrain, Hamad was sent to England to complete the remainder of his education. He attended Applegarth College in Godalming, Surrey before taking a place at The Leys School in Cambridge. Hamad then underwent military training, first with the British Army at Mons Officer Cadet School at Aldershot in Hampshire, graduating in September 1968.[1] Four years later in June 1972 Hamad attended the United States Army Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth in Kansas, graduating the following June with a degree in leadership.[3][4]

Crown prince

King Hamad was designated as heir apparent by his father on 27 June 1964. In 1968 King Hamad was appointed as the

Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
حمد بن عيسى آل خليفة



King of Bahrain

Reign	6 March 1999 – present
Coronation	14 February 2002
Predecessor	Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa
Heir apparent	Salman bin Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
Prime Ministers	Khalifa ibn Salman Al Khalifa
Spouse	Sabika bint Ibrahim (1968–present) Sheia bint Hassan Al-Khrayyesh Al-Ajmi 2 others
Issue	***Detail***
Salman bin Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa	
Abdullah Bin Hamad Bin Isa Al-Khalifa	
Khalifa bin Hamad Al Khalifa	
Najla bint Hamad Al Khalifa	
Nasser bin Hamad Al Khalifa	
Khalid bin Hamad Al Khalifa	
Faisal ibn Hamad Al Khalifa	
Sultan bin Hamad Al Khalifa	
Hessa bint Hamad Al Khalifa	

Chairman of the Irrigation Council and Manama Municipal Council. He was commissioned into the Bahrain National Guard on 16 February 1968 and appointed as its commander the same year, remaining in that post until 1969 when he was appointed as the Commander-in-Chief of the Bahrain Defence Force. In 1970 King Hamad became the head of the Bahraini Department of Defence and the Vice-Chairman of the Administrative Council, remaining in both offices until 1971. From 1971 to 1988 he was the Minister of State for Defence.[4]

Nura bint Hamad Al Khalifa	
Munira bint Hamad Al Khalifa	
Reema bint Hamad Al Khalifa	
House	Al-Khalifa
Father	Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa
Mother	Hessa bint Salman Al Khalifa
Born	28 January 1950 [1] Riffa, British Bahrain
Religion	Sunni Islam

In October 1977, King Hamad started learning to fly helicopters, successfully completing the training in January 1978. He then worked to establish the Bahrain Amiri Air Force[3] which came into being in 1987 when the Defence Force air wing was reconstituted as an air force.

Reign


King Hamad with Donald H. Rumsfeld

On the death of his father Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa, Hamad became Emir of Bahrain on 6 March 1999.[2] As Emir, Hamad brought several political reforms to Bahrain. These included the release of all political prisoners, the dissolution of the State Security Court and the abolition of the 1974 Decree on State Security Measures. Additionally, many Bahraini citizens were permitted to return after several years in exile overseas.[5] In 2002 he declared himself king.

Political turmoil

After HM King Hamad took power in 1999, he focused on attaining stability in a nation riddled with profound tensions because of the 1990s uprising in Bahrain. The King succeeded in improving the living standards and in making Bahrain a financial hub. During the period 2003-2010 majority Shi'ite community and Secular Sunni accused his government of corruption, discrimination in housing and jobs, recruiting foreigners in military service and bringing Sunni tribes from Asia to change the demographic composition of the nation. This led to some minor disturbances by the Shia'a community against His Majesty's Government.

During HM King Hamad current years of reign, Shi'ite majority community took some positions in the government, But they called for improving the entire political system and equitable distribution of positions and jobs. Al Khalifa family led a large number of ministerial and Governmental posts including Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Culture, Ministry of foreign affairs, general organization for youth and sport, Bahrain Economic development board and Supreme council for women. Also, Positions of power in Bahrain Defence Force in the country were filled with Sunnis , a minority that made around 30% of the population. Information affairs authority had been separated from the Ministry of information and led by a member of Al Khalifa family too. Opposition claimed that this is a Nepotism which marginalizing the people. HM King Hamad stated that he is giving an equal chance to all Bahrain people regardless their sect.

In October 2010, HM's Government accused 24 Bahraini citizens mostly Shi'ite Muslim in forming terrorist cell linked to Iran and Trained in Syria for overthrowing the regime and planning for terrorist attacks. Opposition Parties denounced the accusations and described it as propaganda. After just few weeks, tension raised again

after controversial Bahraini parliamentary election, 2010 when The main Opposition bloc Al Wefaq National Islamic Society with Secularist National Democratic Action Society (Waad) accused the government for unfair election system that aims to reduce the number of Shiite's and Secularists chairs in the parliament, although the party won nearly 40% of the available seats, and the United States regarded the elections as *free and fair*[6].

Bahrain uprising

Main article: 2011–2012 Bahraini uprising

On 14 February 2011, the tenth anniversary of a referendum in favour of the National Action Charter, Bahrain was rocked by protests inspired by the Arab spring and coordinated by a Facebook page named "Day of Rage in Bahrain", a page that was liked by more than 90,000 people just one week after its creation. The Bahrain government responded with what has been described as a "brutal" crackdown[7][8][9] on the protest, including violations of human rights that caused anger. Later on, demonstrators demanded Hamad to step down.[10] As a result of this "massive" crackdown, The Foreign Policy classified him as rank 3 out of 8 of "America's Unsavory Allies" calling him "one of the bad guys the U.S. still supports".[11]

During the peak of the 2011–2012 Bahraini uprising on the mid of March 2011 HM King Hamad declared three months State of emergency just after he called Peninsula Shield Force troops to enter Bahrain. Saudi Arabia deployed about 1,000 troops with armored support, and the United Arab Emirates deployed about 500 police officers. Opposition parties reacted strongly, calling it an "occupation". But HM King Hamad stated that he deployed the troops to protect infrastructure and to secure key installations. After this step taken by HM King Hamad, Bahrain economy suffered losses estimated at billions. Also, security situation deteriorated in areas that people were demonstrating against him. While Number of deaths were announced including five whom died in custody.

On 1 June 2011, protests erupted across Shia-dominated areas of Bahrain to demand HM King Hamad to step down and to end martial law as HM King Hamad announced that state of emergency was officially lifted.

In June 2011 King Hamad commissioned the Bahrain Independent Commission of Inquiry headed by respected human rights lawyer M. Cherif Bassiouni to look into the events surrounding the unrest. The establishment of the BICI was praised by Barack Obama and the international community[12][13] as a step towards establishing responsibility and accountability for the events of the 2011-2012 Bahraini uprising. The BICI reported its findings in November 2011 and US Secretary of State Hillary Clinton "commend[ed] King Hamad bin Isa al-Khalifa's initiative in commissioning it".[14]

Prince William wedding decline

King Hamad was invited to the royal wedding of Prince William of Wales and Kate Middleton. He declined amidst protests by human rights activists who had pledged to disrupt his stay in Britain because of his violent response to demonstrators.[15] Earlier in 2005, he was the only sovereign head of state to attend the wedding of Charles, Prince of Wales, and Camilla Parker Bowles.

Family

King Hamad has four wives and in total twelve children, seven sons and five daughters:

- He married his first wife, Queen Sabika bint Ibrahim Al Khalifa, at Rifa'a on 9 October 1968. Together they have three sons and one daughter:

    - HRH Prince Salman bin Hamad Al Khalifa, Crown Prince of Bahrain (born 21 October 1969)
    - HH Sheikh Abdullah bin Hamad Al Khalifa (born 30 June 1975)
    - HH Sheikh Khalifa bin Hamad Al Khalifa (born 4 June 1977)
    - HH Sheikha Najla bint Hamad Al Khalifa (born 20 May 1981)
- His second wife, Sheikha Sheia bint Hassan Al-Khrayyesh Al-Ajmi, is a lady from Kuwait. Together they have two sons:
    - HH Sheikh Nasser bin Hamad Al Khalifa (born 8 May 1987)
    - HH Sheikh Khalid bin Hamad Al Khalifa (born 23 September 1989)

- He also has a third wife, a lady from Qatar, with whom he has two sons and four daughters:
    - HH Sheikh Faisal bin Hamad Al Khalifa (12 February 1992 – 12 January 2006), died in a fatal car accident
    - HH Sheikh Sultan bin Hamad Al Khalifa
    - HH Sheikha Hessa bint Hamad Al Khalifa
    - HH Sheikha Nura bint Hamad Al Khalifa
    - HH Sheikha Munira bint Hamad Al Khalifa
    - HH Sheikha Reema bint Hamad Al Khalifa
- He does not have any children with his fourth wife, a lady from Qatar.

Titles and styles

- 28 January 1950 – 16 December 1961: Sheikh Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
- 16 December 1961 – 27 June 1964: *His Excellency* Sheikh Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
- 27 June 1964 – 6 March 1999: *His Highness* Sheikh Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa, Heir Apparent of Bahrain
- 6 March 1999 – 14 February 2002: *His Highness* Sheikh Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa, Emir of Bahrain
- 14 February 2002 – present: *His Majesty* Sheikh Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa, King of Bahrain[2]

Monarchical styles of

The King of Bahrain



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	Sheikh

Honours and awards

Hamad has received numerous honours, for example:

- Grand Cordon of the Order of the Star of Jordan (1 February 1967)[4]
- Order of the Two Rivers, 1st class (Iraq, 22 February 1969)[4]
- Order of Muhammad (Morocco, 16 October 1970)[4]
- Grand Cordon of the Order of the Renaissance (Jordan, 1 September 1972)[4]
- Collar of the Order of the Republic of Egypt (24 January 1973)[4]
- Collar of the Order of the Crown (Iran, 28 April 1973)[4]
- Collar of Abdulaziz al Saud (Saudi Arabia, 4 April 1976)[4]
- Star of the Republic of Indonesia, 1st class (8 October 1977)[4]
- Order of the Republic of Mauritania, 1st class (4 April 1978)[4]
- Honorary Knight Commander of the Order of St Michael and St George (UK, 15 February 1979)[4]
- Grand Conqueror of Libya, 1st class (1 September 1979)[4]
- Honorary Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Ireland (2006)[4]

See also

- Politics of Bahrain
- List of national leaders
- Al Khalifa

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External links

- The Monarchy (http://www.bahrainembassy.org/index.cfm?fuseaction=section.home&id=38) – official website of the Bahrain Embassy
- The New Amir of Bahrain: Marching Sideways (http://www.vob.org/index.php?lang=english&show=news&action=article&id=41) , Abdulhadi Khalaf, Civil Society, Volume 9, Issue 100, April 2000
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- An Arab exception: Reform in Bahrain (http://www.economist.com/displaystory.cfm?story_id=E1_NJSDSTV) The Economist, 29 July 2004 (requires subscription)
- Genealogy of the Al-Khalifa Dynasty, Page 10 (http://www.royalark.net/Bahrain/bahrain10.htm) – website The Royal Ark

Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa **House of Khalifa** **Born:** 28 January 1950		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa**	**Emir of Bahrain** 1999–2002	Succeeded by **Himself** ***as King of Bahrain***
Preceded by **Himself** ***as Emir of Bahrain***	**King of Bahrain** 2002–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Salman bin Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa*

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Hamad_bin_Isa_Al_Khalifa&oldid=482697531"
Categories: 1950 births | Arab politicians | Bahraini aviators | Bahraini monarchs | Current national leaders | Honorary Knights Commander of the Order of St Michael and St George | House of Khalifa | Living people | Marshals of the air force | People educated at The Leys School | People of the 2011–2012 Bahraini uprising | Reigning monarchs | Kings of Bahrain

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Al Khalifa family

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Al Khalifa family** (Arabic: آل خليفة / ALA-LC: Āl Khalīfah / English: The house of Khalifa) is the ruling royal family of Bahrain. The Al Khalifa profess Sunni Islam and belong to the Anizah tribe that migrated from Najd to Kuwait in the early 18th century. They are also from the Utub tribe. The current head of the family is Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa, who became the Emir of Bahrain in 1999 and proclaimed himself King of Bahrain in 2002.

As of 2010, roughly half of the serving cabinet ministers of Bahrain have been selected from the Al Khalifa royal family,[3] while the country's only Prime Minister, Khalifah bin Salman al-Khalifah, (serving since independence in 1971) is also from the Al Khalifa family and is the uncle of the current King.

Al Khalifa



Country	Bahrain
Ancestral house	`Anizzah → Bani Utbah
Titles	King of Bahrain
Founder	Khalifa bin Mohammed[1]
Current head	Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa
Founding	1766[2]

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- 1 List of monarchs of Bahrain of the Al Khalifa family
- 2 Ruling Family Council
  - 2.1 Members of the Ruling Family Council since 1974
- 3 In public office
- 4 Other notable members
- 5 Transcription
- 6 See also
- 7 References
- 8 External links

List of monarchs of Bahrain of the Al Khalifa family

Name	Years as ruler	Title
Ahmed bin Muhammad bin Khalifa	1783–1796	Hakim
Abdullah bin Ahmad Al-Khalifa, ruling jointly with Salman bin Ahmad Al-Khalifa Khalifah bin Sulman Al-Khalifa	1796–1843 1796–1825 1825–1834	Hakim Hakim Hakim
Muhammad bin Khalifah Al-Khalifa	1834–1842 1849–1868 1869-1869	Hakim
Ali bin Khalifah Al-Khalifa	1868–1869	Hakim

Muhammad bin Abdullah Al-Khalifa	1869-1869	Hakim
Isa bin Ali Al-Khalifa	1869–1932	Hakim
Hamad bin Isa Al-Khalifa	1932–1942	Hakim
Salman bin Hamad Al-Khalifa	1942–1961	Hakim
Isa bin Salman Al-Khalifa	1961–1971 1971–1999	Hakim Amir
Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa	1999–2002 2002 -	Amir King

Ruling Family Council

Decisions pertaining to the Al Khalifa family, as well as disputes between family members are arbitrated by the Ruling Family Council (Arabic: مجلس العائلة الحاكمة).[4][5][6] The council attends to internal family disputes particularly those related to appropriation of land, sale of real estate and other properties. Members of the ruling family are not allowed to refer these or other disputes to ordinary law courts.[4]

Relations between the political leadership and the rest of the "rank and file" members of the Al Khalifa ruling family have been formally managed by the council since 1932. However, on the eve of the 1973 parliamentary elections, the then Amir Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa issued a decree restructuring the Ruling Family Council to become a formal organ of the state, and giving the administrative head of the council the rank of minister.[4]

The Ruling Family Council is currently chaired by King Hamad,[7] its Deputy Chairman is Mohammed bin Khalifa bin Hamad Al Khalifa,[8] and the Director General is Ibrahim bin Khalid bin Mohammed Al Khalifa.[9]

The King appoints the members of the board of the Ruling Family Council as recognised representatives of various kinship lines and factional alliances within the Al Khalifa family.[4]

Members of the Ruling Family Council since 1974

Name	Year appointed
Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa	1974[10]
Khalifa bin Mohammed bin Abdullah Al Khalifa	1974[10]
Abdullah bin Khalid Al Khalifa	1974[10]
Khalid bin Mohammed bin Abdullah Al Khalifa	1974[10]
Mohammed bin Mubarak bin Hamad Al Khalifa	1974[10]
Mohammed bin Khalifa bin Hamad Al Khalifa	1974[10]
Abdul Rahman bin Ibrahim bin Hamad Al Khalifa	1974[10]
Duaij bin Khalifa bin Mohammed Al Khalifa	1974[10]
Khalid Bin Abdullah Bin Khalid Al Khalifa	1981[11]
Isa bin Ibrahim bin Mohammed bin Isa Al Khalifa	1993[12]

Abdullah bin Khalifa bin Salman Al Khalifa	1997[13]
Khalifa bin Ahmed bin Salman Al Khalifa	2006[14]
Khalifa bin Rashid bin Abdulla Al Khalifa	2006[14]
Fawaz bin Mohammed bin Khalifa Al Khalifa	2006[14]
Ahmed bin Mohammed bin Hamad Al Khalifa	2006[14]
Rashid bin Abdullah bin Ahmed Al Khalifa	2008[15]
Rashid bin Sabah bin Hamoud bin Sabah Al Khalifa	2010[16]

In public office

Public offices in Bahrain currently occupied by Al Khalifa family members:

> *This list is incomplete; you can help by expanding it (//en.wikipedia.org /w/index.php?title=Al_Khalifa_family&action=edit) .*

Office	Name
Prime Minister	Khalifa ibn Salman Al Khalifa (Uncle of King Hamad)
Minister of Foreign Affairs	Khalid ibn Ahmad Al Khalifah
Minister of Defence	Khalifa bin Ahmed Al Khalifa
Minister of Interior	Rashid bin Abdullah Al Khalifa
Minister of Information	Fawaz bin Mohammed Al Khalifa
Minister of Finance	Ahmed bin Mohammed Al Khalifa
Minister of Justice & Islamic Affairs	Khalid bin Ali Al Khalifa
Minister of Culture	Mai bint Mohammed Al Khalifa
Minister of Transport (also Deputy Prime Minister)	Ali bin Khalifa Al Khalifa
Minister of the Royal Court	Khalid bin Ahmed Al Khalifa
Minister of the Royal Court for Followup Affairs	Ahmed bin Ateyatalla Al Khalifa
Minister of Royal Court Affairs	Ali bin Isa Al Khalifa
Deputy Prime Minister for Ministerial Committees	Muhammad ibn Mubarak ibn Hamad Al Khalifah
Deputy Prime Minister	Khalid bin Abdullah Al Khalifa
Minister of State for Defence Affairs	Mohammed bin Abdullah Al Khalifa
Supreme Commander of Armed Forces	Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa (King)
Deputy Supreme Commander of Armed Forces	Salman bin Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa (Crown Prince)
Chief of Staff of Bahrain Defence Force	Duaij bin Salman Al Khalifa
Advisor to Prime Minister for Security Affairs	Abdulaziz bin Ateyatallah Al Khalifa
Chairman of the Supreme Judicial Council	Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa (King)

Chief Justice of Bahrain (President of the Court of Cassation)	Khalifa bin Rashid Al Khalifa
Commander of the National Guard	Mohammed bin Isa Al Khalifa (brother of King Hamad)
National Guard Staff Director	Mohammed bin Abdulaziz Al Khalifa
Commander of the Royal Bahraini Air Force	Hamad bin Abdullah Al Khalifa
Director of the National Security Agency	Khalifa bin Abdullah Al Khalifa
Ambassador to London	Khalifa bin Ali bin Rashid Al Khalifa
Commander of the Royal Guard	Shaikh Nasser bin Hamad Al Khalifa (son of King Hamad)
Chairman of the Supreme Council for Islamic Affairs	Abdullah bin Khalid Al Khalifa
Chairman of the Supreme Council for Youth and Sport	Shaikh Nasser bin Hamad Al Khalifa (son of King Hamad)
First Deputy Chairman of the Supreme Council for Youth and Sport	Khalid bin Hamad Al Khalifa (son of King Hamad)
Secretary General of the Supreme Council for Youth and Sport	Salman bin Ebrahim Al Khalifa
President of the Bahrain Olympic Committee	Shaikh Nasser bin Hamad Al Khalifa (son of King Hamad)
Secretary General of the Bahrain Olympic Committee	Ahmed bin Hamad Al Khalifa (son of King Hamad)
CEO of the Bahrain Olympic Committee	Khalid bin Abdullah Al Khalifa
President of the Bahrain Royal Equestrian and Endurance Federation	Khalid bin Hamad Al Khalifa (son of King Hamad)

Other notable members

- Salman bin Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa, crown prince and chief of the Bahrain Defence Force.
- Khalifa bin Salman Al Khalifa, prime minister of Bahrain (16 December 1971 -), son of Salman bin Hamad Al Khalifa (Emir, 1941–1961) and brother of Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa (Hakim, 1961–1971; Emir, 1971–1999). The current King, Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa, is his nephew.
- Shaikh Rashid bin Khalifa Al Khalifa, prominent Bahraini artist and patron of the arts.
- Mohammed bin Salman Al Khalifa, brother of Isa bin Salman Al Khalifa (Hakim, 1961–1971; Emir, 1971–1999) and Khalifa bin Salman Al Khalifa (prime minister since 1971).
- Mai Al Khalifa, culture minister.
- Meriam Al-Khalifa, a relative of the King, Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa; married Jason Johnson, a United States Marine and a Mormon, against her family's wishes and moved to the United States. They subsequently filed for a divorce on 11-17-2004, one day after their fifth wedding anniversary.

  Note: contrary to the standard transcription of the name *Al Khalifa*, Meriam Al-Khalifa's surname constitutes a primary transcription and should be rendered *Al-Khalifa*.

Transcription

Al Khalifa is commonly mistranscribed *al-Khalifa*. The *Al* (آل) particle here (written with the long (*madda*) alif and unconnected to the following word) means *house*, in the sense of *family* or *dynasty*, and is not the definite article particle *al-*.

See also

- King of Bahrain
- Line of succession to the Bahraini throne
- History of Bahrain
- 1783 Al Khalifa invasion of Bahrain
- Utub
- List of Sunni Muslim dynasties

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Bhutan

Coordinates: 27°25′01″N 90°26′06″E

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Bhutan (Dzongkha: འབྲུག་ཡུལ་, tr *'brug-yul*, "Druk Yul"; Nepali: भूटान, *Bhūṭān*), officially the **Kingdom of Bhutan**, is a landlocked state in South Asia, located at the eastern end of the Himalayas and bordered to the south, east and west by the Republic of India and to the north by the People's Republic of China. Bhutan is separated from the nearby country of Nepal to the west by the Indian state of Sikkim, and from Bangladesh to the south by the Indian states of Assam and West Bengal.

Bhutan existed as a patchwork of minor warring fiefdoms until the early 17th century, when the area was unified by Shabdrung Ngawang Namgyal, who fled religious persecution in Tibet and cultivated a separate Bhutanese identity. In the early 20th century, Bhutan came into contact with the British Empire, after which Bhutan continued strong bilateral relations with India upon its independence. In 2006, *Business Week* magazine rated Bhutan the happiest country in Asia and the eighth-happiest in the world, based on a global survey.[9]

Bhutan's landscape ranges from subtropical plains in the south to the sub-alpine Himalayan heights in the north, with some peaks exceeding 7,000 metres (23,000 ft). The state religion is Vajrayana Buddhism, and the population of 691,141 is predominantly Buddhist, with Hinduism the second-largest religion.[10] The capital and largest city is Thimphu. In 2007, Bhutan made the transition from absolute monarchy to constitutional monarchy, holding its first general election. Bhutan is a member of the United Nations and the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC); it hosted the sixteenth SAARC summit in April 2010. The total area of the country has been reported as 38,394 square kilometres (14,824 sq mi) since 2002.[1][2] The area had previously been reported as approximately 46,500 km^2 (18,000 sq mi) in 1997.[11]

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Kingdom of Bhutan

འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་

***'Brug Rgyal-khab* (Wylie)**
Dru Gäkhap



Flag



Emblem

Anthem: *Druk Tsendhen*



Capital	Thimphu 27°28.0′N 89°38.5′E
Official language(s)	Dzongkha
Demonym	Bhutanese
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and Constitutional monarchy
- King	Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck
- Prime Minister	Jigme Y. Thinley
Formation	Early 17th century
- Wangchuk Dynasty	17 December 1907
- Constitutional Monarchy	2007

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Etymology

Names similar to Bhutan — including *Bottanthis*, *Bottan*, *Bottanter* — began to appear in Europe around the 1580s. Jean-Baptiste Tavernier's 1676 *Six Voyages* is the first to record the name *Boutan*. However, in every case, these seem to have been describing not modern Bhutan but the Kingdom of Tibet. The modern distinction between the two did not begin until well into Bogle's 1774 expedition — realizing the differences between the two regions, cultures, and states, his final report to the East India Company formally proposed labeling the Druk Desi's kingdom as "Boutan" and the Panchen Lama's as "Tibet". The EIC's surveyor general James Rennell first anglicized the French name as Bootan and then popularized the distinction between it and greater Tibet.[12]

Area	
- Total	38,394 km^2 [1][2](135th) 14,824 sq mi
- Water (%)	1.1
Population	
- 2011 estimate	708,427[3] (165th)
- 2005 census	634,982[4]
- Density	18.0/km^2 (154th) 46.6/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2010 estimate
- Total	$3.875 billion[5]
- Per capita	$5,429[5]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$1.412 billion[5]
- Per capita	$1,978[5]
HDI (2007)	▲ 0.619[6] (medium) (132nd)
Currency	Ngultrum[2] (BTN)
Time zone	BTT (UTC+6)
- Summer (DST)	not observed (UTC+6)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	BT
Internet TLD	.bt
Calling code	975

1 The population of Bhutan had been estimated based on the reported figure of about 1 million in the 1970s when the country had joined the United Nations and precise statistics were lacking.[7] Thus using the annual increase rate of 2–3%, the most population estimates were around 2 million in the year 2000. A national census was carried out in 2005 and it turned out that the population was 672,425. Consequently, United Nations Population Division had down-estimated the country's population in the 2006 revision[8] for the whole period from 1950 to 2050.

2 The Indian rupee is also legal tender.



1777



1786

Two of Rennell's EIC maps, showing the division of "Thibet or Bootan" into separate regions.

The precise etymology of Bhutan is unknown, although it quite probably derives from the Tibetan endonym Bod, used for Greater Tibet. It is traditionally taken to be a transcription of the Sanskrit *Bhoṭa-anta* (भोट-अन्त, "end of Tibet"), in reference to Bhutan's position as the southern extremity of the Tibetan plateau and culture.[13][14]

Locally, Bhutan has been known by many names. The earliest western records of Bhutan, the 1627 *Relacao* of the Portuguese Jesuits Estêvão Cacella and João Cabral, records its name variously as *Cambirasi* (among the Koch Biharis[15]), *Potente*, and *Mon* (an endonym for southern Tibet).[12] The first time a separate Kingdom of Bhutan did appear on a western map, it did so under its local name as "Broukpa".[12] Others including *Lho Mon* ("Dark Southland"), *Lho Tsendenjong* ("Southland of the Cypress"), *Lhomen Khazhi* ("Southland of the Four Approaches") and *Lho Men Jong* ("Southland of the Herbs).[16][17]

History

Main articles: History of Bhutan and Timeline of Bhutanese history

Stone tools, weapons, elephants, and remnants of large stone structures provide evidence that Bhutan was inhabited as early as 2000 BC, although there are no existing records from that time. Historians have theorized that the state of *Lhomon* (literally, "southern darkness"), or *Monyul* ("Dark Land", a reference to the Monpa, the aboriginal peoples of Bhutan) may have existed between 500 BC and AD 600. The names *Lhomon Tsendenjong* (Sandalwood Country), and *Lhomon Khashi*, or Southern Mon (country of four approaches), have been found in ancient Bhutanese and Tibetan chronicles.[18][19]

Buddhism was first introduced to Bhutan in the 7th century AD. Tibetan king Songtsän Gampo[20] (reigned 627–49), a convert to Buddhism, ordered the construction of two Buddhist temples, at Bumthang in central Bhutan and at Kyichu (near Paro) in the Paro Valley.[21] Buddhism was propagated in earnest[20] in 746[22] under King Sindhu Rāja (*also* Künjom;[23] Sendha Gyab; Chakhar Gyalpo), an exiled Indian king who had established a government in Bumthang at Chakhar Gutho Palace.[24]:35 [25]:13

Buddhist saint Padma Sambhava (also known as Guru Rinpoche) came to Bhutan in in 747.[26] Much of early Bhutanese history is unclear because most of the records were destroyed when fire ravaged the ancient capital, Punakha, in 1827. By the 10th century, Bhutan's political development was heavily influenced by its religious history. Various sub-sects of Buddhism emerged which were patronized by the various Mongol warlords. After

the decline of the Yuan Dynasty in the 14th century, these sub-sects vied with each other for supremacy in the political and religious landscape, eventually leading to the ascendancy of the Drukpa sub-sect by the 16th century.[21][27]

Until the early 17th century, Bhutan existed as a patchwork of minor warring fiefdoms, when the area was unified by the Tibetan lama and military leader Shabdrung Ngawang Namgyal who had fled religious persecution in Tibet. To defend the country against intermittent Tibetan forays, Namgyal built a network of impregnable *dzong* (fortresses), and promulgated the Tsa Yig, a code of law that helped to bring local lords under centralized control. Many such *dzong* still exist and are active centers of religion and district administration. Portuguese Jesuits Estêvão Cacella and João Cabral were the first recorded Europeans to visit Bhutan, on their way to Tibet. They met Ngawang Namgyal, presented him with firearms, gunpowder and a telescope, and offered him their services in the war against Tibet, but the Shabdrung declined the offer. After a stay of nearly eight months Cacella wrote a long letter from the Chagri Monastery reporting on his travels. This is a rare extant report of the Shabdrung.[28][29] After Ngawang Namgyal's death in 1651, his passing was kept secret for 54 years; after a period of consolidation, Bhutan lapsed into internal conflict. In the year 1711 Bhutan went to war against the Mughal Empire and its Subedars, who restored Koch Bihar in the south. During the chaos that followed, the Tibetans unsuccessfully attacked Bhutan in 1714.[30]

In the 18th century, the Bhutanese invaded and occupied the kingdom of Cooch Behar to the south. In 1772, Cooch Behar appealed to the British East India Company which assisted them in ousting the Bhutanese and later in attacking Bhutan itself in 1774. A peace treaty was signed in which Bhutan agreed to retreat to its pre-1730 borders. However, the peace was tenuous, and border skirmishes with the British were to continue for the next hundred years. The skirmishes eventually led to the Duar War (1864–65), a confrontation for control of the Bengal Duars. After Bhutan lost the war, the Treaty of Sinchula was signed between British India and Bhutan. As part of the war reparations, the Duars were ceded to the United Kingdom in exchange for a rent of Rs. 50,000. The treaty ended all hostilities between British India and Bhutan.



Map of Bhutan showing border with China as of 2010

During the 1870s, power struggles between the rival valleys of Paro and Tongsa led to civil war in Bhutan, eventually leading to the ascendancy of Ugyen Wangchuck, the *ponlop* (governor) of Tongsa. From his power base in central Bhutan, Ugyen Wangchuck defeated his political enemies and united the country following several civil wars and rebellions during 1882–85.[31]

In 1907, an epochal year for the country, Ugyen Wangchuck was unanimously chosen as the hereditary king of the country by an assembly of leading Buddhist monks, government officials, and heads of important families. The British government promptly recognized the new monarchy, and in 1910 Bhutan signed the Treaty of Punakha, a subsidiary alliance which gave the British control of Bhutan's foreign affairs and meant that Bhutan was treated as an Indian princely state. This had little real effect, given Bhutan's historical reticence, and also did not appear to affect Bhutan's traditional relations with Tibet. After the new Union of India gained independence from the United Kingdom on 15 August 1947, Bhutan became one of the first countries to recognize India's independence. On 8 August 1949, a treaty similar to that of 1910, in which Britain had gained power over Bhutan's foreign relations, was signed with the newly independent India.[18]

In 1953, King Jigme Dorji Wangchuck established the country's legislature – a 130-member National Assembly – to promote a more democratic form of governance. In 1965, he set up a Royal Advisory Council, and in 1968 he formed a Cabinet. In 1971, Bhutan was admitted to the United Nations, having held observer status for three years. In July 1972, Jigme Singye Wangchuck ascended to the throne at the age of sixteen after the death of his father, Dorji Wangchuck.



A *thrikheb* (throne cover) from the 19th century. Throne covers were placed atop the temple cushions used by high lamas. The central circular swirling quadrune is the Gankyil in its mode as the "Four Joys".

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the country expelled or forced to leave nearly one fifth of its population in the name of preserving its Tibetan Mahayana Buddhist culture and identity.[32] The Lhotshampas, the ethnic group persecuted by the Bhutanese government, were subject to "harassment, arrests and the burning of ethnic Nepali homes."[33] The government enacted discriminatory citizenship laws against the Lhotshampas, stripping about one-fifth of its population of citizenship. A harassment campaign escalating in the early 1990s ensued, and afterwards Bhutanese security forces began expelling people after making them renounce claims to their homes and homeland. A refugee recounted, “The army took all the people from their houses. As we left Bhutan, we were forced to sign the document. They snapped our photos. The man told me to smile, to show my teeth. He wanted to show that I was leaving my country willingly, happily, that I was not forced to leave.”[34] Due to the violence, Bhutanese of Nepali origin, mainly Hindu, fled their homeland. According to the UNHCR, more than 107,000 Bhutanese refugees living in seven camps in eastern Nepal have been documented as of 2008.[35] After many years in refugee camps, many are now moving to host nations such as Norway, the United Kingdom, Australia, and the United States as refugees. The United States has admitted 30,870 refugees from fiscal years 2008 through 2010.[36] Still, in July 2010, the Bhutanese prime minister, Jigme Y Thinley, called the Bhutanese refugees illegal immigrants.[37]

Political reform and modernization

Further information: Law of Bhutan and Constitution of Bhutan

King Jigme Singye Wangchuck introduced significant political reforms, transferring most of his administrative powers to the Council of Cabinet Ministers and allowing for impeachment of the King by a two-thirds majority of the National Assembly.[38]

In 1999, the government lifted a ban on television and the Internet, making Bhutan one of the last countries to introduce television. In his speech, the King said that television was a critical step to the modernisation of Bhutan as well as a major contributor to the country's Gross National Happiness (Bhutan is the only country to measure happiness),[39] but warned that the "misuse" of television could erode traditional Bhutanese values.[40]

A new constitution was presented in early 2005. In December 2005, Jigme Singye Wangchuck announced that he would abdicate the throne in his son's favor in 2008. On 14 December 2006, he announced that he would be abdicating immediately. This was followed by the first national parliamentary elections in December 2007 and March 2008.

On November 6, 2008, 28-year old Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck, eldest son of King Jigme Singye Wangchuck, was crowned King.[41]

Government and politics

Main article: Politics of Bhutan



View of Tashichoedzong, Thimphu, seat of the Bhutanese government since 1952.

Bhutan's political system has developed from an absolute monarchy into a constitutional monarchy. In 1999, the fourth king of Bhutan created a body called the Lhengye Zhungtshog (Council of Ministers). The *Druk Gyalpo* (King of Druk Yul) is head of state. Executive power is exercised by the Lhengye Zhungtshog, the council of ministers. Legislative power was vested in both the government and the former Grand National Assembly.

On the 17th of December 2005, the 4th King, Jigme Singye Wangchuck, announced to a stunned nation that the first general elections would be held in 2008, and that he would abdicate the throne in favor of his eldest son, the crown prince.[42] King Jigme Khesar Namgyal Wangchuck took the throne on December 14, 2006 upon his father's abdication. Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck was adorned with Bhutan's Raven Crown at an ornate coronation ceremony in Thimphu on Thursday, November 6, 2008, becoming the world's youngest reigning monarch and head of the newest democracy.[43]

The new political system comprises an upper and lower house, the latter based on political party affiliations. Elections for the upper house (National Council) were held on December 31, 2007, while elections for the lower house, the 47-seat National Assembly, were held on March 24, 2008. Two political parties, the People's Democratic Party (PDP) headed by Sangay Ngedup, and the Druk Phuensum Tshogpa (DPT) headed by Jigmi Thinley, competed in the National Assembly election. The Druk Phuensum Tshogpa won the elections taking 45 out of 47 seats in the parliament.[44]

Judicial power is vested in the courts of Bhutan. The Chief Justice is the administrative head of the Judiciary.

Military and foreign affairs

Main articles: Military of Bhutan and Foreign relations of Bhutan

The Royal Bhutan Army is Bhutan's military service. It includes the Royal Bodyguard and the Royal Bhutan Police. Membership is voluntary, and the minimum age for recruitment is 18. The standing army numbers about 16,000 and is trained by the Indian Army.[45] It has an annual budget of about $13.7 million — 1.8 percent of the GDP. Being a landlocked country, Bhutan has no navy. It also has no air force or army aviation corps. The Army relies on Eastern Air Command of the Indian Air Force for air assistance.

In 2007, Bhutan and India signed a new treaty that clarified that Bhutan was master of its own foreign relations, superseding the treaty signed in 1949. The superseded treaty is still sometimes misinterpreted to mean that India controls Bhutan's foreign affairs, but the government of Bhutan handles all of its own foreign affairs, including the sensitive (to India) border demarcation issue with China. Bhutan has diplomatic relations with 21 countries, and with the European Union, with missions in India, Bangladesh, Thailand, and Kuwait. It has two UN missions, one in New York and one in Geneva. Only India and Bangladesh have residential embassies in Bhutan, while Thailand has a consulate office in Bhutan.

By a long standing treaty, Indian and Bhutanese citizens may travel to each other's countries without a passport or visa using their national identity cards instead. Bhutanese citizens may also work in India without legal restriction. Bhutan does not have formal diplomatic ties with its northern neighbour, the People's Republic of China, although exchanges of visits at various levels between the two have significantly increased in recent times. The first bilateral agreement between China (PRC) and Bhutan was signed in 1998, and Bhutan has also set up honorary consulates in Macau and Hong Kong. Bhutan's border with China is largely not demarcated and thus disputed in some places. Approximately 269 square kilometers remain under discussion between China and Bhutan.[46]

On 13 November 2005, Chinese soldiers crossed into the disputed territories between China and Bhutan, and began building roads and bridges.[47] Bhutanese Foreign Minister Khandu Wangchuk took up the matter with Chinese authorities after the issue was raised in the Bhutanese parliament. In response, Foreign Ministry spokesman Qin Gang of the People's Republic of China has said that the border remains in dispute and that the two sides are continuing to work for a peaceful and cordial resolution of the dispute.[48] An Indian intelligence officer has said that a Chinese delegation in Bhutan told the Bhutanese that they were "overreacting." The Bhutanese newspaper *Kuensel* has said that China might use the roads to further Chinese claims along the border.[47]

On 8 February 2007, the Indo-Bhutan Friendship Treaty was substantially revised. The Treaty of 1949, Article 2 states: "The Government of India undertakes to exercise no interference in the internal administration of Bhutan. On its part the Government of Bhutan agrees to be guided by the advice of the Government of India in regard to its external relations." In the revised treaty it now reads as "In keeping with the abiding ties of close friendship and cooperation between Bhutan and India, the Government of the Kingdom of Bhutan and the Government of the Republic of India shall cooperate closely with each other on issues relating to their national interests. Neither government shall allow the use of its territory for activities harmful to the national security and interest of the other." The revised treaty also includes this preamble: "Reaffirming their respect for each other's independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity", an element that was absent in the earlier version. The Indo-Bhutan Friendship Treaty of 2007 clarifies Bhutan's status as an independent and sovereign nation.

Bhutan maintains formal diplomatic relations with several Asian and European nations, Canada, and Brazil. Other countries, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, have no formal diplomatic relations with Bhutan, but maintain informal contact through their respective embassies in New Delhi and Bhutanese honorary consulates in London and Washington, D.C.[49][50][51]

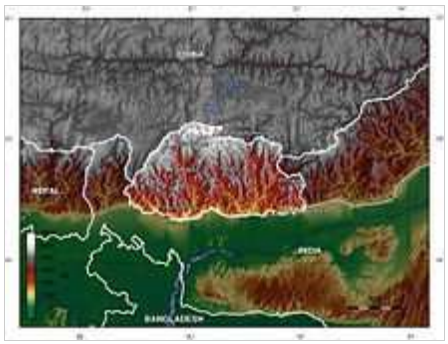
Geography

Main article: Geography of Bhutan



Haa Valley

Bhutan is located on the southern slopes of the eastern Himalayas, landlocked between the Tibet Autonomous Region to the north and the Indian states of Sikkim, West Bengal, Assam and Arunachal Pradesh to the west and south. It lies between latitudes 26° and 29°N, and longitudes 88° and 93°E. The land consists mostly of steep and high



Topographic map of Bhutan

mountains crisscrossed by a network of swift rivers, which form deep valleys before draining into the Indian plains. Elevation rises from 200 m (660 ft) in the southern foothills to more than 7,000 m (23,000 ft). This great geographical diversity combined with equally diverse climate conditions contributes to Bhutan's outstanding range of biodiversity and ecosystems.[2]



Gangkhar Puensum from Ura La, Bhutan

The northern region of the country consists of an arc of Eastern Himalayan alpine shrub and meadows reaching up to glaciated mountain peaks with an extremely cold climate at the highest elevations. Most peaks in the north are over 7,000 m (23,000 ft) above sea level; the highest point in Bhutan is Gangkhar Puensum at 7,570 metres (24,840 ft), which has the distinction of being the highest unclimbed mountain in the world.[3] The lowest point, at 98 m (322 ft), is in the valley of Drangme Chhu, where the river crosses the border with India.[3] Watered by snow-fed rivers, alpine valleys in this region provide pasture for livestock, tended by a sparse population of migratory shepherds.

The Black Mountains in the central region of Bhutan form a watershed between two major river systems: the Mo Chhu and the Drangme Chhu. Peaks in the Black Mountains range between 1,500 and 2,700 m (4,900 and 8,900 ft) above sea level, and fast-flowing rivers have carved out deep gorges in the lower mountain areas. The forests of the central Bhutan mountains consist of Eastern Himalayan subalpine conifer forests in higher elevations and Eastern Himalayan broadleaf forests in lower elevations. Woodlands of the central region provide most of Bhutan's forest production. The Torsa, Raidak, Sankosh, and Manas are the main rivers of Bhutan, flowing through this region. Most of the population lives in the central highlands.

In the south, the Shiwalik Hills are covered with dense Himalayan subtropical broadleaf forests, alluvial lowland river valleys, and mountains up to around 1,500 m (4,900 ft) above sea level. The foothills descend into the subtropical Duars Plain. Most of the Duars is located in India, although a 10 to 15 km (6.2 to 9.3 mi) wide strip extends into Bhutan. The Bhutan Duars is divided into two parts: the northern and the southern Duars. The northern Duars, which abuts the Himalayan foothills, has rugged, sloping terrain and dry, porous soil with dense vegetation and abundant wildlife. The southern Duars has moderately fertile soil, heavy savannah grass, dense, mixed jungle, and freshwater springs. Mountain rivers, fed by either the melting snow or the monsoon rains, empty into the Brahmaputra River in India. Data released by the Ministry of Agriculture showed that the country had a forest cover of 64% as of October 2005.

Climate

The climate in Bhutan varies with elevation, from subtropical in the south to temperate in the highlands and polar-type climate, with year-round snow in the north. Bhutan experiences five distinct seasons: summer, monsoon, autumn, winter and spring. Western Bhutan has the heavier monsoon rains; southern Bhutan has hot humid summers and cool winters; central and eastern Bhutan is temperate and drier than the west with warm summers and cool winters.



Jacaranda trees in Bhutan

Wildlife

See also: List of mammals of Bhutan

More than 770 species of bird and 5,400 species of plants are known to occur throughout the kingdom. Bhutan has a rich primate life with rare species such as the golden langur.[52][53] Recently, a variant Assamese macaque, which is also regarded by some authorities as a new species, *Macaca munzala* has also been recorded.[54]


The Takin is Bhutan's national animal.

The Bengal tiger, Greater One-horned Rhinoceros, clouded leopard, hispid hare and the sloth bear live in the lush tropical lowland and hardwood forests in the south. In the temperate zone, grey langur, tiger, Indian leopard, goral and serow are found in mixed conifer, broadleaf and pine forests. Fruit bearing trees and bamboo provide habitat for the Himalayan black bear, red panda, squirrel, sambar, wild pig and barking deer. The alpine habitats of the great Himalayan range in the north are home to the snow leopard, blue sheep, marmot, Tibetan wolf, antelope, Himalayan musk deer and the takin, Bhutan's national animal. The endangered Wild Water Buffalo occurs in southern Bhutan although in small numbers.[55]

Among birds, the globally endangered White-winged Wood Duck has been added recently to the list of Bhutan's avifauna.[56]

Conservation significance

Main article: List of protected areas of Bhutan

The Eastern Himalayas have been identified as a global biodiversity hotspot and counted among the 234 globally outstanding ecoregions of the world in a comprehensive analysis of global biodiversity undertaken by WWF between 1995 and 1997.



Protected areas of Bhutan in lavender, biological corridors in green.

Bhutan is seen as a model for proactive conservation initiatives. The Kingdom has received international acclaim for its commitment to the maintenance of its biodiversity. This is reflected in the decision to maintain at least sixty percent of the land area under forest cover, to designate more than 40%[57][58] of its territory as national parks, reserves and other protected areas, and most recently to identify a further nine percent of land area as biodiversity corridors linking the protected areas. Environmental conservation has been placed at the core of the nation's development strategy, the middle path. It is not treated as a sector but rather as a set of concerns that must be mainstreamed in Bhutan's overall approach to development planning and to be buttressed by the force of law.

Conservation issues

Further information: Environmental issues in Bhutan

Although Bhutan's natural heritage is still largely intact, the Government has said that it cannot be taken for granted and that conservation of the natural environment must be considered one of the challenges that will need to be addressed in the years ahead.

Pressures on the natural environment are already evident and will be fuelled by a complex array of forces. They

include population pressures, agricultural modernisation, poaching, hydro-power development, mineral extraction, industrialisation, urbanisation, sewage and waste disposal, tourism, competition for available land road construction and the provision of other physical infrastructure associated with social and economic development.



The most endangered Asia top predator of 2010, the dhole is on the edge of extinction. Fewer than 2500 members of the species remain in the world.

Policy implementation needs to be continually improved. Sustainable rural livelihoods that do not rely solely upon natural resource use need to be developed and supported, and there needs to be far wider understanding of the environmental threats that come hand in hand with development, to ensure the future of Bhutan's rich and diverse environment.

In practice, the overlap of these extensive protected lands with populated areas has led to mutual habitat encroachment. Protected wildlife has entered agricultural areas, trampling crops and killing livestock. In response, Bhutan has implemented an insurance scheme, begun constructing solar powered alarm fences, watch towers, and search lights, and has provided fodder and salt licks outside human settlement areas to encourage animals to stay away.[59]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Bhutan

The ngultrum is the currency of Bhutan and its value is fixed to the Indian rupee. The rupee is also accepted as legal tender in the country.



The ngultrum is the currency of Bhutan

Though Bhutan's economy is one of the world's smallest, it has grown rapidly in recent years, by eight percent in 2005 and 14 percent in 2006. In 2007, Bhutan had the second fastest growing economy in the world, with an annual economic growth rate of 22.4 percent. This was mainly due to the commissioning of the gigantic Tala Hydroelectricity project. As of March 2006, Bhutan's per capita income was US$1,321.

Bhutan's economy is based on agriculture, forestry, tourism and the sale of hydroelectric power to India. Agriculture provides the main livelihood for more than 80 percent of the population. Agrarian practices consist largely of subsistence farming and animal husbandry. Handicrafts, particularly weaving and the manufacture of religious art for home altars, are a small cottage industry. A landscape that varies from hilly to ruggedly mountainous has made the building of roads and other infrastructure difficult and expensive. This, and a lack of access to the sea, has meant that Bhutan has not been able to benefit from significant trading of its produce. Bhutan does not have any railways, though Indian Railways plans to link southern Bhutan to its vast network under an agreement signed in January 2005.[60] Bhutan and India signed a 'free trade' accord in 2008, which additionally allowed Bhutanese imports and exports from third markets to transit India without tariffs.[61] Bhutan had trade relations with the Tibet region until 1960, when it closed its border with China after an influx of refugees.[62]

The industrial sector is in a nascent stage, and though most production comes from cottage industry, larger industries are being encouraged and some industries such as cement, steel, and ferroalloy have been set up. Most development projects, such as road construction, rely on Indian contract labour. Agricultural produce includes rice, chilies, dairy (some yak, mostly cow) products, buckwheat, barley, root crops, apples, and citrus and maize at lower elevations. Industries include cement, wood products, processed fruits, alcoholic beverages and calcium

carbide.

Incomes of over Nu 100,000 per annum are taxed, but very few wage and salary earners qualify. Bhutan's inflation rate was estimated at about three percent in 2003. Bhutan has a Gross Domestic Product of around USD 2.913 billion (adjusted to Purchasing Power Parity), making it the 162nd largest economy in the world. Per capita income is around $1,400,[3] ranked 124th. Government revenues total $272 million, though expenditures amount to $350 million. 60 percent of the budget expenditure, however, is financed by India's Ministry of External Affairs.[note 1][63] Bhutan's exports, principally electricity, cardamom, gypsum, timber, handicrafts, cement, fruit, precious stones and spices, total €128 million (2000 est.). Imports, however, amount to €164 million, leading to a trade deficit. Main items imported include fuel and lubricants, grain, machinery, vehicles, fabrics and rice. Bhutan's main export partner is India, accounting for 58.6 percent of its export goods. Hong Kong (30.1 percent) and Bangladesh (7.3 percent) are the other two top export partners.[3] As its border with Tibet is closed, trade between Bhutan and China is now almost non-existent. Bhutan's import partners include India (74.5 percent), Japan (7.4 percent) and Sweden (3.2 percent).

Administrative divisions

Main articles: Districts of Bhutan, Blocks of Bhutan, and Local Government Act of Bhutan 2009

Bhutan is divided into twenty *dzongkhags* (districts), administered by a body called the Dzongkhag Tshogdu. In certain *thromdes* (urban municipalities), a further municipal administration is directly subordinate to the Dzongkhag administration. In the vast majority of constituencies, rural *gewogs* (village blocks) are administered by bodies called the Gewog Tshogde.[64]

Thromdes (municipalities) elect Thrompons to lead administration, who in turn represent the Thromde in the Dzongkhag Tshogdu. Likewise, gewogs elect headmen called *gups*, vice-headmen called *mangmis*, who also sit on the Dzongkhag Thshogdu, as well as other members of the Gewog Tshogde. The basis of electoral constituencies in Bhutan is the *chiwog*, a subdivision of gewogs delineated by the Election Commission.[64]

1. Bumthang
2. Chukha (*Chhukha*)
3. Dagana
4. Gasa
5. Haa
6. Lhuntse
7. Mongar
8. Paro
9. Pemagatshel (*Pemagatsel*)
10. Punakha
11. Samdrup Jongkhar
12. Samtse (*Samchi*)
13. Sarpang (*Sarbhang*)
14. Thimphu
15. Trashigang (*Tashigang*)
16. Trashiyangtse
17. Trongsa (*Tongsa*)
18. Tsirang (*Chirang*)
19. Wangdue Phodrang (*Wangdi Phodrang*)
20. Zhemgang (*Shemgang*)



Districts of Bhutan[65]

Cities and towns

Main article: List of cities in Bhutan

- Thimphu, the largest city and capital of Bhutan.
- Damphu, the administrative headquarters of Tsirang District
- Jakar, the administrative headquarters of Bumthang District and the place where Buddhism entered Bhutan.

- Mongar, the eastern commercial hub of the country.
- Paro, site of the international airport.
- Phuentsholing, Bhutan's commercial hub.
- Punakha, the old capital.
- Samdrup Jongkhar The south eastern town on the border with India
- Trashigang, administrative headquarters of Trashigang District the most populous district in the country.
- Trongsa, in central Bhutan which has the largest and the most magnificent of all the dzongs in Bhutan.

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Bhutan

Bhutanese people primarily consist of the Ngalops and Sharchops, called the Western Bhutanese and Eastern Bhutanese respectively. The Lhotshampa, meaning "southerners," are a heterogeneous group of mostly Nepalese descent. The Ngalops primarily consist of Bhutanese living in the western part of the country. Their culture is closely related to that of Tibet. Much the same could be said of the Sharchops, the dominant group, who traditionally follow the Nyingmapa rather than the official Drukpa Kagyu form of Tibetan Buddhism. In modern times, with improved transportation infrastructure, there has been much intermarriage between these groups. In the early 1970s, intermarriage between the Lhotshampas and mainstream Bhutanese society was encouraged by the government, but after the late 1980s, the Bhutanese government forced about 108,000 Lhotshampas from their homes, seized their land, and expelled them to refugee camps.[33]

The literacy rate in Bhutan is 59.5 percent.[66] The country has a median age of 22.3 years.[67] Bhutan has a life expectancy of 62.2 years (61 for males and 64.5 for females) according to the latest data from the World Bank. There are 1,070 males to every 1,000 females in the country.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Bhutan

Religions of Bhutan

religion	percent
Buddhism	76%
Hinduism	23%
Others	1%

It is estimated that between two thirds and three quarters of the Bhutanese population follow Vajrayana Buddhism, which is also the state religion. About one quarter to one third are followers of Hinduism. Other religions account for less than 1% of the population.[68] The current legal framework, in principle guarantees freedom of religion; proselytism, however, is forbidden by a royal government decision[68] and by judicial interpretation of the Constitution.[69]



Taktshang Goemba or "Tiger's nest" of Buddhism in Bhutan. Located on a

Buddhism was introduced to Bhutan in the 7th century AD. Tibetan king Songtsän Gampo (reigned 627–49), a convert to Buddhism, ordered the construction of two Buddhist temples, at Bumthang in central Bhutan and at Kyichu (near Paro) in the Paro Valley.[21]

Languages

Main article: Languages of Bhutan

The national language is Bhutanese, or Dzongkha, one of 53 languages in



Languages of Bhutan

cliff 900 meters high, Parowan city -maps.google (http://maps.google.com/maps?ll=27.491884,89.363544&spn=0.011706,0.026157&t=h&z=16&vpsrc=6&lci=com.panoramio.all)

the Tibetan language family. The script, here called *Chhokey* ("Dharma Language"), is identical to classical Tibetan. In the schools English is the medium of instruction and Dzongkha is taught as the national language. Ethnologue lists 24 languages currently spoken in Bhutan, all of them in the Tibeto-Burman family, except Nepali, an Indo-Aryan language. Until the 1980s, the government sponsored the teaching of Nepali in schools in Southern Bhutan. However, after the armed uprising in the south, Nepali was dropped from the curriculum. The languages of Bhutan are still not well-characterized, and several have yet to be recorded in an in-depth academic grammar. Before the 1980s, the Lhotshampa (Nepali-speaking community), mainly based in southern Bhutan, constituted approximately 30% of the population.[70] However, during the 1980s, after the Bhutanese government instituted a policy of one language and one culture, these Lhotshampas were forced to wear the national costume of Bhutan, which is not well-suited to the high temperatures of the southern region.[70] This cultural discrimination led to protests which eventually resulted in the eviction of more than 100,000 Lhotshampas throughout the 1990s.[35] These Lhotshampas took refuge in Nepal via India. Because the bilateral talks between Nepal and Bhutan to repatriate Bhutanese refugees (Lhotshampas) have been proven futile, the UNHCR is now helping the refugees to settle in various developed countries such as Norway, USA, Canada and many others.[32][35]

Dzongkha is partially intelligible with Sikkimese and spoken natively by 25% of the population. Tshangla, the language of the Sharchop and the principal pre-Tibetan language of Bhutan, is spoken by a greater number of people. It is not easily classified and may constitute an independent branch of Tibeto-Burman. Nepali speakers constituted some 40% of the population as of 2006. The larger minority languages are Dzala (11%), Limbu (10%, immigrant), and Kheng (8%). There are no reliable sources for the ethnic or linguistic composition of Bhutan, so these numbers do not add up to 100%.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Bhutan

Bhutan has a rich and unique cultural heritage that has largely remained intact because of its isolation from the rest of the world until the early 1960s. One of the main attractions for tourists is the country's culture and traditions. Bhutanese tradition is deeply steeped in its Buddhist heritage.[71][72]Hinduism is the second dominant religion in Bhutan, being most prevalent in the southern regions.[73] The government is increasingly making efforts to preserve and sustain the current culture and traditions of the country. Because of its largely unspoiled natural environment and cultural heritage, Bhutan has been referred to as *The Last Shangri-la*.[74]

While Bhutanese citizens are free to travel abroad, Bhutan is viewed as inaccessible by many foreigners. Another reason for it being an unpopular destination is the cost, which is high for tourists on tighter budgets. Entry is free for citizens of India and Bangladesh, but all other foreigners are required to sign up with a Bhutanese tour operator and pay around US$200 per day that they stay in the country.[75]

The national dress for Bhutanese men is the *gho*, a knee-length robe tied at the waist by a cloth belt known as the *kera*. Women wear an ankle-length dress, the *kira*, which is clipped at one shoulder and tied at the waist. An

accompaniment to the kira is a long-sleeved blouse, the *toego*, which is worn underneath the outer layer. Social status and class determine the texture, colours, and decorations that embellish the garments. Differently coloured scarves and shawls are important indicators of social standing, as Bhutan has traditionally been a feudal society. Jewellery is mostly worn by women, especially during religious festivals (tsechus) and public gatherings. To strengthen Bhutan's identity as an independent country, Bhutanese law requires all Bhutanese citizens to wear the national dress in public areas and as formal wear.



Bhutanese thanka of Mt. Meru and the Buddhist Universe, 19th century, Tongsa Dzong, Tongsa, Bhutan.

Rice, buckwheat, and increasingly maize, are the staples of Bhutanese cuisine. The local diet also includes pork, beef, yak meat, chicken, and mutton. Soups and stews of meat and dried vegetables spiced with chillies and cheese are prepared. *Ema datshi*, made very spicy with cheese and chilies, might be called the national dish for its ubiquity and the pride that Bhutanese have for it. Dairy foods, particularly butter and cheese from yaks and cows, are also popular, and indeed almost all milk is turned to butter and cheese. Popular beverages include butter tea, tea, locally brewed *ara* (rice wine) and beer. Bhutan is the first country in the world to have banned the sale of tobacco under its Tobacco Act of 2010.[28]

Bhutanese architecture remains distinctively traditional, employing rammed earth and wattle and daub construction methods, stone masonry, and intricate woodwork around windows and roofs. Traditional architecture uses no nails or iron bars in construction.[28][76][77] Characteristic of the region is a type of castle fortress known as the dzong. Since ancient times, the dzongs have served as the religious and secular administration centres for their respective districts.[78] The University of Texas at El Paso in the United States has adopted Bhutanese architecture for its buildings on campus, as have the nearby Hilton Garden Inn and other buildings in the city of El Paso.[79]



Chaam, sacred masked dances, are annually performed during religious festivals.

Bhutan has numerous public holidays, most of which centre around traditional seasonal, secular and religious festivals. They include the winter solstice (around January 1, depending on the lunar calendar), the lunar New Year (February or March), the King's birthday and the anniversary of his coronation, the official start of monsoon season (September 22), National Day (December 17), and various Buddhist and Hindu celebrations.

Masked dances and dance dramas are common traditional features at festivals, usually accompanied by traditional music. Energetic dancers, wearing colourful wooden or composition face masks and stylized costumes, depict heroes, demons, dæmons, death heads, animals, gods, and caricatures of common people. The dancers enjoy royal patronage, and preserve ancient folk and religious customs and perpetuate the ancient lore and art of mask-making.

The music of Bhutan can generally be divided into traditional and modern varieties; traditional music comprises religious and folk genres, the latter including *zhungdra* and *boedra*.[80] The modern *rigsar* is played on a mix of traditional instruments and electronic keyboards, and dates back to the early 1990s; it shows the influence of Indian popular music, a hybrid form of traditional and Western popular influences.[81][82]

In Bhutanese families, inheritance generally passes through the female rather than the male line. Daughters will inherit their parents' house. A man is expected to make his own way in the world and often moves to his wife's home. Love marriages are common in urban areas, but the tradition of arranged marriages is still common in the villages. Although uncommon, polygamy is accepted, often being a device to keep property in a contained family unit rather than dispersing it.[83] The previous king, Jigme Singye Wangchuck, who abdicated in 2006, had four queens, all of whom are sisters. The current king, Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck, wed Jetsun Pema, 21, a commoner and daughter of a pilot, on 13 October 2011.

Sports

Bhutan's national sport is archery, and competitions are held regularly in most villages. It differs from Olympic standards in technical details such as the placement of the targets and atmosphere. There are two targets placed over 100 meters apart and teams shoot from one end of the field to the other. Each member of the team shoots two arrows per round. Traditional Bhutanese archery is a social event and competitions are organized between villages, towns, and amateur teams. There are usually plenty of food and drink complete with singing and dancing. Attempts to distract an opponent include standing around the target and making fun of the shooter's ability. Darts (*khuru*) is an equally popular outdoor team sport, in which heavy wooden darts pointed with a 10 cm nail are thrown at a paperback-sized target 10 to 20 meters away.



Changlimithang Stadium, during a parade.

Another traditional sport is the *Digor*, which resembles the shot put and horseshoe throwing. Cricket has gained popularity in Bhutan, particularly since the introduction of television channels from India. The Bhutan national cricket team is one of the more successful affiliate nations in the region. Football is also an increasingly popular sport. In 2002, Bhutan's national football team played Montserrat, in what was billed as The Other Final; the match took place on the same day Brazil played Germany in the World Cup final, but at the time Bhutan and Montserrat were the world's two lowest ranked teams. The match was held in Thimphu's Changlimithang National Stadium, and Bhutan won 4–0. A documentary of the match was made by the Dutch filmmaker Johan Kramer.

Traffic and transport

Main article: Transport in Bhutan

Paro Airport is the only international airport in Bhutan. Yongphulla Airport in Trashigang is a small domestic airport that underwent upgrades through 2010.[84] Yongphulla Airport was scheduled for completion in January 2010, but as of August 2011 work is still ongoing.[85] There are plans for further domestic airports to be built at Bathpalathang in Bumthang District and at Gelephu in Sarpang District, which were due to start operations in June 2011.[86]

The Lateral Road is Bhutan's primary east-west corridor, connecting Phuentsholing in the southwest to Trashigang in the east. In between, the Lateral Road runs directly through Wangdue Phodrang, Trongsa, and other population centers. The Lateral Road also has spurs connecting to the capital Thimphu and other major population centers such as Paro and Punakha. As with other roads in Bhutan, the Lateral Road presents serious safety concerns due to pavement conditions, sheer drops, hairpin turns, weather, and landslides.[87][88][89]

See also

- Outline of Bhutan
- Index of Bhutan-related articles

Notes

1. ^ India's Ministry of External Affairs provides financial aid to neighbouring countries under "technical and economic cooperation with other countries and advances to foreign governments."

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History of Bhutan

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Bhutan's early history is steeped in mythology and remains obscure. It may have been inhabited as early as 2000 BC, but not much was known until the introduction of Tibetan Buddhism in the 9th century, when turmoil in Tibet forced many monks to flee to Bhutan. In the 12th century, the Drukpa Kagyupa school was established and remains the dominant form of Buddhism in Bhutan today. The country's political history is intimately tied to its religious history and the relations among the various monastic schools and monasteries.[1]



View of Tashichoedzong, Thimphu. The 17th century fortress-monastery on the northern edge of the city, has been the seat of Bhutan's government since 1952.

Bhutan is one of the only countries which has been independent throughout its history, never conquered, occupied, or governed by an outside power. Although there has been speculation that it was under the Kamarupa Kingdom or the Tibetan Empire in the 7th to 9th centuries, firm evidence is lacking. From the time historical records are clear, Bhutan has continuously and successfully defended its sovereignty.[2]

The consolidation of Bhutan occurred in 1616 when Ngawanag Namgyal, a lama from western Tibet known as the Shabdrung Rinpoche, defeated three Tibetan invasions, subjugated rival religious schools, codified the **Tsa Yig**, an intricate and comprehensive system of law, and established himself as ruler over a system of ecclesiastical and civil administrators. After his death, infighting and civil war eroded the power of the shabdrung for the next 200 years when in 1885, Ugyen Wangchuck was able to consolidate power and cultivated closer ties with the British in India.[1]

In 1907, Ugyen Wangchuck was elected as the hereditary ruler of Bhutan, crowned on December 17, 1907, and installed as the head of state Druk Gyalpo (Dragon King). In 1910, King Ugyen and the British signed the Treaty of Punakha which provided that British India would not interfere in the internal affairs of Bhutan if the country accepted external advice in its external relations. When Ugyen Wangchuck died in 1926, his son Jigme Wangchuck became the next ruler, and when India gained independence in 1947, the new Indian Government recognized Bhutan as an independent country. In 1949, India and Bhutan signed the Treaty of Peace and Friendship, which provided that India would not interfere in Bhutan's internal affairs but would be guided by India in its foreign policy. Succeeded in 1952 by his son Jigme Dorji Wangchuck, Bhutan began to slowly emerge from its isolation and began a program of planned development. Bhutan became a member of the United Nations in 1971, and the National Assembly was established and a new code of law, as well as the Royal Bhutanese Army and the High Court.[1]

In 1972, Jigme Singye Wangchuck ascended the throne at age 20. He emphasized modern education, decentralization of governance, the development of hydroelectricity and tourism and improvements in rural developments. He was perhaps best known internationally for his overarching development philosophy of "gross national happiness." It recognizes that there are many dimensions to development and that economic goals alone are not sufficient. Satisfied with Bhutan's transitioning democratization process, he abdicated in December 2006 rather than wait until the promulgation of the new constitution in 2008. His son, Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck, became King upon his abdication.[1]

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Origins and early settlement, AD 600–1600

Although knowledge of prehistoric Bhutan has yet to emerge through archaeological study, stone tools and weapons, remnants of large stone structures, and megaliths that may have been used for boundary markers or rituals provide evidence of civilization as early as 2000 BC. The absence of neolithic mythological legends argues against earlier inhabitation. A more certain prehistoric period has been theorized by historians as that of the state of Lhomon (literally, southern darkness) or Monyul (dark land, a reference to the Monpa aboriginal peoples of Bhutan), possibly a part of Tibet that was then beyond the pale of Buddhist teachings. Monyul is thought to have existed between 500 BC. and AD 600. The names Lhomon Tsendenjong (southern Mon sandalwood country) and Lhomon Khashi (southern Mon country of four approaches), found in ancient Bhutanese and Tibetan chronicles, may also have credence and have been used by some Bhutanese scholars when referring to their homeland. Variations of the Sanskrit words Bhota-ant (end of Bhot) or Bhu-uttan (meaning highlands) have been suggested by historians as origins of the name Bhutan, which came into common foreign use in the late nineteenth century and is used in Bhutan only in English-language official correspondence. The traditional name of the country since the seventeenth century has been Drukyul—country of the Drukpa, the Dragon people, or the Land of the Thunder Dragon, a reference to the country's dominant Buddhist sect.[3]

Some scholars believe that during the early historical period the inhabitants were fierce mountain aborigines, the Monpa, who were of neither the Tibetan or Mongol stock that later overran northern Bhutan. The people of Monyul practiced the shamanistic Bön religion, which emphasized worship of nature and

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and evil spirits. During the latter part of this period, historical legends relate that the mighty king of Monyul invaded a southern region known as the Duars, subduing the regions of modern Assam, West Bengal, and Bihar in India.[3]

Arrival of Buddhism

Buddhism was first introduced to Bhutan in the 7th century AD. Tibetan king Songtsän Gampo[4] (reigned 627–49), a convert to Buddhism, ordered the construction of two Buddhist temples, at Bumthang in central Bhutan and at Kyichu (near Paro) in the Paro Valley.[5] Buddhism was propagated in earnest[4] in 746[6] under King Sindhu Rāja (*also* Künjom;[7] Sendha Gyab; Chakhar Gyalpo), an exiled Indian king who had established a government in Bumthang at Chakhar Gutho Palace. [8]:35 [9]:13

Buddhism replaced but did not eliminate the Bon religious practices that had also been prevalent in Tibet until the late sixth century. Instead, Buddhism absorbed Bon and its believers. As the country developed in its many fertile valleys, Buddhism matured and became a unifying element. It was Buddhist literature and chronicles that began the recorded history of Bhutan.[10]

In 747, a Buddhist saint, Padmasambhava (known in Bhutan as Guru Rimpoche and sometimes referred to as the Second Buddha), came to Bhutan from India at the invitation of one of the numerous local kings. After reportedly subduing eight classes of demons and converting the king, Guru Rimpoche moved on to Tibet. Upon his return from Tibet, he oversaw the construction of new monasteries in the Paro Valley and set up his headquarters in Bumthang. According to tradition, he founded the Nyingmapa sect—also known as the "old sect" or Red Hat sect—of Mahayana Buddhism, which became for a time the dominant religion of Bhutan. Guru Rimpoche plays a great historical and religious role as the national patron saint who revealed the tantras —manuals describing forms of devotion to natural energy—to Bhutan. Following the guru's sojourn, Indian influence played a temporary role until increasing Tibetan migrations brought new cultural and religious contributions.[10]

There was no central government during this period. Instead, small independent monarchies began to develop by the early ninth century. Each was ruled by a deb (king), some of whom claimed divine origins. The kingdom of Bumthang was the most prominent among these small entities. At the same time, Tibetan Buddhist monks (lam in Dzongkha, Bhutan's official national language) had firmly rooted their religion and culture in Bhutan, and members of joint Tibetan-Mongol military expeditions settled in fertile valleys. By the eleventh century, all of Bhutan was occupied by Tibetan-Mongol military forces.[10]

Rivalry among sects

By the tenth century, Bhutan's political development was heavily influenced by its religious history. Following a period in which Buddhism was in decline in Tibet in the eleventh century, contention among a number of subsects emerged. The Mongol overlords of Tibet and Bhutan patronized a sequence of subsects until their own political decline in the fourteenth century. By that time, the Gelugpa or Yellow Hat school had, after a period of anarchy in Tibet, become a powerful force resulting in the flight to Bhutan of numerous monks of various minor opposing sects. Among these monks was the founder of the Lhapa subsect of the Kargyupa school, to whom is attributed the introduction of strategically built dzong. Although the Lhapa subsect had been successfully challenged in the twelfth century by another Kargyupa subsect—the Drukpa—led by Tibetan monk Phajo Drugom Shigpo, it continued to proselytize until the seventeenth century. The Drukpa spread throughout Bhutan and eventually became a dominant form of religious practice. Between the twelfth century and the seventeenth century, the two Kargyupa subsects vied with one another from their respective dzong as the older form of Nyingmapa Buddhism was eclipsed.[11]

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Theocratic government, 1616–1907

Consolidation and defeat of Tibetan invasions, 1616–51



A 17th-century Italian map showing a large "Kingdom of Barantola or Boutan" bordering on Nepal and Tibet, as well as, surprisingly, Yunnan, Sichuan, and the Kingdom of Tanguts

In the seventeenth century, a theocratic government independent of Tibetan political influence was established, and premodern Bhutan emerged. The theocratic government was founded by an expatriate Drukpa monk, Ngawang Namgyal, who arrived in Bhutan in 1616 seeking freedom from the domination of the Gelugpa subsect led by the Dalai Lama (Ocean Lama) in Lhasa. After a series of victories over rival subsect leaders and Tibetan invaders, Ngawang Namgyal took the title shabdrung (At Whose Feet One Submits, or, in many Western sources, Dharma Raja), becoming the temporal and spiritual leader of Bhutan. Considered the first great historical figure of Bhutan, he united the leaders of powerful Bhutanese families in a land called Drukyul. He promulgated a code of law and built a network of impregnable dzong, a system that helped bring local lords under centralized control and strengthened the country against Tibetan invasions. Many dzong were extant in the late twentieth century.[12]

Circa 1627, during the first war with Tibet, Portuguese Jesuits Estêvão Cacella and João Cabral were the first recorded Europeans to visit Bhutan on their way to Tibet. They met with Ngawang Namgyal, presented him with firearms, gunpowder and a telescope, and offered him their services in the war against Tibet, but the shabdrung declined the offer.[12] After a stay of nearly eight months Cacella wrote a long letter from the Chagri Monastery reporting the travel. This is a rare report of the Shabdrung remaining.[13]

Tibetan armies invaded Bhutan around 1629, in 1631, and again in 1639, hoping to throttle Ngawang Namgyal's popularity before it spread too far. In 1634 Ngawang Namgyal defeated Karma Tenkyong's army in the Battle of Five Lamas. The invasions were thwarted, and the Drukpa subsect developed a strong presence in western and central Bhutan, leaving Ngawang Namgyal supreme. In recognition of the power he accrued, goodwill missions were sent to Bhutan from Cooch Behar in the Duars (present-day northeastern West Bengal), Nepal to the west, and Ladakh in western Tibet. The ruler of Ladakh even gave a number of villages in his kingdom to Ngawang Namgyal.

Bhutan's troubles were not over, however. In 1643, a joint Mongol-Tibetan force sought to destroy Nyingmapa refugees who had fled to Bhutan, Sikkim, and Nepal. The Mongols had seized control of religious and civil power in Tibet in the 1630s and established Gelugpa as the state religion. Bhutanese rivals of Ngawang Namgyal encouraged the Mongol intrusion, but the Mongol force was easily defeated in the humid lowlands of southern Bhutan. Another Tibetan invasion in 1647 also failed.[12]

During Ngawang Namgyal's rule, administration comprised a state monastic body with an elected head, the Je Khenpo (lord abbot), and a theocratic civil government headed by the Druk Desi (regent of Bhutan, also known as Deb Raja in Western sources). The Druk Desi was either a monk or a member of the laity—by the nineteenth century, usually the latter; he was elected for a three-year term, initially by a monastic council and later by the State Council (Lhengye Tshokdu). The State Council was a central administrative organ that included regional rulers, the shabdrung's chamberlains, and the Druk Desi. In time, the Druk Desi came under the political control of the State Council's most powerful faction of regional administrators. The Shabdrung was the head of state and the ultimate authority in religious and civil matters. The seat of government was at Thimphu, the site of a thirteenth-century dzong, in the spring, summer, and fall. The winter capital was at Punak

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established northeast of Thimphu in 1527. The kingdom was divided into three regions (east, central, and west), each with an appointed ponlop, or governor, holding a seat in a major dzong. Districts were headed by dzongpon, or district officers, who had their headquarters in lesser dzong. The ponlop were combination tax collectors, judges, military commanders, and procurement agents for the central government. Their major revenues came from the trade between Tibet and India and from land taxes.[12]

Ngawang Namgyal's regime was bound by a legal code called the Tsa Yig, which described the spiritual and civil regime and provided laws for government administration and for social and moral conduct. The duties and virtues inherent in the Buddhist dharma (religious law) played a large role in the new legal code, which remained in force until the 1960s.[12]

Administrative integration and conflict with Tibet, 1651–1728

To keep Bhutan from disintegrating, Ngawang Namgyal's death in 1651 apparently was kept a carefully guarded secret for fifty-four years. Initially, Ngawang Namgyal was said to have entered into a religious retreat, a situation not unprecedented in Bhutan, Sikkim, or Tibet during that time. During the period of Ngawang Namgyal's supposed retreat, appointments of officials were issued in his name, and food was left in front of his locked door.[14]

Ngawang Namgyal's son and stepbrother, in 1651 and 1680, respectively, succeeded him. They started their reigns as minors under the control of religious and civil regents and rarely exercised authority in their own names. For further continuity, the concept of multiple reincarnation of the first shabdrung—in the form of either his body, his speech, or his mind—was invoked by the Je Khenpo and the Druk Desi, both of whom wanted to retain the power they had accrued through the dual system of government. The last person recognized as the bodily reincarnation of Ngawang Namgyal died in the mid-eighteenth century, but speech and mind reincarnations, embodied by individuals who acceded to the position of Shabdrung, were recognized into the early twentieth century. The power of the state religion also increased with a new monastic code that remained in effect in the early 1990s. The compulsory admission to monastic life of at least one son from any family having three or more sons was instituted in the late seventeenth century. In time, however, the State Council became increasingly secular as did the successive Druk Desi, ponlop, and dzongpon, and intense rivalries developed among the ponlop of Tongsa and Paro and the dzongpon of Punakha, Thimphu, and Wangdue Phodrang.[14]

During the first period of succession and further internal consolidation under the Druk Desi government, there was conflict with Tibet and Sikkim. Internal opposition to the central government resulted in overtures by the opponents of the Druk Desi to Tibet and Sikkim. In the 1680s, Bhutan invaded Sikkim in pursuit of a rebellious local lord. In 1700, Bhutan again invaded Sikkim, and in 1714 Tibetan forces, aided by Mongolia, invaded Bhutan but were unable to gain control.[14]

Western outposts

During the 17th century Bhutan maintained close relations with Ladakh, and assisted Ladakh in its 1684 war with Tibet. Ladakh had earlier granted Bhutan several enclaves near Mount Kailash in western Tibet; these were monasteries of the Drukpa sect and so fell under the authority of the Bhutanese Je Khenpo and the Shabdrung. These enclaves persisted under Bhutanese control even after the rest of western Tibet came under the control of the Dalai Lama and his Gelugpa sect. Not until 1959 were the Bhutanese enclaves seized by the Chinese.[15] In addition to these outposts in Tibet, Bhutan for a time held monastic fiefs in Ladakh, Zanskar, and Lahul (now part of India), as well as in Lo Manthang and Dolpo (now part of Nepal).[16][17]

Civil conflict, 1728–72

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Though the invaders were unable to take control, the political system remained unstable. Regional rivalries contributed to the gradual disintegration of Bhutan at the time the first British agents arrived.[18]

In the early eighteenth century, Bhutan had successfully developed control over the principality of Cooch Behar. The raja of Cooch Behar had sought assistance from Bhutan against the Indian Mughals in 1730, and Bhutanese political influence was not long in following. By the mid-1760s, Thimphu considered Cooch Behar its dependency, stationing a garrison force there and directing its civil administration. When the Druk Desi invaded Sikkim in 1770, Cooch Behari forces joined their Bhutanese counterparts in the offensive. In a succession dispute in Cooch Behar two years later, however, the Druk Desi's nominee for the throne was opposed by a rival who invited British troops, and, in effect, Cooch Behar became a dependency of the British East India Company.[18]

British intrusion, 1772–1907

Under the Cooch Behari agreement with the British, a British expeditionary force drove the Bhutanese garrison out of Cooch Behar and invaded Bhutan in 1772–73. The Druk Desi petitioned Lhasa for assistance from the Panchen Lama, who was serving as regent for the youthful Dalai Lama. In correspondence with the British governor general of India, however, the Panchen Lama instead punished the Druk Desi and invoked Tibet's claim of suzerainty over Bhutan.[19]

Failing to receive help from Tibet, the Druk Desi signed a Treaty of Peace with the British East India Company on April 25, 1774. Bhutan agreed to return to its pre-1730 boundaries, paid a symbolic tribute of five horses to Britain, and, among other concessions, allowed the British to harvest timber in Bhutan. Subsequent missions to Bhutan were made by the British in 1776, 1777, and 1783, and commerce was opened between British India and Bhutan and, for a short time, Tibet. In 1784, the British turned over to Bhutanese control Bengal Duars territory, where boundaries were poorly defined. As in its other foreign territories, Bhutan left administration of the Bengal Duars territory to local officials and collected its revenues. Although major trade and political relations failed to develop between Bhutan and Britain, the British had replaced the Tibetans as the major external threat.[19]

Boundary disputes plagued Bhutanese–British relations. To reconcile their differences, Bhutan sent an emissary to Calcutta in 1787, and the British sent missions to Thimphu in 1815 and 1838. The 1815 mission was inconclusive. The 1838 mission offered a treaty providing for extradition of Bhutanese officials responsible for incursions into Assam, free and unrestricted commerce between India and Bhutan, and settlement of Bhutan's debt to the British. In an attempt to protect its independence, Bhutan rejected the British offer. Despite increasing internal disorder, Bhutan had maintained its control over a portion of the Assam Duars more or less since its reduction of Cooch Behar to a dependency in the 1760s. After the British gained control of Lower Assam in 1826, tension between the countries began to rise as Britain exerted its strength. Bhutanese payments of annual tribute to the British for the Assam Duars gradually fell into arrears, however. The resulting British demands for payment and military incursions into Bhutan in 1834 and 1835 brought about defeat for Bhutan's forces and a temporary loss of territory.[19]

The British proceeded in 1841 to annex the formerly Bhutanese controlled Assam Duars, paying a compensation of 10,000 rupees a year to Bhutan. In 1842, Bhutan gave up control to the British of some of the troublesome Bengal Duars territory it had administered since 1784.[19]

Charges and countercharges of border incursions and protection of fugitives led to an unsuccessful Bhutanese mission to Calcutta in 1852. Among other demands, the mission sought increased compensation for its former Duars territories, but instead the British deducted nearly 3,000 rupees from the annual compensation and

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demanded an apology for alleged plundering of British-protected lands by members of the mission. Following more incidents and the prospect of an anti-Bhutan rebellion in the Bengal Duars, British troops deployed to the frontier in the mid-1850s. The Sepoy Rebellion in India in 1857-58 and the demise of the British East India Company's rule prevented immediate British action. Bhutanese armed forces raided Sikkim and Cooch Behar in 1862, seizing people, property, and money. The British responded by withholding all compensation payments and demanding release of all captives and return of stolen property. Demands to the Druk Desi went unheeded, as he was alleged to be unaware of his frontier officials' actions against Sikkim and Cooch Behar.[19]

Britain sent a peace mission to Bhutan in early 1864, in the wake of the recent conclusion of a civil war there. The dzongpon of Punakha—who had emerged victorious—had broken with the central government and set up a rival Druk Desi while the legitimate Druk Desi sought the protection of the ponlop of Paro and was later deposed. The British mission dealt alternately with the rival ponlop of Paro and the ponlop of Tongsa (the latter acted on behalf of the Druk Desi), but Bhutan rejected the peace and friendship treaty it offered. Britain declared war in November 1864. Bhutan had no regular army, and what forces existed were composed of dzong guards armed with matchlocks, bows and arrows, swords, knives, and catapults. Some of these dzong guards, carrying shields and wearing chainmail armor, engaged the well-equipped British forces.[19]

The Duar War (1864–65) lasted only five months and, despite some battlefield victories by Bhutanese forces, resulted in Bhutan's defeat, loss of part of its sovereign territory, and forced cession of formerly occupied territories. Under the terms of the Treaty of Sinchula, signed on November 11, 1865, Bhutan ceded territories in the Assam Duars and Bengal Duars, as well as the eighty-three-square-kilometer territory of Dewangiri in southeastern Bhutan, in return for an annual subsidy of 50,000 rupees.[19] The land that was to become Bhutan House was ceded from Bhutan to British India in 1865 at the conclusion the Duar War and as a condition of the Treaty of Sinchula.[20][21]

In the 1870s and 1880s, renewed competition among regional rivals—primarily the pro-British ponlop of Tongsa and the anti-British, pro-Tibetan ponlop of Paro—resulted in the ascendancy of Ugyen Wangchuck, the Ponlop of Tongsa. From his power base in central Bhutan, Ugyen Wangchuck had defeated his political enemies and united the country following several civil wars and rebellions in 1882-85. His victory came at a time of crisis for the central government, however. British power was becoming more extensive to the south, and in the west Tibet had violated its border with Sikkim, incurring British disfavor. After 1,000 years of close ties with Tibet, Bhutan faced the threat of British military power and was forced to make serious geopolitical decisions. The British, seeking to offset potential Russian advances in Lhasa, wanted to open trade relations with Tibet. Ugyen Wangchuck, on the advice of his closest adviser Ugyen Dorji, saw the opportunity to assist the British and in 1903-4 volunteered to accompany a British mission to Lhasa as a mediator. For his services in securing the Anglo-Tibetan Convention of 1904, Ugyen Wangchuck was knighted and thereafter continued to accrue greater power in Bhutan.[19] Ugyen Dorji, as well as his descendants, went on to maintain British favor on behalf of the government from Bhutan House in Kalimpong, India.

Establishment of the hereditary monarchy, 1907

Further information: House of Wangchuck

Ugyen Wangchuck's emergence as the national leader coincided with the realization that the dual political system was obsolete and ineffective. He had removed his chief rival, the ponlop of Paro, and installed a supporter and relative, a member of the pro-British Dorji family, in his place. When the last shabdrung died in 1903 and a reincarnation had not appeared by 1906, civil administration came under the control of Ugyen Wangchuck. Finally, in 1907, the fifty-fourth and last Druk Desi was forced to retire, and despite recognitions of subsequent reincarnations of Ngawang Namgyal, the shabdrung system came to an end.[22]

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In November 1907, an assembly of leading Buddhist monks, government officials, and heads of important families was held to end the moribund 300-year-old dual system of government and to establish a new absolute monarchy. Ugyen Wangchuck was elected its first hereditary Druk Gyalpo (Dragon King, reigned 1907–26). The Dorji family became hereditary holders of the position of gongzim (chief chamberlain), the top government post. The British, wanting political stability on their northern frontier, approved of the entire development.[22]

Britain's earlier entreaties in Lhasa had unexpected repercussions at this time. The Chinese, concerned that Britain would seize Tibet, invaded Tibet in 1910 and asserted political authority. In the face of the Chinese military occupation, the Dalai Lama fled to India. China laid claim not only to Tibet but also to Bhutan, Nepal, and Sikkim. With these events, Bhutanese and British interests coalesced.[22]

On January 8, 1910, Sikkim Political Officer and Tibetologist Sir Charles Alfred Bell engaged Bhutan and signed the Treaty of Punakha. The Treaty of Punakha amended two articles of the 1865 treaty: the British agreed to double their annual stipend to 100,000 rupees and "to exercise no interference in the internal administration of Bhutan." In turn, Bhutan agreed "to be guided by the advice of the British Government in regard to its external relations." The Treaty of Punakha guaranteed Bhutan's defense against China; China, in no position to contest British power, conceded the end of the millennium-long Tibetan-Chinese influence.[22] It also assigned land in Motithang (Thimphu) and a hill station between Chukha and Thimphu to the British, assigning a portion of Kalimpong (Bhutan House) to Bhutan.[23]

Much of Bhutan's modern development has been attributed by Bhutanese historians to the first Druk Gyalpo. Internal reforms included introducing Western-style schools, improving internal communications, encouraging trade and commerce with India, and revitalizing the Buddhist monastic system. Toward the end of his life, Ugyen Wangchuck was concerned about the continuity of the family dynasty, and in 1924 he sought British assurance that the Wangchuck family would retain its preeminent position in Bhutan. His request led to an investigation of the legal status of Bhutan vis-à-vis the suzerainty held over Bhutan by Britain and the ambiguity of Bhutan's relationship to India. Both the suzerainty and the ambiguity were maintained.[22]

Development of centralized government, 1926–52

Ugyen Wangchuck died in 1926 and was succeeded by his son, Jigme Wangchuck (reigned 1926–52). The second Druk Gyalpo continued his father's centralization and modernization efforts and built more schools, dispensaries, and roads. During Jigme Wangchuck's reign, monasteries and district governments were increasingly brought under royal control. However, Bhutan generally remained isolated from international affairs.[24]

The issue of Bhutan's status vis-à-vis the government of India was reexamined by London in 1932 as part of the issue of the status of India itself. It was decided to leave the decision to join an Indian federation up to Bhutan when the time came. When British rule over India ended in 1947, so too did Britain's association with Bhutan. India succeeded Britain as the de facto protector of the Himalayan kingdom, and Bhutan retained control over its internal government. It was two years, however, before a formal agreement recognized Bhutan's independence.[24]

Following the precedent set by the Treaty of Punakha, on August 8, 1949, Thimphu signed the Treaty of Friendship Between the Government of India and the Government of Bhutan, according to which external affairs, formerly guided by Britain, were to be guided by India. Like Britain, India agreed not to interfere in Bhutan's internal affairs. India also agreed to increase the annual subsidy to 500,000 rupees per year. Important to Bhutan's national pride was the return of Dewangiri. Some historians believe that if India had been at odds with China at this time, as it was to be a decade later, it might not have acceded so easily t

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independent status.[24]

Modernization under Jigme Dorji, 1952–72

The third Druk Gyalpo, Jigme Dorji Wangchuck, was enthroned in 1952. Earlier he had married the European-educated cousin of the chogyal (king) of Sikkim and with her support made continual efforts to modernize his nation throughout his twenty-year reign. Among his first reforms was the establishment of the National Assembly — the Tshogdu — in 1953. Although the Druk Gyalpo could issue royal decrees and exercise veto power over resolutions passed by the National Assembly, its establishment was a major move toward a constitutional monarchy.[25]

When the Chinese communists took over Tibet in 1951, Bhutan closed its frontier with Tibet and sided with its powerful neighbor to the south. To offset the chance of Chinese encroachment, Bhutan began a modernization program. Land reform was accompanied by the abolition of slavery and serfdom and the separation of the judiciary from the executive branch of government. Mostly funded by India after China's invasion of Tibet in 1959, the modernization program also included the construction of roads linking the Indian plains with central Bhutan. An all-weather road was completed in 1962 between Thimphu and Phuntsholing, the overland gateway town on the southwest border with India. Dzongkha was made the national language during Jigme Dorji's reign. Additionally, development projects included establishing such institutions as a national museum in Paro and a national library, national archives, and national stadium, as well as buildings to house the National Assembly, the High Court (Thrimkhang Gongma), and other government entities in Thimphu. The position of gongzim, held since 1907 by the Dorji family, was upgraded in 1958 to lonchen (prime minister) and was still in the hands of the Dorji. Jigme Dorji Wangchuck's reforms, however, although lessening the authority of the absolute monarchy, also curbed the traditional decentralization of political authority among regional leaders and strengthened the role of the central government in economic and social programs.[25]

Modernization efforts moved forward in the 1960s under the direction of the lonchen, Jigme Palden Dorji, the Druk Gyalpo's brother-in-law. In 1962, however, Dorji incurred disfavor with the Royal Bhutan Army over the use of military vehicles and the forced retirement of some fifty officers. Religious elements also were antagonized by Dorji's efforts to reduce the power of the state-supported religious institutions. In April 1964, while the Druk Gyalpo was in Switzerland for medical care, Dorji was assassinated in Phuntsholing by an army corporal. The majority of those arrested and accused of the crime were military personnel and included the army chief of operations, Namgyal Bahadur, the Druk Gyalpo's uncle, who was executed for his part in the plot.[25]

The unstable situation continued under Dorji's successor as acting lonchen, his brother Lhendup Dorji, and for a time under the Druk Gyalpo's brother, Namgyal Wangchuck, as head of the army. According to some sources, a power struggle ensued between pro-Wangchuck loyalists and "modernist" Dorji supporters. The main issue was not an end to or lessening of the power of the monarchy but "full freedom from Indian interference." Other observers believe the 1964 crisis was not so much a policy struggle as competition for influence on the palace between the Dorji family and the Druk Gyalpo's Tibetan consort, Yanki, and her father. Lhendup Dorji had earlier threatened to kill Yanki—his sister's rival—and ordered her arrest when, fearing for her life and that of her 2-year-old son by the Druk Gyalpo, she sought refuge in India during the political crisis.[26] Lhendup also incurred the disapproval of the Druk Gyalpo by seeking to become sole regent of the kingdom after his brother's death, eliminating the Queen and the king's brother.[26] Before returning to Bhutan from Switzerland, Jigme Dorji met with the Indian Secretary General and Foreign Secretary in Calcutta who offered Indian support, including paratroopers if necessary, to help the Druk Gyalpo restore order in the kingdom.[26] Unable to regain the Druk Gyalpo's trust, Lhendup fled to London, while other supporters in the military and government fled to Nepal and Calcutta.[26] Afterwards, in concurrence of the National Assembly, Lhendup D[illegible]

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members were exiled in 1965. However, the exiles continued their attacks on the Druk Gyalpo and India, worsening relations between India and China.[26] The tense political situation continued and in July 1965 there was an assassination attempt on the Druk Gyalpo. The Dorjis were not implicated in the attempt—which was described as a "private matter"—and the would-be assassins were pardoned by the Druk Gyalpo.[25]

In 1966, to increase the efficiency of government administration, Jigme Dorji Wangchuck made Thimphu the year-round capital. In May 1968, the comprehensive Rules and Regulations of the National Assembly revised the legal basis of the power granted to the National Assembly. The Druk Gyalpo decreed that henceforth sovereign power, including the power to remove government ministers and the Druk Gyalpo himself, would reside with the National Assembly. The following November, the Druk Gyalpo renounced his veto power over National Assembly bills and said he would step down if two-thirds of the legislature passed a no-confidence vote. Although he did nothing to undermine the retention of the Wangchuck dynasty, the Druk Gyalpo in 1969 called for a triennial vote of confidence by the National Assembly (later abolished by his successor) to renew the Druk Gyalpo's mandate to rule.[25]

Diplomatic overtures also were made during Jigme Dorji Wangchuck's reign. Although always seeking to be formally neutral and nonaligned in relations with China and India, Bhutan also sought more direct links internationally than had occurred previously under the foreign-policy guidance of India. Consequently, in 1962 Bhutan joined the Colombo Plan for Cooperative, Economic, and Social Development in Asia and the Pacific known as the Colombo Plan, and in 1966 notified India of its desire to become a member of the United Nations (UN). In 1971, after holding observer status for three years, Bhutan was admitted to the UN. In an effort to maintain Bhutan as a stable buffer state, India continued to provide substantial amounts of development aid.[25]

Jigme Dorji Wangchuck ruled until his death in July 1972 and was succeeded by his seventeen-year-old son, Jigme Singye Wangchuck. The close ties of the Wangchuck and Dorji families were reemphasized in the person of the new king, whose mother, Ashi Kesang Dorji (ashi means princess), was the sister of the lonchen, Jigme Palden Dorji. Jigme Singye Wangchuck, who had been educated in India and Britain, had been appointed ponlop of Tongsa in May 1972 and by July that year had become the Druk Gyalpo. With his mother and two elder sisters as advisers, the new Druk Gyalpo was thrust into the affairs of state. He was often seen among the people, in the countryside, at festivals, and, as his reign progressed, meeting with foreign dignitaries in Bhutan and abroad. His formal coronation took place in June 1974, and soon thereafter the strains between the Wangchucks and Dorjis were relieved with the return that year of the exiled members of the latter family. The reconciliation, however, was preceded by reports of a plot to assassinate the new Druk Gyalpo before his coronation could take place and to set fire to the Tashichho Dzong (Fortress of the Glorious Religion, the seat of government in Thimphu). Yanki (who had four children with the Druk Gyalpo, including two sons, between 1962–1972) was the alleged force behind the plot, which was uncovered three months before the coronation; thirty persons were arrested, including high government and police officials. However, Lawrence Sittling, secretary to Jigme Dorji Wangchuck, later reported that the assassination plot was a fabrication by a Chinese diplomat designed to alienate Bhutan from India. But the truth was not any more politically acceptable—those arrested were Tibetan Khampas rebels, trained in India, who were traveling through Bhutan on a mission to Tibet. (Encyclopaedia of Saarc Nations, Syed) Under pressure from China, the Bhutanese government demanded that the four thousand Tibetan refugees living in Bhutan either become Bhutanese citizens or go into exile. Most chose exile. (Syed)

International relations, 1972–present

Main article: Foreign relations of Bhutan

When civil war broke out in Pakistan in 1971, Bhutan was among the first nations to recognize the new government of Bangladesh, and formal diplomatic relations were established in 1973. An

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have served as a major impetus to Bhutan to speed up reform and modernization. In that year, neighboring Sikkim's monarchy, which had endured for more than 300 years, was ousted following a plebiscite in which the Nepalese majority outvoted the Sikkimese minority. Sikkim, long a protectorate of India, became India's twenty-second state.[27]

To further ensure its independence and international position, Bhutan gradually established diplomatic relations with other nations and joined greater numbers of regional and international organizations. Many of the countries with which Bhutan established relations provided development aid. Moderization of daily life brought new problems to Bhutan in the late 1980s.[27] Television broadcast was official introduced in Bhutan in 1999.[28]

Assamese separatists

Several guerrilla groups seeking to establish an independent Assamese state in northeast India have set up guerrilla bases in the forests of southern Bhutan, from which they launch cross-border attacks on targets in Assam. The largest guerrilla group is the ULFA (United Liberation Front of Asom). Negotiations aimed at removing them peacefully from these bases failed in the spring of 2003. Bhutan is faced with the prospect of having to strengthen its token army force to evict the guerrillas.

Military action against Assamese separatists December 2003

On 15 December 2003 the Royal Bhutan Army began military operations against guerrilla camps in southern Bhutan, in coordination with Indian armed forces who lined the border to the south to prevent the guerrillas from dispersing back into Assam. News sources indicated that of the 30 camps that were target, 13 were controlled by ULFA, 12 camps by the National Democratic Front of Bodoland (NDFB), and 5 camps controlled by the Kamatapur Liberation Organisation (KLO). By January, government news reports indicated the guerillas had been routed from their bases.

Refugee community

Main articles: Bhutanese refugees and Lhotshampa

In 1988, Bhutan was reported to have evicted some number of Nepali-speaking residents (Bhutanese reports say about 5,000 and Refugee reports says over 100,000) from districts in southern Bhutan, creating a large refugee community that is now being detained in seven temporary United Nations refugee camps in Nepal and Sikkim. The actual numbers are difficult to establish, as many of those in the camps are reported to be holding forged identity papers, and impoverished Nepalese citizens and started to migrate to the Nepalese community leaving their refugee camps. The reason for leaving refugee camps is to find a job or to avoid the poor living condition of the camp. However, after the UNHCR provided free shelter, food, and services to those living in camps, few of them returned back to the Refugee camps. As a result, the number of people living in the camps decreased exponentially. Although Bhutanese Government claims that only about 5000 initially left the country, the number of actual migration is more than that.[29]

After years of negotiations between Nepal and Bhutan, in 2000 Bhutan agreed in principle to allow certain classes of the refugees to return to Bhutan. However the situation is at a standstill, after violence was committed on Bhutanese officials by the angered people in the camps. Significant unrest is now reported to be fermenting in the camps, especially as the United Nations terminates a number of educational and welfare programmes in an effort to force Bhutan and Nepal to come to terms. As the Bhutanese government was unwilling to take them into their country many developed nations offered the Refugees to allow them to settle in their own countries which include USA and Australia. As many as 20,000 Bhutanese refugees have been resettled in these countries

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With less than 700,000 people living in Bhutan, if all the Bhutanese refugees in Nepal would return it would severely disturb the country's demography.

Shabdrung

Main article: Shabdrung

In early 2007, reports alleged that the current Shabdrung, Pema Namgyel, who is a small child, has been held under house arrest in Bhutan along with his parents since 2005.[30]

Formalized democracy

Constitution

Main article: Constitution of Bhutan

On March 26, 2005, "an auspicious day when the stars and elements converge favourably to create an environment of harmony and success"[1], the king and government distributed a draft of the country's first constitution, requesting that every citizen review it. A new house of parliament, the National Council, is chartered consisting of 20 elected representatives from each of the dzonghags, persons selected by the King. The National Council would be paired with the other already existing house, the National Assembly.

Per the Constitution, the monarchy is given a leadership role in setting the direction for the government as long as the King shall demonstrate his commitment and ability to safeguard the interests of the kingdom and its people.

Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck

On December 15, 2006, the fourth Druk Gyalpo, His Majesty Jigme Singye Wangchuck, abdicated all of his powers as King to his son, Prince Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck, with a specific intention to prepare the young King for the country's transformation to a full-fledged, democratic form of government due to occur in 2008.

The previous King's abdication in favour of his son was originally set to occur in 2008 as well, but there was an apparent concern that the new King should have hands-on experience as the nation's leader before presiding over a transformation in the country's form of government. According to the national newspaper, the Kuensel, the previous King stated to his cabinet that "as long as he himself continued to be King, the Crown Prince would not gain the actual experience of dealing with issues and carrying out the responsibilities of a head of state. With parliamentary democracy to be established in 2008, there was much to be done; so it was necessary that he gained this valuable experience."

The fourth Druk Gyalpo further stated that "Bhutan could not hope for a better time for such an important transition. Today, the country enjoys peace and stability, and its security and sovereignty is ensured. After phenomenal development and progress, the country is closer than ever to the goal of economic self reliance. Bhutan’s relations with its closest neighbour and friend, India, has reached new heights. International organisations and bilateral development partners are ready to support Bhutan’s development efforts and political transformation."

See also

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- History of Asia
- History of China
- History of India
- History of Nepal
- History of South Asia
- Kings of Bhutan
- Politics of Bhutan
- Timeline of Bhutanese history

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Druk Gyalpo

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Druk Gyalpo** (Dzongkha: ; Wylie: *'brug rgyal-po*; "**Dragon King**") is the head of state of Bhutan.[1] He is also known in English as the **King of Bhutan**. Bhutan, in the local Dzongkha language, is known as *Dryukyul* which translates as "The Land of Dragons." Thus, while Kings of Bhutan are known as *Druk Gyalpo* ("Dragon King"), the Bhutanese people call themselves the *Drukpa*, meaning "Dragon people."

The current ruler of Bhutan is the 5th Hereditary King His Majesty Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck, who is the 5th *Druk Gyalpo*.[2] He wears the Raven Crown which is the official Crown worn by the Monarchs of Bhutan. He is correctly styled "*Mi'wang 'Ngada Rimboche*" ("His Majesty") and addressed "'*Ngada Rimboche*" ("Your Majesty").[3][4]

The current Druk Gyalpo Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck is the youngest reigning monarch in the world.[5] He ascended to the throne in November 2008 after his father, Jigme Singye Wangchuck, abdicated the throne in his favor.[2]

Druk Gyalpo of Bhutan

MONARCHY



Emblem of Bhutan



Incumbent:

Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuk

5th Dragon King

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Prince Jigyel Ugyen Wangchuck (presumptive)
First monarch:	Sir Ugyen Wangchuk
Formation:	1907

List of Druk Gyalpos

Main article: List of rulers of Bhutan

The Hereditary Dragon Kings of Bhutan:[6]

- His Majesty Ugyen Wangchuck (1st Druk Gyalpo)
- His Majesty Jigme Wangchuck (2nd Druk Gyalpo)
- His Majesty Jigme Dorji Wangchuck (3rd Druk Gyalpo)
- His Majesty Jigme Singye Wangchuck (4th Druk Gyalpo)
- His Majesty Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck (5th Druk Gyalpo)

See also

- House of Wangchuck
- History of Bhutan
- Politics of Bhutan
- Dual system of government
- Constitution of Bhutan

References

List of rulers of Bhutan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Bhutan was founded and unified as a country by Shabdrung Ngawang Namgyal in the mid–17th century. After his death in 1651, Bhutan nominally followed his recommended "dual system of government." Under the dual system, government control was split between a civil administrative leader, the Druk Desi (Dzongkha: འབྲུག་སྡེ་སྲིད; Wylie: *'brug sde-srid*; also called "Deb Raja");[nb 1] and a religious leader, the Je Khenpo (Dzongkha: རྗེ་མཁན་པོ; Wylie: *rje mkhan-po*). Both the Druk Desi and Je Khenpo were under the nominal authority of the Shabdrung (Dzongkha: ཞབས་དྲུང; Wylie: *zhabs-drung*), a reincarnation of Ngawang Namgyal. In practice however, the Shabdrung was often a child under the control of the Druk Desi, and regional *penlops* (governors) often administered their districts in defiance of the power of the Druk Desis until the rise of the unified Wangchuck monarchy in 1907.[1]

King of Bhutan

MONARCHY



Arms of His Highness the King of Bhutan



Incumbent:

Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuk

5th Dragon King

Style:	His Highness
First monarch:	Sir Ugyen Wangchuk
Formation:	1907

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- 1 Druk Desis (1650–1905)
- 2 Kings of Bhutan (1907–present)
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Druk Desis (1650–1905)

Main article: Druk Desi

Below appears the list of Druk Desis throughout the existence of the office. Officeholders were initially appointed by Shabdrung Ngawang Namgyal, though after his death the Je Khenpo and civil government decided appointments.

Italics indicate coregencies and caretaker governments, which are not traditionally separately numbered.

Druk Desis of Bhutan[2]

Number	Name	Date of Birth	Reign start	Reign end	Date of Death
1	Tenzin Drukgye (བསྟན་འཛིན་འབྲུག་རྒྱས; *bstan-'dzin 'brg-rgyas*)		1650	1655	1655

2	*Langonpa* Tenzin Drukdra (རྭ་སྒོན་པ་བསྟན་འཛིན་འབྲུག་གྲགས་; *la-sngon-pa bstan-'dzin 'brug-grags*)		1655	1667	1667
3	*Chhogyel* Minjur Tenpa		1667	1680	1691
4	*Gyalsay* Tenzin Rabgye	1638	1680	1694	1696
5	Gedun Chomphel		1695	1701	1701
6	Ngawang Tshering		1701	1704	
7	Umze Peljor		1704	1707	
8	Druk Rabgye		1707	1719	1729
9	Ngawang Gyamtsho		1719	1729	1729
10	Mipham Wangpo		1729	1736	
11	Khuwo Peljor		1736	1739	
12	Ngawang Gyaltshen		1739	1744	
13	Sherab Wangchuck		1744	1763	
14	Druk Phuntsho		1763	1765	
15	*Wangzob* Druk Tenzin I		1765	1768	
16	Sonam Lhundub[3][table 1]		1768	1773	1773
17	Kunga Rinchen		1773	1776	
18	Jigme Singye	1742	1776	1788	1789
19	Druk Tenzin		1788	1792	
20	Umzey Chapchhab		1792	1792	1792
21	*Chhogyel* Sonam Gyaltshen (Tashi Namgyel)		1792	1799	
22	Druk Namgyel		1799	1803	
23	*Chhogyel* Sonam Gyaltshen (Tashi Namgyel) (2nd reign)		1803	1805	
24	Sangye Tenzin		1805	1806	
25	Umzey Parob		1806	1808	
26	Byop Chhyoda		1807	1808	
27	*Tulku* Tsulthrim Daba	1790	1809	1810	1820
28	*Zhabdrung* Thutul (Jigme Dragpa)		1810	1811	
29	*Chholay* Yeshey Gyaltshen	1781	1811	1815	1830
30	Tshaphu Dorji Namgyel		1815	1815	
31	Sonam Drugyel		1815	1819	
32	*Gongzim* Tenzin Drukda		1819	1823	
33	Chhoki Gyaltshen		1823	1831	
34	Dorji Namgyel		1831	1832	
35	Adab Thinley		1832	1835	
36	Chhoki Gyaltshen (2nd reign)		1835	1838	
37	Dorji Norbu		1838	1850	
38	Wangchuk Gyalpo		1850	1850	
39	*Zhabdrung* Thutul (Jigme Norbu) (in Thimphu)		1850	1852	
	Chagpa Sangye (in Punakha)		*1851*	*1852*	
40	Damchho Lhundrup		1852	1854	

41	Jamtul Jamyang Tenzin		1854	1856	
42	Kunga Palden (in Punakha)		1856	1860	
	Sherab Tharchin (in Thimphu)		*1856*	*1860*	
43	Phuntsho Namgyel (Nazi Pasang)		1860	1863	
44	Tshewang Sithub		1863	1864	
	Tsulthrim Yonten		*1864*	*1864*	
45	Kagyud Wangchuk		1864	1864	
46	Tshewang Sithub (2nd reign)		1865	1867	
47	Tsondul Pekar		1867	1870	
48	Jigme Namgyel	1825	1870	1873	1881
49	Kitshab Dorji Namgyel		1873	1879	
	Jigme Namgyel (2nd reign)		*1877*	*1878*	
	Kitsep Dorji Namgyel (2nd reign)		*1878*	*1879*	
50	*Chhogyel* Zangpo		March 1879	June 1880	1880
	Jigme Namgyel (3rd reign)		*June 1880*	*July 1881*	
51	Lam Tshewang	1836	July 1881	May 1883	1883
52	Gawa Zangpo		May 1883	August 1885	
53	Sangye Dorji		1885	1901	1901
54	Choley Yeshe Ngodub	1851	1903	1905	1917

Notes:

1. ^ Druk Desi Sonam Lhundub was the first Bhutanese ruler to confront British power, losing in a power bid in Cooch Behar, a traditional Bhutanese dependency.

Kings of Bhutan (1907–present)

Main articles: Druk Gyalpo and House of Wangchuck

The Bhutanese monarchy was established in 1907, unifying the country under the control of the Wangchuk family, hereditary *penlops* (governors) of Trongsa district. The king of Bhutan, formally known as the Druk Gyalpo ("Dragon King"), also occupies the office of Druk Desi under the dual system of government. Since the enactment of the Constitution of 2008, the Druk Gyalpo has remained head of state, while the Prime Minister of Bhutan acts as executive and head of government in a parliamentary democracy.[4]

Image	Name	Date of birth	Monarch From (Coronation)	Monarch Until	Date of death

	**Ugyen**	1862	17 December 1907	21 August 1926	
	Jigme	1905	21 August 1926 (16 March 1927)	24 March 1952	
	**Jigme Dorji**	2 May 1928	24 March 1952	21 July 1972	
	Jigme Singye	11 November 1955	21 July 1972 (2 June 1974)	14 December 2006 (*abdicated*)	Alive
	**Jigme Khesar Namgyel**	21 February 1980	14 December 2006 (6 November 2008)	Incumbent	Alive

See also

- Druk Desi
- Dual system of government
- Druk Gyalpo
- House of Wangchuck
- Constitution of Bhutan
- History of Bhutan

Notes

1. ^ The original title is Dzongkha: ; Wylie: *sde-srid phyag-mdzod*.

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Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck (Dzongkha: ཨཇིགས་མེད་གེ་སར་རྣམ་རྒྱལ་དབང་ཕྱུག, [1] born 21 February 1980) is the son of Jigme Singye Wangchuk and the 5th and current reigning Dragon King (Druk Gyalpo) of the Kingdom of Bhutan.[2] He became king on 14 December 2006 being crowned on 6 November 2008. He was the world's youngest head of state until 2011, surpassed by Kim Jong-un of North Korea.

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- 4 Accomplishments as king
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Family

Khesar (pronounced Gesar) is the eldest son of the fourth and previous Dragon King of Bhutan, Jigme Singye Wangchuck, and his father's third wife, Queen (Ashi) Tshering Yangdon. He has a younger sister, Princess Dechen Yangzom, and brother, Prince Jigme Dorji, as well as four half-sisters and three half-brothers.[3]

Engagement and marriage

Main article: Wedding of Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck and Jetsun Pema

As he opened the session of parliament on Friday, 20 May 2011, the King announced his engagement to Jetsun Pema, 21, born in Thimphu on 4 June 1990. They were married on 13 October 2011 in Punakha Dzong. The royal wedding was Bhutan's largest media event in history. The royal wedding ceremony was held first in Punakha followed by formal

Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck
ཨཇིགས་མེད་གེ་སར་རྣམ་རྒྱལ་དབང་ཕྱུག



King of Bhutan

Reign	14 December 2006 – present
Coronation	6 November 2008
Predecessor	Jigme Singye Wangchuck
Heir presumptive	Jigyel Ugyen Wangchuck
Prime Ministers	***See list***
Spouse	Jetsun Pema (2011–present)
House	House of Wangchuck
Father	Jigme Singye Wangchuck
Mother	Tshering Yangdon
Born	21 February 1980 Dechencholing Palace, Bhutan
Religion	Vajrayana Buddhism

Bhutanese Royal Family

visits to different parts of the country. During the ceremony the King also received the Crown of the Druk Gyal-tsuen from the sacred Machhen and bestowed it on Jetsun Pema, thereby formally proclaiming her as the Queen of the Kingdom of Bhutan. The wedding was held in traditional style with the "blessings of the guardian deities".[4][5][6]

Education

After completing his higher secondary studies at Yangchenphu Higher Secondary School, Bhutan, Khesar studied abroad at Phillips Academy in Andover, Massachusetts, Cushing Academy and Wheaton College in Massachusetts, United States, before graduating from Magdalen College, University of Oxford, where he completed the Foreign Service Programme and International Relations.[7]

As Crown Prince, he travelled abroad, officially representing Bhutan on several occasions and has an active role in numerous cultural, educational and economic organisations. He is an active basketball player and has represented Bhutan in many international events.

Ascension to the throne

In December 2005, King Jigme Singye Wangchuck announced his intention to abdicate in his son's favour in 2008, and that he would begin handing over responsibility to him immediately.[8] On 14 December 2006, the King abdicated and transferred the throne to Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck[9] who was officially crowned on 6 November 2008,[10][11] in the month of the male earth rat, in Punakha. Religious ceremonies and public celebrations were also held at Tashichhoedzong and Changlingmithang in Thimphu. The coronation ceremony comprised an ancient and colourful ritual, attended by thousands of foreign dignitaries, including the President of India, Pratibha Patil, and the External Affairs Minister S.M.Krishna.[12][13]

CNN reported that, in order to welcome Khesar as King of Bhutan, people painted the street signs, hung festive banners and decorated traffic circles with fresh flowers to celebrate the occasion.[14]

Accomplishments as king



HM The King
HM The Queen

The Fourth King: HM King Jigme Singye Wangchuck

- HM Queen Dorji Wangmo Wangchuck
  - HRH Princess Sonam Dechen
  - HRH Prince Jigyel Ugyen Wangchuck
- HM Queen Tshering Pem Wangchuck
  - HRH Princess Chimi Yangzom
  - HRH Princess Kesang Choden
  - HRH Prince Ugyen Jigme Wangchuck
- HM Queen Tshering Yangdön Wangchuck
  - HRH Princess Dechen Yangzom
  - HRH Prince Jigme Dorji Wangchuck
- HM Queen Sangay Choden Wangchuck
  - HRH Prince Khamsum Singhye Wangchuck
  - HRH Princess Euphelma Choden Wangchuck

Issue of Jigme Dorji Wangchuck, the Third King:

- HRH Princess Pem Pem Wangchuck
  - Ashi Kesang Choden
- HRH Princess Kesang Wangmo Wangchuck
  - Dasho Jigme Namgyel Dorji
  - Ashi Tenzin Wangmo
  - Dasho Singye Palden
  - Dasho Ugyen Norbu
- HRH Princess Sonam Choden Wangchuck
  - Dasho Mila Singye
  - Ashi Maytho
- HRH Princess Dechen Wangmo Wangchuck
  - Dasho Zilon Dorji
  - Ashi Mendharawa Dorji

See also

- House of Wangchuck

- Line of succession
- Dorji family

The young king began his reign overseeing the democratization of his country by presiding over the last sessions of the parliament where electoral laws, land reform and other important issues were deliberated.[15] He stated that the responsibility of this generation for Bhutanese was to ensure the success of democracy. He also travelled extensively around the country to encourage participation in the upcoming democratic exercises, speaking mainly to the youth of Bhutan on the need for Bhutanese to strive for greater standards in education, business, civil service and the need for people of a small country to work harder than those of others.[16][17]

He signed a new treaty of friendship with India in February 2007, replacing the treaty of 1949.[18] Many government initiatives were undertaken by the new King with a view to strengthening the system in preparation for the democratic changes in 2008. The Constitution of the Kingdom of Bhutan was adopted on 18 July 2008, by the first elected parliament. On 1 November 2008, he was formally crowned in Punakha as the Fifth King of the Wangchuck Dynasty.

Since the formal coronation, King Jigme Khesar's first landmark project was the launching of the National Cadastral Resurvey in March 2009. The programme is aimed at resolving long-standing land issues of excess land that affects every Bhutanese household.[*citation needed*]

The King has also been giving away land to landless farmers around the country. The on-going project takes the King to remote villages and communities. He personally supervised the rebuilding efforts following major earthquakes and floods in 2009.[*citation needed*]

In November 2011, the King with Queen Jetsun made a state visit to Japan; they were the first state guests to Japan since the 2011 earthquake.

On 24 November 2011 The King was called to the Bar of England and Wales at the Honourable Society of the Inner Temple and was also made an Honorary Master of the Bench.

Popularity abroad

As Crown Prince of Bhutan, Khesar attended Thai King Bhumibol Adulyadej's 60th Anniversary Celebrations on 12–13 June 2006 in Bangkok along with royals from 25 countries. Known in the Thai press as Prince Jigme, the prince, at 26 the youngest of the visiting royals, caused a sensation, giving rise to a legion of female fans in Thailand. The Thai press dubbed him "Prince Charming", publishing his photograph and running stories about him as well as tourism in Bhutan for several weeks after he had left Thailand.

When he became king, he was the youngest reigning monarch in the world, and because of his handsome appearance, he has been called, "The world's most handsome king." [19]

Styles

- 1980–2004: His Royal Highness *Dasho* Jigme Khesar Namgyal Wangchuck
- 2004–2006: His Royal Highness *Chhoetse Penlop* Jigme Khesar Namgyal Wangchuck
- 2006–present:
  - Internationally: His Majesty The King of Bhutan, or, HM King Jigme Khesar Namgyal Wangchuck
  - In Bhutan: *Druk Gyalpo* Jigme Khesar Namgyal Wangchuck, *Mang-pos Bhur-ba'i rgyalpo,*

See also

- House of Wangchuck

Monarchical styles of

King Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck of Bhutan



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Druk Gyalpo*

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External links

- Bhutan's Royal Family (http://www.raonline.ch/pages/bt/visin/bt_royalfam07.html)
- More Royal Family Background (http://www.bhutannewsonline.com/monarchy.html)
- Tim Fischer: Wise heads prevail in capital of happiness (http://www.theaustralian.news.com.au/story/0,20867,20983056-7583,00.html)
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- BBC, In pictures: Bhutan coronation (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/in_pictures/7712451.stm)
- Bhutan crowns a new King (gallery) (http://www.boston.com/bigpicture/2008/11/bhutan_crowns_a_new_king.html)

Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck **House of Wangchuck** **Born:** 21 February 1980		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Jigme Singye Wangchuck**	**King of Bhutan** 2006–present	**Incumbent** *Heir presumptive:* *Jigyel Ugyen Wangchuck*

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Categories: 1980 births | Alumni of Magdalen College, Oxford | Bhutanese monarchs | Buddhist monarchs | Current national leaders | House of Wangchuck | Living people | Reigning monarchs | Wheaton College (Massachusetts) alumni

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House of Wangchuck

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The House of Wangchuck (Tibetan: , Wylie: *Dbang-phyug Rgyal-brgyud*) has ruled Bhutan since it was reunified in 1907. Prior to reunification, the Wangchuck family had governed the district of Trongsa as descendants of Dungkar Choji. They eventually overpowered other regional lords and earned the favour of the British Empire. After consolidating power, Penlop of Trongsa Sir Ugyen Wangchuck was elected hereditary King of Bhutan, or Druk Gyalpo ("Dragon King"), thus founding the royal house.

The Wangchuck dynasty centralized government power in Bhutan and established relations with the British Empire and India under its first two monarchs. The third, fourth, and fifth (current) monarchs have put the kingdom on its path toward democratization, decentralization, and development.

Wangchuck



Country	Bhutan
Ancestral house	—
Titles	Dragon King of Bhutan
Founder	Ugyen Wangchuck
Current head	Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck
Founding	17 December 1907 AD

Bhutanese Royal Family



HM The King
HM The Queen

The Fourth King: HM King Jigme Singye Wangchuck

- HM Queen Dorji Wangmo Wangchuck
  - HRH Princess Sonam Dechen
  - HRH Prince Jigyel Ugyen Wangchuck
- HM Queen Tshering Pem Wangchuck
  - HRH Princess Chimi Yangzom
  - HRH Princess Kesang Choden
  - HRH Prince Ugyen Jigme Wangchuck
- HM Queen Tshering Yangdön Wangchuck
  - HRH Princess Dechen Yangzom
  - HRH Prince Jigme Dorji

Contents

- 1 History
  - 1.1 Origins
  - 1.2 Nationhood under the Wangchucks
  - 1.3 Relations with the Dorji family
    - 1.3.1 Assassination of Jigme Dorji
  - 1.4 Democratization under the Wangchucks
- 2 Genealogy
- 3 See also
- 4 Notes
- 5 References
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History

There have been five Wangchuck kings of Bhutan, namely:

1. Ugyen Wangchuck (*b.*1861-*d.*1926) "First King"; reigned 17 December 1907 – 21 August 1926.
2. Jigme Wangchuck (*b.*1902/1906-*d.*1952) "Second King"; *r.* 21 August 1926 – 24 March 1952.
3. Jigme Dorji Wangchuck (*b.*1929-*d.*1972) "Third King"; *r.* 24 March 1952 – 24 July 1972.
4. Jigme Singye Wangchuck (*b.*1955) "Fourth King"; *r.* 24 July 1972 – 15 December 2006.
5. Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck (*b.*1980) "Fifth King"; *r.* 14 December 2006 – present.

The ascendency of the House of Wangchuck is deepy rooted in the historical

politics of Bhutan. Between 1616 and 1907, varying administrative, religious, and regional powers vied for control within Bhutan. During this period, factions were influenced and supported by Tibet and the British Empire. Ultimately, the hereditary Penlop of Trongsa, Ugyen Wangchuck, was elected the first Druk Gyalpo by an assembly of his subjects in 1907, marking the ascendency of the House of Wangchuck.

Origins

Further information: History of Bhutan and Dual system of government

Under Bhutan's early theocratic dual system of government, decreasingly effective central government control resulted in the *de facto* disintegration of the office of Shabdrung after the death of Shabdrung Ngawang Namgyal in 1651. Under this system, the Shabdrung reigned over the temporal Druk Desi and religious Je Khenpo. Two successor Shabdrungs – the son (1651) and stepbrother (1680) of Ngawang Namgyal – were effectively controlled by the Druk Desi and Je Khenpo until power was further splintered through the innovation of multiple Shabdrung incarnations, reflecting speech, mind, and body. Increasingly secular regional lords (penlops and dzongpons) competed for power amid a backdrop of civil war over the Shabdrung and invasions from Tibet, and the Mongol Empire.[1] The penlops of Trongsa and Paro, and the dzongpons of Punakha, Thimphu, and Wangdue Phodrang were particularly notable figures in the competition for regional dominance.[1][2]

Chogyal Minjur Tenpa (1613–1680; *r.* 1667–1680) was the first Penlop of Trongsa (Tongsab), appointed by Shabdrung Ngawang Namgyal. He was born Damchho Lhundrub in Min-Chhud, Tibet, and led a monastic life from childhood. Before his appointment as Tongsab, he held the appointed post of Umzey (Chant Master). A trusted follower of the Shabdrung, Minjur Tenpa was sent to subdue kings of Bumthang, Lhuntse, Trashigang, Zhemgang, and other lords from Trongsa Dzong. After doing so, the Tongsab divided his control in the east among eight regions (Shachho Khorlo Tsegay), overseen by Dungpas and Kutshabs (civil servants). He went on to build Jakar, Lhuentse, Trashigang, and Zhemgang Dzongs.[3]:106

Within this political landscape, the Wangchuck family originated in the Bumthang region of central Bhutan.[4] The family belongs to the Nyö clan, and is descended from Pema Lingpa, a Bhutanese Nyingmapa saint. The Nyö clan emerged as a local aristocracy, supplanting many older aristocratic families of Tibetan origin that sided with Tibet during invasions of Bhutan. In doing so, the clan came to occupy the hereditary position of Penlop of Trongsa, as well as significant national and local government positions.[5]

The Penlop of Trongsa controlled central Bhutan; the rival Penlop of Paro controlled western Bhutan; and dzongpons controlled areas surrounding their respective dzongs. The Penlop of Paro, unlike Trongsa, was an office appointed by the Druk Desi's central government. Because western regions controlled by the Penlop of Paro contained lucrative trade routes, it became the object of competition among aristocratic families.[5]

Although Bhutan generally enjoyed favorable relations with both Tibet and British India through the 19th century, extension of British power at Bhutan's borders as well as Tibetan incursions in British Sikkim defined politically opposed pro-Tibet and pro-Britain forces.[6] This period of intense rivalry between and within western and central Bhutan, coupled with external forces from Tibet and especially the British Empire, provided the conditions for the ascendancy of the Penlop of Trongsa.[5]

After the Duar War with Britain (1864–65) as well as substantial territorial losses (Cooch Behar 1835; Assam Duars 1841), armed conflict turned inward. In 1870, amid the continuing civil wars, Penlop Jigme Namgyal of Trongsa

Wangchuck
- HM Queen Sangay Choden Wangchuck
  - HRH Prince Khamsum Singhye Wangchuck
  - HRH Princess Euphelma Choden Wangchuck

Issue of Jigme Dorji Wangchuck, the Third King:

- HRH Princess Pem Pem Wangchuck
  - Ashi Kesang Choden
- HRH Princess Kesang Wangmo Wangchuck
  - Dasho Jigme Namgyel Dorji
  - Ashi Tenzin Wangmo
  - Dasho Singye Palden
  - Dasho Ugyen Norbu
- HRH Princess Sonam Choden Wangchuck
  - Dasho Mila Singye
  - Ashi Maytho
- HRH Princess Dechen Wangmo Wangchuck
  - Dasho Zilon Dorji
  - Ashi Mendharawa Dorji

See also

- **House of Wangchuck**
- Line of succession
- Dorji family

ascended to the office of Druk Desi. In 1879, he appointed his 17-year-old son Ugyen Wangchuck as Penlop of Paro. Jigme Namgyal reigned through his death 1881, punctuated by periods of retirement during which he retained effective control of the country.[7]

The pro-Britain Penlop Ugyen Wangchuck ultimately prevailed against the pro-Tibet and anti-Britain Penlop of Paro after a series of civil wars and rebellions between 1882 and 1885. After his father's death in 1881, Ugyen Wangchuck entered a feud over the post of Penlop of Trongsa. In 1882, at the age of 20, he marched on Bumthang and Trongsa, winning the post of Penlop of Trongsa in addition to Paro. In 1885, Ugyen Wangchuck intervened in a conflict between the Dzongpens of Punakha and Thimphu, sacking both sides and seizing Simtokha Dzong. From this time forward, the office of Desi became purely ceremonial.[7]

Nationhood under the Wangchucks



King Ugyen Wangchuk, receiving the order of the Knight Commander of the Order of the British Empire at Punakha Dzong

Further information: Ugyen Wangchuck, Jigme Wangchuck, and Jigme Dorji Wangchuck

Trongsa Penlop Ugyen Wangchuck, firmly in power and advised by Kazi Ugyen Dorji, accompanied the British expedition to Tibet as an invaluable intermediary, earning his first British knighthood. Penlop Ugyen Wangchuck further garnered knighthood in the KCIE in 1904. Meanwhile, the last officially recognized Shabdrung and Druk Desi had died in 1903 and 1904, respectively. As a result, a power vacuum formed within the already dysfunctional dual system of government. Civil administration had fallen to the hands of Penlop Ugyen Wangchuck, and in November 1907 he was unanimously elected hereditary monarch by an assembly of the leading members of the clergy, officials, and aristocratic families. His ascendency to the throne ended the traditional dual system of government in place for nearly 300 years.[6][8] The title Penlop of Trongsa – or Penlop of Chötse, another name for Trongsa – continued to be held by crown princes.[9]

As King of Bhutan, Ugyen Wangchuck secured the Treaty of Punakha (1910), under which Britain guaranteed Bhutan's independence, granted Bhutanese Royal Government a stipend, and took control of Bhutanese foreign relations. After becoming the first King of Bhutan, Ugyen Wangchuck further merited the British Delhi Durbar Gold Medal in 1911; the Knight Commander of the Order of the Star of India (KCSI) in 1911; and the Knight Grand Commander of the Order of the Indian Empire (GCIE) in 1921. The first Druk Gyalpo Ugyen Wangchuck died in 1926.

The reign of the Second King Jigme Wangchuck (1926–1952) was characterized by an increasingly powerful central government and the beginnings of infrastructure development. Bhutan also established its first diplomatic relations with India under the bilateral Treaty of Friendship, largely patterned after the prior Treaty of Punakha.[10]

The Third King Jigme Dorji Wangchuck (*r.* 1952–1972) ascended the throne at the age of 16, having been educated in England and India. During the reign of the Third King, Bhutan began further political and legal reforms and started to open to the outside world.[7] Notably, the Third King was responsible for establishing a unicameral National Assembly in 1953 and establishing relations with Indian Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru in 1958. Under Jigme Dorji Wangchuck, Bhutan also modernized its legal codes.[11]

Relations with the Dorji family

Further information: Dorji family

The powerful Dorji family, unlike the Wangchucks, do not have independent roots in legendary monks or historical

figures. In fact, the Dorji family was not among the elite families, but became prominent through their ties to the Wangchuck family and to the British.[12] Kazi Dorji had advised the future First King to mediate between the British and Tibet,[13]:35 and it was Kazi Dorji who was later responsible for the large-scale induction of Nepalis into Bhutan.[12] During the early years of the Dorji family's prominence, members of the family served as *gongzim* (chief chamberlain, the top government post),[10] and their official residence was at the palatial Bhutan House at Kalimpong. From Bhutan house, Raja Sonam Topgay Dorji ("Topgay Raja") held the post of Trade Agent to the Government of Bhtan, however he functioned to a large extent as prime minister, foreign minister, and ambassador to India. Through this position as a trade intermediary, the Dorji family amassed wealth reputedly greater than that of the royal family.[14] Topgay Raja himself married a Sikkimese princess.[14][15]



Padmasambhava with Nyingmapa masters Longchenpa and Jigme Lingpa; Jigme is an early Wangchuck forefather.

After two generations of growing influence, the sister of Prime Minister Jigme Dorji – the daughter of Topgay Raja – married the Third King, creating a new bond so prominent as to cause discontent among other Bhutanese families.[14][16] The public was divided between pro-modernist and pro-monarchist camps.[10]

Assassination of Jigme Dorji

In the early 1960s, the Third King fell ill and went to Switzerland for treatment. As the king was unavailable, Prime Minister Jigme Dorji sought to fill a leadership role, however this led to tensions with the military and monarchist factions.[13]:85 Namely, Dorji conflicted with the Royal Bhutan Army over the use of military vehicles, forced the retirement of some 50 military officers, and sought to limit the power of state-supported religious institutions such as the Dratshang Lhentshog and Je Khenpo.[10] On April 5, 1964, reformist Prime Minister Jigme Dorji was assassinated in Phuentsholing by monarchist cadres as the king lay ill in Switzerland. The Dorji family was subsequently put under close watch.[17]



Third Druk Gyalpo Jigme Dorji Wangchuck

The King's Tibetan mistress Yangki and her father, who had been implicated in the assassination, suspected that Jigme Dorji's son Lhendup would use the king's absence to exact revenge.[13]:36 They attempted to flee into India, but were detained at Gelephu. They eventually fled the country.[16] The King's own uncle and head of the Royal Bhutan Army, Namgyal Bahadur, was among those executed for their role in the attempted coup.[18]

The post of Prime Minister (Lonchen) was vacant, and the King identified Jigme Dorji's son Lhendup as the successor. Lhendup's mother, then head of the Dorji family, advised the King against giving any title to Lhendup because it would have made the situation more explosive. In 1964, however, the King announced his intention to appoint Lhendup as Lonchen. Lhendup fled to Nepal in 1965 due to political pressure, and was effectively exiled by the National Assembly.[13]:118 Today, remaining members of the Dorji family remain prominent in Bhutanese politics.[12]

Democratization under the Wangchucks

Main articles: Jigme Singye Wangchuck and Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck

The Third King died in 1972, and the Raven Crown passed to the 16-year-old Jigme Singye Wangchuck. The Fourth King was, like his father, educated in England and India, and had also attended Ugyen Wangchuck Academy in Paro. Reigning until 2008, the Fourth King was responsible for the development of the tourism industry, Gross National Happiness as a concept, and strides in democratization including the draft Constitution of Bhutan. The later years of his reign, however, also marked the departure of Bhutanese refugees in the 1990s amid the government's driglam namzha policy and citizenship laws that were overzealously enforced by some district officials. To the astonishment of the Bhutanese public, the Fourth King announced his abdication in 2005 and retired in 2008, handing the crown to his son Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck.[7]

Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck assumed the throne as the Fifth King in 2008 as the kingdom adopted its first democratic Constitution.

Genealogy

Below is an extended patrilineal genealogy of the House of Wangchuck through the present monarch.[19]

Name			Birth	Death	Reign start	Reign end
Romanization	**Wylie transliteration**	**Dzongkha**				
Sumthrang Chorji	Sum-phrang Chos-rje		1179	1265		
Zhigpo Tashi Sengye	Zhig-po bKra-shis Seng-ge		1237	1322		
Bajra Duepa	Bajra 'Dus-pa		1262	1296		
Depa Paljor	bDe-pa'i dPal-'byor		1291	1359		
Palden Sengye	dPal-den Seng-ge		1332	1384		
Tenpa Nyima[nb 1]	bsTan-pa'i Nyi-ma		1382			
Dongrub Zangpo	Don-grub bZang-po					
Pema Lingpa	Padma Gling-pa		1450	1521		
Khochun Chorji	mKho-chun Chos-rje		1505			
Ngawang	Ngag-dbang		1539			
Gyalba	rGyal-ba		1562			
Dungkar Choji[19][nb 2]	Dun-dkar Chos-rje		1578			
Tenpa Gyalchen	bsTan-pa'i rGyal-mchan		1598	1694		

Tenpa Nyima	bsTan-pa'i Nyi-ma		1623	1689		
Dadrag	Zla-grags		1641			
Tubzhong	gTub-zhong		1674			
Pema Rije	Padma Rig-rgyas (Pemarigyas)		1706	1763		
Rabje	Rab-rgyas (Rabgyas)		1733			
Pema	Padma					
Dasho Pila Gonpo Wangyal	Pi-la mGon-po rNam-rgyal		1782			
Dasho Jigme Namgyal	rJigs-med rNam-rgyal		1825	1881		
King Ugyen Wangchuck	O-rgyan dBang-phyug		1862	1926	*1907*	*1926*
King Jigme Wangchuck	'Jigs-med dBang-phyug		1905	1952	*1926*	*1952*
King Jigme Dorji[nb 3]Wangchuck	'Jigs-med rDo-rje dBang-phyug		1928	1972	*1952*	*1972*
King Jigme Singye Wangchuck	'Jigs-med Seng-ge dBang-phyug		1955	–	*1972*	*2006*
King Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck	'Jigs-med Khe-sar rNam-rGyal dBang-phyug		1980	–	*2006*	–

See also

- List of rulers of Bhutan
- History of Bhutan
- Politics of Bhutan
- Chhoetse Penlop

Notes

1. ^ Brother of Jamjeng Dragpa Oezer (Jam-dbyangs Grags-pa Od-zer) (1382-1442)
2. ^ Wangchuck forefathers may be referred to as of the Dungkar Choji family
3. ^ A member of the Dorji family through his mother

References

Cambodia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Cambodia (/kæm'boʊdiːʌ/;[5] Khmer: កម្ពុជា, Kampuchea, IPA: [kam'puciə]), officially known as the **Kingdom of Cambodia**, is a country located in the southern portion of the Indochina Peninsula in Southeast Asia. With a total landmass of 181,035 square kilometres (69,898 sq mi), it is bordered by Thailand to the northwest, Laos to the northeast, Vietnam to the east, and the Gulf of Thailand to the southwest.

With a population of over 14.8 million, Cambodia is the 69th most populous country in the world. The official religion is Theravada Buddhism which is practiced by around 95% of the Cambodian population. The country minority groups include Vietnamese, Chinese, Chams and 30 various hill tribes.[6] The capital and largest city is Phnom Penh; the political, economic, and cultural center of Cambodia.

The kingdom is a constitutional monarchy with Norodom Sihamoni, a monarch chosen by the Royal Throne Council, as head of state. The head of government is Hun Sen, who is currently the longest serving leader in South East Asia and has ruled Cambodia for over 25 years.

In 802 AD Jayavarman II declared himself king which marked the beginning of the Khmer Empire. Successive kings flourished which marked the Khmer empire's immense power and wealth who dominate much of South East Asia for over 600 years. Cambodia was ruled as a vassal between its neighbors, until it was colonized by the French in mid-19th century. Cambodia gained independence in 1953. The Vietnam War extended into Cambodia, giving rise to the Khmer Rouge, which took Phnom Penh in 1975. Cambodia reemerged several years later within a socialistic sphere of influence as the People's Republic of Kampuchea until 1993. After years of isolation, the war-ravaged nation was reunited under the monarchy in 1993.

Rebuilding from decades of civil war, Cambodia has seen rapid progress in the economic and human resource areas. The country has had one of the best economic records in Asia, with economic growth growing an average 6.0% for the last 10 years. Strong textiles, agriculture, construction, garments, and tourism sectors led to foreign investments and international trade.[7] In 2005, oil and natural gas deposits were found beneath Cambodia's territorial waters, and once commercial extraction begins in 2013, the oil revenues could

Kingdom of Cambodia
ព្រះរាជាណាចក្រកម្ពុជា
Preăh Réachéanachâk Kâmpŭchéa



Flag



Royal Arms

Motto:
ជាតិ សាសនា ព្រះមហាក្សត្រ។
Nation, Religion, King

Anthem:

Nokor Reach
Majestic Kingdom



Location of **Cambodia** (green)
in ASEAN (dark grey) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Phnom Penh 11°33′N 104°55′E
Official language(s)	Khmer
Official script	Khmer script
Ethnic groups	90.0% **Khmer** 5.0% Vietnamese 1.0% Chinese 4.0% other
Demonym	Khmer or Cambodian

profoundly affect Cambodia's economy.[8] However the majority of Cambodians are not beneficiaries of economic growth because wealth is spread very unevenly, as a result of the prevalence of massive government corruption. According to Transparency International Cambodia is the third most corrupt nation in Asia, ahead of only North Korea and Myanmar, and ranked 164 out of 182 in the world.[9]

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Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and Constitutional monarchy
- King	Norodom Sihamoni
- Prime Minister	Hun Sen (CPP)
- Senate President	Chea Sim (CPP)
- President of National Assembly	Heng Samrin (CPP)
Legislature	Parliament
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	National Assembly
Formation	
- Funan Kingdom	68
- Chenla Kingdom	550
- Khmer Empire	802
- French Colonization	1863
- Independence from France	November 9, 1953
- Monarchy Restored	September 24, 1993
Area	
- Total	181,035 km^2 (88th) 69,898 sq mi
- Water (%)	2.5
Population	
- 2011 estimate	14,805,358[1] (65th)
- 2008 census	13,388,910
- Density	81.8/km^2 (118th) 211.8/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$32.489 billion[2]
- Per capita	$2,470[2]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$13.001 billion[2]
- Per capita	$1,040[2]
Gini (2007)	43[3] (medium)
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.523[4] (medium) (139th)
Currency	Riel (KHR)
Time zone	(UTC+7)

Etymology

Main article: Name of Cambodia

Drives on the	right
ISO 3166 code	KH
Internet TLD	.kh
Calling code	+855

1 The US Dollar is often used

The official name of the country is the Kingdom of Cambodia, which is pronounced in Khmer as Preăh Réachéanachâk Kâmpŭchéa. Etymologically, its components are: *-Preah-* ("sacred") ; *-Reachea-* (from Sanskrit *raja*, meaning "king, royal, realm") ; *-ana-* (from Pāli *āṇā*, "authority, command, power", itself from Sanskrit *ājñā*, same meaning) *-chak* (from Sanskrit *chakra* meaning "wheel", a symbol of power and rule).

In the Khmer language, the country is named Kampuchea (Khmer: កម្ពុជា). Kampuchea is a derivation of the Sanskrit term *Kambojadeśa* (Sanskrit: कम्बोजदेश). The Khmer people will often refer to their country using the polite form *Prâteh Kampuchea* (Khmer: ប្រទេសកម្ពុជា) which literally means "the Country of Cambodia". Cambodians also most commonly use the more colloquial word "Srok Khmer" (Khmer: ស្រុកខ្មែរ) which translates to "the Land of Khmers".

The English name, "Cambodia" is derived from the French "Cambodge", a contraction of the Sanskrit name.

History

Main article: History of Cambodia

Pre-history

Main article: Early history of Cambodia



A gold-lotus bowl dating back to 1200AD.

There is some sparse evidence for a Pleistocene human occupation of present day Cambodia, which includes quartz and quartzite pebble tools found in terraces along the Mekong River, in Stung Treng and Kratié provinces, and in Kampot Province, although their dating is unreliable.[10]

Some slight archaeological evidence shows communities of hunter-gatherers inhabited Cambodia during Holocene: the most ancient Cambodian archeological site is considered to be the cave of *L'aang Spean*, in Battambang Province, which belongs to the so-called Hoabinhian period. Excavations in its lower layers produced a series of radiocarbon dates as of 6000 BC.[10][11]



Khmer army going to war against the Cham, from a relief on the Bayon

Upper layers in the same site gave evidence of transition to Neolithic, containing the earliest dated earthenware ceramics in Cambodia[12]

Archeological records for the period between Holocene and Iron Age remain equally limited. Other prehistoric sites of somewhat uncertain date are *Samrong Sen* (not far from the ancient capital of Udong), where the first investigations began in 1877,[13] and *Phum Snay*, in the northern province of Banteay Meanchey.[14] Prehistoric artifacts are often found during mining activities in Ratanakiri.[10]

The most outstanding prehistoric evidence in Cambodia however are probably various "circular earthworks", discovered in the red soils near Memot and in the adjacent region of Vietnam as of the end of the 1950s. Their function and age are still debated, but some of them possibly date from 2nd millennium BC at least.[15][16]

A pivotal event in Cambodian prehistory was the slow penetration of the first rice farmers from the north, which began in the late 3rd millennium BC.[17]

Iron was worked by about 500 BC, with supporting evidence coming from the Khorat Plateau, in modern day Thailand. In Cambodia, some Iron Age settlements were found beneath Angkorian temples, like Baksei Chamkrong. Others were circular earthworks, like *Lovea*, a few kilometers north-west of Angkor. Burials, much richer, testify to improvement of food availability and trade (even on long distances: in the 4th century BC trade relations with India were already opened) and the existence of a social structure and labor organization.[17]

Pre-Angkorian era and Angkorian era

Main article: Khmer Empire



Angkor Wat



Prasat Bayon

During the 3rd, 4th, and 5th centuries, the Indianised states of Funan and Chenla coalesced in present-day Cambodia and southwestern Vietnam. For more than 2,000 years, Cambodia absorbed influences from India, passing them on to other Southeast Asian civilizations that are now Thailand and Laos.[18] The Khmer Empire flourished in the area from the 9th to the 13th centuries.[19] Around the 13th century, Theravada Buddhism was introduced to the area through monks from Sri Lanka.[20] From then on, Theravada Buddhism grew and eventually became the popular religion.

The Khmer Empire was Southeast Asia's largest empire during the 12th century and it remained very powerful. The empire declined yet remained powerful in the region until the 15th century. The empire's centre of power was Angkor, where a series of capitals was constructed during the empire's zenith. In 2007 an international team of researchers using satellite photographs and other modern techniques concluded that Angkor had been the largest pre-industrial city in the world with an urban sprawl of 1,150 square miles.[21] The city could have supported a population of up to one million people[22] and Angkor Wat, the most famous and best-preserved religious temple at the site, are reminders of Cambodia's past as a major regional power. The design of the Angkor Wat was inspired by the beauty of the ancient princess of Cambodia, Mo Hy. Her visage is still engrained on the interior of the building next to her brother Mony.[23]

Dark ages of Cambodia

Main article: Dark ages of Cambodia

After a long series of wars with neighboring kingdoms, Angkor was sacked by the Ayutthaya Kingdom and abandoned in 1432 because of ecological failure and infrastructure breakdown.[24][25] This led to a period of economic, social, and cultural stagnation when the kingdom's internal affairs came increasingly under the control of its neighbors. By this time, the Khmer penchant for monument building had ceased. Older faiths such as Mahayana Buddhism and the Hindu cult of the god-king had been supplanted by Theravada Buddhism for good.



The ancient city of Longvek

The court moved the capital to Longvek where the kingdom sought to regain its glory through maritime trade. Portuguese and Spanish travelers described the city as a place of flourishing wealth and foreign trade. The attempt was short-lived however, as continued wars with the Ayutthaya and the Vietnamese resulted in the loss of more territory and Longvek being conquered in 1594. Not long after the conquer of Siamese, the wall of Longvek broke within three days after the order of King Naresuan the Great of Ayutthaya Kingdom. Shortly after, with the capturing of Longvek by the Siamese, the nation never fully recovered and was under colonization of Siam for long periods of time. During the next three centuries, the Khmer kingdom alternated as a vassal state of the Ayutthaya Kingdom and Vietnamese kings, as well as short-lived periods of relative independence.

A new Khmer capital was established at Udong south of Longvek, but its monarchs could survive only by entering into what amounted to vassal relationships with the Siamese and Vietnamese. A renewed struggle between Siam and Vietnam for control of Cambodia in the nineteenth century resulted in a period when Vietnamese officials attempted to force the Khmers to adopt Vietnamese customs. This led to several rebellions against the Vietnamese. The Siamese–Vietnamese War (1841–1845) ended with an agreement to place the country under joint suzerainty. This later led to the signing of a treaty for French Protection of Cambodia by King Norodom I.

French colonization



Map of French Indochina

In 1863 King Norodom, who had been installed by Thailand,[26] sought the protection of France from the Thai and Vietnamese after tensions grew between them. In 1867 the Thai king signed a treaty with France, renouncing suzerainty over Cambodia in exchange for the control of Battambang and Siem Reap provinces which officially became part of Thailand. The provinces were ceded back to Cambodia by a border treaty between France and Thailand in 1906.



King Norodom is credited for saving Cambodia from disappearing altogether

Cambodia continued as a protectorate of France from 1863 to 1953, administered as part of the colony of French Indochina, though occupied by the Japanese empire from 1941 to 1945.[27] Between 1874 and 1962, the total population increased from about 946,000 to 5.7 million.[28] After King Norodom's death in 1904, France manipulated the choice of king, and Sisowath, Norodom's brother, was placed on the throne. The throne became vacant in 1941 with the death of Monivong, Sisowath's son, and France passed over Monivong's son, Monireth, feeling he was too independently minded. Instead, Norodom Sihanouk, a maternal grand-son of king Sisowath was enthroned. The French thought young Sihanouk would be easy to control.[27] They were wrong, however, and under the reign of King Norodom Sihanouk, Cambodia gained independence from France on November 9, 1953.[27]

Independence and Vietnam War

Cambodia became a constitutional monarchy under King Norodom Sihanouk. When French Indochina was given independence, Cambodia lost official control over the Mekong Delta as it was awarded to Vietnam. [*citation needed*] The area had been controlled by the Vietnamese since 1698 with King Chey Chettha II granting Vietnamese permission to settle in the area decades before.[29]

In 1955, Sihanouk abdicated in favour of his father in order to participate in politics and was elected prime minister. Upon his father's death in 1960, Sihanouk again became head of state, taking the title of prince. As the Vietnam War progressed, Sihanouk adopted an official policy of neutrality in the Cold War, although he was widely considered to be sympathetic to the communist cause. Sihanouk allowed the Vietnamese communists to use Cambodia as a sanctuary and a supply route for their arms and other aid to their armed forces fighting in South Vietnam. This policy was perceived as humiliating by many Cambodians. In December 1967 Washington Post journalist Stanley Karnow was told by Sihanouk that if the US wanted to bomb the Vietnamese communist sanctuaries, he would not object, unless Cambodians were killed.[30] The same message was conveyed to US President Johnson's emissary Chester Bowles in January 1968.[31] So the US had no real motivation to overthrow Sihanouk. However members of the government and army, who resented Sihanouk's ruling style as well as his tilt away from the United States, did have such a motivation. While visiting Beijing in 1970 Sihanouk was ousted by a military coup led by Prime Minister General Lon Nol and Prince Sisowath Sirik Matak. There is no evidence of any US role in the coup. However once the coup was completed the new regime, which immediately demanded that the Vietnamese communists leave Cambodia, gained the political support of the United States. The North Vietnamese and Viet Cong forces, desperate to retain their sanctuaries and supply lines from North Vietnam, immediately launched armed attacks on the new government. The king urged his followers to help in overthrowing this government, hastening the onset of civil war,[32] Soon the Khmer Rouge rebels began using him to gain support. However from 1970 until early 1972 the Cambodian conflict was largely one between the government and army of Cambodia, and the armed forces of North Vietnam. As they gained control of Cambodian territory the Vietnamese communists imposed a new political infrastructure, which was eventually dominated by the Cambodian communists we now refer to as the Khmer Rouge.[33] So the Vietnamese communists played a vital role in the rise of the Khmer Rouge.



Norodom Sihanouk and Mao Tse-Tung in 1956

Between 1969 and 1973, Republic of Vietnam forces and U.S. forces bombed and briefly invaded Cambodia in an effort to disrupt the Viet Cong and Khmer Rouge.[34] Some two million Cambodians were made refugees by the war and by the terrorist policies of the Khmer Rouge, and fled to Phnom Penh. Estimates of the number of Cambodians killed during the bombing campaigns vary widely, as do views of the effects of the bombing. The U.S. Seventh Air Force argued that the bombing prevented the fall of Phnom Penh in 1973 by killing 16,000 of 25,500 Khmer Rouge fighters besieging the city.[35] However, journalist William Shawcross and Cambodia specialists Milton Osborne, David P. Chandler and Ben Kiernan argued that the bombing drove peasants to join the Khmer Rouge.[36] Cambodia specialist Craig Etcheson argued that the Khmer Rouge "would have won anyway", even without U.S. intervention driving recruitment.[37]

While president, Bill Clinton released extensive Air Force data on all American bombings of Indochina between 1964 and 1975. Regarding Cambodia in particular, it emerged that

> [F]rom October 4, 1965, to August 15, 1973, the United States dropped far more ordnance on

> Cambodia than was previously believed: 2,756,941 tons' worth, dropped in 230,516 sorties on 113,716 sites. Just over 10 percent of this bombing was indiscriminate, with 3,580 of the sites listed as having "unknown" targets and another 8,238 sites having no target listed at all. . . . [T]he total payload dropped during these years to be nearly five times greater than the generally accepted figure. To put the revised total of 2,756,941 tons into perspective, the Allies dropped just over 2 million tons of bombs during all of World War II, including the bombs that struck Hiroshima and Nagasaki: 15,000 and 20,000 tons, respectively. Cambodia may well be the most heavily bombed country in history. . . . [T]he bombing forced the Vietnamese Communists deeper and deeper into Cambodia, bringing them into greater contact with Khmer Rouge insurgents . . . [and] drove ordinary Cambodians into the arms of the Khmer Rouge, a group that seemed initially to have slim prospects of revolutionary success.[38]

Nixon had commanded that, "They [the USAF] have got to go in there and I mean really go in . . . I want everything that can fly to go in there and crack the hell out of them. There is no limitation on mileage and there is no limitation on budget. Is that clear?"[38] Taylor Owen (http://taylorowen.com/?page_id=5) and Yale's Ben Kiernan claim that, "Previously, it was estimated that between 50,000 and 150,000 Cambodian civilians were killed by the bombing. Given the fivefold increase in tonnage revealed by the database, the number of casualties is surely higher."[38]

Khmer Rouge regime

Main articles: Democratic Kampuchea and Khmer Rouge

As the Vietnam War ended, a draft USAID report observed that the country faced famine in 1975, with 75% of its draft animals destroyed, and that rice planting for the next harvest would have to be done "by the hard labour of seriously malnourished people". The report predicted that

> *"Without large-scale external food and equipment assistance there will be widespread starvation between now and next February ... Slave labour and starvation rations for half the nation's people (probably heaviest among those who supported the republic) will be a cruel necessity for this year, and general deprivation and suffering will stretch over the next two or three years before Cambodia can get back to rice self-sufficiency".*[39]



Flag of the Khmer Rouge and Democratic Kampuchea

The Khmer Rouge reached Phnom Penh and took power in 1975. The regime, led by Pol Pot, changed the official name of the country to Democratic Kampuchea. The regime modelled itself on Maoist China during the Great Leap Forward. The regime immediately evacuated the cities and sent the entire population on forced marches to rural work projects. They attempted to rebuild the country's agriculture on the model of the 11th century, discarded Western medicine, and destroyed temples, libraries, and anything considered Western. At least a million Cambodians, out of a total population of 8 million, died from executions, overwork, starvation and disease.[40]

Estimates as to how many people were killed by the Khmer Rouge regime range from approximately one to three million; the most commonly cited figure is two million (about one-third of the population).[41][42] This era gave rise to the term Killing Fields, and the prison Tuol Sleng became notorious for its history of mass killing. Hundreds of thousands fled across the border into neighbouring Thailand. The regime disproportionately targeted ethnic minority groups. The Cham Muslims suffered serious purges with as much as half of their population exterminated.[43]

In the late 1960s, an estimated 425,000 ethnic Chinese lived in Cambodia, but by 1984, due to Khmer Rouge killings and to emigration, only about 61,400 Chinese remained in the country.[44] Forced repatriation in 1970 and deaths during the Khmer Rouge era reduced the Vietnamese population in Cambodia from between 250,000 and 300,000 in 1969 to a reported 56,000 in 1984.[28] However most of the victims of the Khmer Rouge regime were not ethnic minorities but ethnic Khmer. Professionals, such as doctors, lawyers and teachers, were also targeted. According to Robert D. Kaplan, "eyeglasses were as deadly as the yellow star" as they were seen as a sign of intellectualism.[40]

End of Khmer Rouge and transition

Main article: Modern Cambodia

In November 1978, Vietnamese troops invaded Cambodia in response to border raids by the Khmer Rouge.[45] The People's Republic of Kampuchea (PRK), a Pro-Soviet state led by the Kampuchean People's Revolutionary Party, a party created by the Vietnamese in 1951, and led by a group of Khmer Rouge who had fled Cambodia to avoid being purged by Pol Pot and Ta Mok, was established.[46] It was fully beholden to the occupying Vietnamese army and under direction of the Vietnamese ambassador to Phnom Penh. Its arms came from Vietnam and the Soviet Union. In opposition to the newly-created state, a government-in-exile referred to as the Coalition Government of Democratic Kampuchea (CGDK) was formed in 1981 from three factions. This consisted of the Khmer Rouge, a royalist faction led by Sihanouk, and the Khmer People's National Liberation Front. Its credentials were recognized by the United Nations. The Khmer Rouge representative to the UN, Thiounn Prasith, was retained, but he had to work in consultation with representatives of the noncommunist Cambodian parties.[47][48]



Stupa which houses the skulls of those killed by the Khmer Rouge at Choeung Ek

Throughout the 1980s the CGDK, supplied by China, Thailand, the United States[49] and the United Kingdom[50][51] controlled parts of the country and attacked some of the territory not under their dominance. The refusal of Vietnam to withdraw from Cambodia led to economic sanctions[52] by the U.S. and its allies, made reconstruction virtually impossible and left the country deeply impoverished.

Peace efforts began in Paris in 1989 under the State of Cambodia, culminating two years later in October 1991 in a comprehensive peace settlement. The UN was given a mandate to enforce a ceasefire and deal with refugees and disarmament known as the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC).[53]

In 1993, Norodom Sihanouk was restored as King of Cambodia, but all power was in the hands of the government established after the UNTAC sponsored elections. The stability established following the conflict was shaken in 1997 by a coup d'état led by the co-Prime Minister Hun Sen against the noncommunist parties in the government.[54]. Many of the noncommunist politicians were murdered by Hun Sen's forces. In recent years, reconstruction efforts have progressed and led to some political stability through political repression of a multiparty democracy under a constitutional monarchy.[55] In July 2010 Kang Kek Iew was the first Khmer Rouge member found guilty of war crimes and crimes against humanity in his role as the former commandant of the S21 extermination camp. He was sentenced to life in prison.[56][57]. However Hun Sen has opposed any extensive trials of former Khmer Rouge mass murderers.[58] He says that this is because he wishes to avoid political instability. However it is more likely because of the prevalence of former Khmer Rouge at the highest levels of Cambodia's national and local government structures.[*citation needed*]

Politics

Main articles: Politics of Cambodia and List of political parties in Cambodia

Government



Independence Monument: built to commemorate Cambodia's independence from France on November 9, 1953.

National politics in Cambodia take place within the framework of the nation's constitution of 1993. The government is a constitutional monarchy operated as a parliamentary representative democracy. The Prime Minister of Cambodia, an office held by Hun Sen since 1985, is the head of government, while the King of Cambodia (currently Norodom Sihamoni) is the head of state. The prime minister is appointed by the king, on the advice and with the approval of the National Assembly



King Norodom Sihamoni during the 2008 Royal Ploughing Ceremony

The prime minister and the ministerial appointees exercise executive power while legislative powers are shared by the executive and the bicameral Parliament of Cambodia, which consists of a lower house, the National Assembly or *Radhsphea* and an upper house, the Senate or *Sénat*. Members of the 123-seat Assembly are elected through a system of proportional representation and serve for a maximum term of five years. The Senate has 61 seats, two of which are appointed by the king and two others by the National Assembly. Senators serve five year terms.

On October 14, 2004, King Norodom Sihamoni was selected by a special nine-member throne council, part of a selection process that was quickly put in place after the abdication of King Norodom Sihanouk a week prior. Sihamoni's selection was endorsed by Prime Minister Hun Sen and National Assembly Speaker Prince Norodom Ranariddh (the king's half brother and current chief advisor), both members of the throne council. He was enthroned in Phnom Penh on October 29, 2004.

The Cambodian People's Party (CPP) is the major ruling party in Cambodia. The CPP controls the lower and upper chambers of parliament, with 73 seats in the National Assembly and 43 seats in the Senate. The opposition Sam Rainsy Party is the second largest party in Cambodia with 26 seats in the National Assembly and 2 in the Senate.

Military

Main article: Royal Cambodian Armed Forces

The Royal Cambodian Army, Royal Cambodian Navy, Royal Cambodian Air Force and Royal Gendarmerie collectively form the Royal Cambodian Armed Forces, under the command of the Ministry of National Defense, presided over by the Prime Minister of Cambodia. His Majesty King Norodom Sihamoni is the Supreme Commander of the Royal Cambodian Armed Forces (RCAF), and the country's Prime Minister Hun Sen effectively holds the position of commander-in-chief.



Royal Cambodian Navy officers observe flight quarters during the Cambodia-US Maritime Exercise 2011.

The introduction of a revised command structure early in 2000 was a key prelude to the reorganisation of the Cambodian military. This saw the defence ministry form three subordinate general departments responsible for logistics and finance, materials and technical services, and defence services under the High Command Headquarters (HCHQ).

The minister of National Defence is General Tea Banh. Banh has served as defence minister since 1979. The Secretaries of State for Defence are Chay Saing Yun and Por Bun Sreu. The new Commander-in-Chief of the RCAF and was replaced by his deputy General Pol Saroeun, who is a long time loyalist of Prime Minister Hun Sen. The Army Commander is General Meas Sophea and the Army Chief of Staff is Chea Saran.

In 2010, the Royal Cambodian Armed Forces comprised about 210,000 personnel. Total Cambodian military spending stands at 3% of national GDP. The Royal Gendarmerie of Cambodia total more than 7,000 personnel. Its civil duties include providing security and public peace, to investigate and prevent organized crime, terrorism and other violent groups; to protect state and private property; to help and assist civilians and other emergency forces in a case of emergency, natural disaster, civil unrest and armed conflicts.

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Cambodia

The foreign relations of Cambodia are handled by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs under H.E. Hor Namhong.



Ambassador Thay Vanna presents his credentials to Russian President Dmitry Medvedev on October 18, 2010.

Cambodia is a member of the United Nations, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. It is a member of the Asian Development Bank (ADB), ASEAN, and joined the WTO on October 13, 2004. In 2005 Cambodia attended the inaugural East Asia Summit in Malaysia. On November 23, 2009, Cambodia reinstated the membership to the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) (http://www.iaea.org/) . Cambodia first became a member of IAEA on February 6, 1958 but withdrew its membership on March 26, 2003.[59]

Cambodia has established diplomatic relations with numerous countries; the government reports twenty embassies in the country[60] including many of its Asian neighbours and those of important players during the Paris peace negotiations, including the US, Australia, Canada, China, the European Union (EU), Japan, and Russia.[61] As a result of its international relations, various charitable organizations have assisted with social, economical, and civil infrastructure needs.



Prime Minister Hun Sen with Nguyen Tan Dung of Vietnam



U.S. Secretary of State Hillary Clinton meets with Foreign Minister Hor Namhong in New York City on September 28, 2009

In recent years, bilateral relations between the United States and Cambodia have strengthened. The U.S. supports efforts in Cambodia to combat terrorism, build democratic institutions, promote human rights, foster economic development, eliminate corruption, achieve the fullest possible accounting for Americans missing from the Vietnam War-era, and to bring to justice those most responsible for serious violations of international humanitarian law committed under the Khmer Rouge regime. China's geopolitical interest in Cambodia changed significantly with the end of the Cold War. It retains considerable influence, including close links with former King Norodom Sihanouk, senior members of Cambodian Government, and the ethnic Chinese community in Cambodia. There are regular high level exchanges between the two countries. Japan has been a vital contributor to Cambodia's rehabilitation and reconstruction since the high-profile UN Transitional Authority (UNTAC) mission and elections in 1993. Japan provided some US$1.2 billion in total overseas development assistance (ODA) during the period since 1992 and remains Cambodia's top donor country.

While the violent ruptures of the 1970s and 80s have passed, several border disputes between Cambodia and its neighbours persist. There are disagreements over some offshore islands and sections of the boundary with Vietnam and undefined maritime boundaries and border areas with Thailand. Both Cambodian and Thai troops have clashed over land immediately adjacent to the Preah Vihear temple, leading to a deterioration in relations. The International Court of Justice in 1962 awarded the temple to Cambodia but was unclear regarding some of the surrounding land. Both countries blamed the other for firing first and denied entering the other's territory.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Cambodia



Dângrêk Mountains in Northern Cambodia

Cambodia has an area of 181,035 square kilometers (69,898 sq mi) and lies entirely within the tropics, between latitudes 10° and 15°N, and longitudes 102° and 108°E. It borders Thailand to the north and west, Laos to the northeast, and Vietnam to the east and southeast. It has a 443-kilometer (275 mi) coastline along the Gulf of Thailand.

Cambodia's landscape is characterized by a low-lying central plain that is surrounded by uplands and low mountains and includes the Tonle Sap (Great Lake) and the upper reaches of the Mekong River delta. Extending outward from this central region are transitional plains, thinly forested and rising to elevations of about 650 feet (200 metres) above sea level. To the north the Cambodian plain abuts a sandstone escarpment, which forms a southward-facing cliff stretching more than 200 miles (320 km) from west to east and rising abruptly above the plain to heights of 600 to 1,800 feet (180 to 550 metres). This escarpment marks the southern limit of the Dângrêk Mountains.

Flowing south through the country's eastern regions is the Mekong River. East of the Mekong the transitional plains gradually merge with the eastern highlands, a region of forested mountains and high plateaus that extend into Laos and Vietnam. In southwestern Cambodia two distinct upland blocks, the Krâvanh Mountains and the Dâmrei Mountains, form another highland region that covers much of the land area between the Tonle Sap and the Gulf of Thailand. In this remote and largely uninhabited area, Phnom Aural, Cambodia's highest peak, rises to an elevation of 5,949 feet (1,813 metres). The southern coastal region adjoining the Gulf of Thailand is a narrow lowland strip, heavily wooded and sparsely populated, which is isolated from the central plain by the southwestern highlands.

The most distinctive geographical feature is the inundations of the Tonle Sap (Great Lake), measuring about

2,590 square kilometers (1,000 sq mi) during the dry season and expanding to about 24,605 square kilometers (9,500 sq mi) during the rainy season. This densely populated plain, which is devoted to wet rice cultivation, is the heartland of Cambodia. Much of this area has been designated as a biosphere reserve.

Climate

Main article: Climate of Cambodia


Sun Bear

Cambodia's climate, like that of the rest of Southeast Asia, is dominated by monsoons, which are known as tropical wet and dry because of the distinctly marked seasonal differences.

Cambodia has a temperature range from 21 to 35 °C (69.8 to 95 °F) and experiences tropical monsoons. Southwest monsoons blow inland bringing moisture-laden winds from the Gulf of Thailand and Indian Ocean from May to October. The northeast monsoon ushers in the dry season, which lasts from November to March. The country experiences the heaviest precipitation from September to October with the driest period occurring from January to February.

Cambodia has two distinct seasons. The rainy season, which runs from May to October, can see temperatures drop to 22 °C (71.6 °F) and is generally accompanied with high humidity. The dry season lasts from November to April when temperatures can rise up to 40 °C (104 °F) around April. Disastrous flooding occurred in 2001 and again in 2002, with some degree of flooding almost every year.

Wildlife

Main article: Wildlife of Cambodia


Sarus Crane

Cambodia has a wide variety of plants and animals. There are 212 mammal species, 536 bird species, 240 reptile species, 850 freshwater fish species (Tonle Sap Lake area), and 435 marine fish species. Much of this biodiversity is contained around the Tonle Sap Lake and the surrounding biosphere.[62] The Tonle Sap Biosphere Reserve is a unique ecological phenomenon surrounding the Tonle Sap. It encompasses the lake and nine provinces: Kampong Thom, Siem Reap, Battambang, Pursat, Kampong Chhnang, Banteay Meanchey, Pailin, Oddar Meanchey and Preah Vihear. In 1997, it was successfully nominated as a UNESCO Biosphere Reserve.[63] Other key habitats include the dry forest of Mondolkiri and Ratanakiri provinces and the Cardamom Mountains ecosystem, including Bokor National Park, Botum-Sakor National Park, and the Phnom Aural and Phnom Samkos wildlife sanctuaries.

The rate of deforestation in Cambodia is one of the highest in the world. Cambodia's primary rainforest cover fell from over 70% in 1969 to just 3.1% in 2007. In total, Cambodia lost 25,000 square kilometres (9,700 sq mi) of forest between 1990 and 2005—3,340 km^2 (1,290 sq mi) of which was primary forest. Since 2007, less than 3,220 km^2 (1,243 sq mi) of primary forest remain with the result that the future sustainability of the forest reserves of Cambodia is under severe threat, with illegal loggers looking to generate revenue.[64]

Administrative divisions

Main article: Administrative divisions of Cambodia

The capital (*reach thani*) and provinces (*khaet*) of Cambodia are first-level administrative divisions. Cambodia is divided into 24 provinces including the capital.

Municipalities and districts are the second-level administrative divisions of Cambodia. The provinces are subdivided into 159 districts and 26 municipalities. The districts and municipalities in turn are further divided into communes (*khum*) and quarters (*sangkat*).



Number	Province	Capital	Area (km²)	Population
1	Banteay Meanchey	Sisophon	6,679	678,033
2	Battambang	Battambang	11,702	1,036,523
3	Kampong Cham	Kampong Cham	9,799	1,680,694
4	Kampong Chhnang	Kampong Chhnang	5,521	472,616
5	Kampong Speu	Kampong Speu	7,017	716,517
6	Kampong Thom	Kampong Thom	13,814	708,398
7	Kampot	Kampot	4,873	585,110
8	Kandal	Ta Khmao	3,568	1,265,805
9	Kep	Krong Kep	336	40,208
10	Koh Kong	Koh Kong	11,160	139,722
11	Kratié	Kratié	11,094	318,523

Number	Province	Capital	Area (km²)	Population
12	Mondulkiri	Senmonorom	14,288	60,811
13	Oddar Meanchey	Samraong	6,158	185,443
14	Pailin	Pailin	803	70,482
15	Phnom Penh	Phnom Penh	758	2,234,566
16	Preah Sihanouk	Sihanoukville	868	199,902
17	Preah Vihear	Tbeng Meanchey	13,788	170,852
18	Pursat	Pursat	12,692	397,107
19	Prey Veng	Prey Veng	4,883	947,357
20	Ratanakiri	Banlung	10,782	149,997
21	Siem Reap	Siem Reap	10,229	896,309
22	Stung Treng	Stung Treng	11,092	111,734
23	Svay Rieng	Svay Rieng	2,966	482,785
24	Takéo	Takéo	3,563	843,931

Economy

Main articles: Economy of Cambodia and Cambodia Securities Exchange

In 2010 Cambodia's per capita income in PPP is $2,470 and $1,040 in nominal per capita. Cambodia's per capita income is rapidly increasing but is low compared to other countries in the region. Most rural households depend on agriculture and its related sub-sectors. Rice, fish, timber, garments and rubber are Cambodia's major exports. The International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) reintroduced more than 750 traditional rice varieties to Cambodia from its rice seed bank in the Philippines.[65] These varieties had been collected in the 1960s.



OCIC Tower, the first skyscraper in Cambodia

Based on the Economist, IMF: Annual average GDP growth for the period 2001–2010 was 7.7% making it one of the world's top ten countries with the highest annual average GDP growth. Tourism was Cambodia's fastest growing industry, with arrivals increasing from 219,000 in 1997 to 2 million in 2007. In 2004, inflation was at 1.7% and exports at $1.6 billion US$.

China is Cambodia's biggest source of foreign direct investment in the kingdom. China plans to spend $8 billion in 360 projects in the first seven months of 2011. It is also the largest source of foreign aid, providing about $600 million in 2007 and $260 million in 2008.



Rice cropping plays an important

The older population often lacks education, particularly in the countryside, which suffers from a lack of basic infrastructure. Fear of renewed political instability and corruption within the government discourage foreign investment and delay foreign aid, although there has been significant aid from bilateral and multilateral donors. Donors pledged $504 million to the country in 2004,[66] while the Asian Development Bank alone has provided

$850 million in loans, grants, and technical assistance.[67]

role in the economy

Tourism

The tourism industry is the country's second-greatest source of hard currency after the textile industry.[53] Between January and December 2007, visitor arrivals were 2.0 million, an increase of 18.5% over the same period in 2006. Most visitors (51%) arrived through Siem Reap with the remainder (49%) through Phnom Penh and other destinations.[68] Other tourist destinations include Sihanoukville in the south east which has several popular beach resorts and the area around Kampot and Kep including the Bokor Hill Station. Tourism has increased steadily each year in the relatively stable period since the 1993 UNTAC elections; in 1993 there were 118,183 international tourists, and in 2009 there were 2,161,577 international tourists.[69]

Most of the tourists were Japanese, Chinese, Americans, South Koreans and French people, said the report, adding that the industry earned some 1,400 million U.S. dollars in 2007, accounting for almost ten percent of the kingdom's gross national products.[70] Chinese-language newspaper Jianhua Daily quoted industry official as saying that Cambodia will have three million foreign tourist arrival in 2010 and five million in 2015. Tourism has been one of Cambodia's triple pillar industries. The Angkor Wat historical park in Siem Reap province, the beaches in Sihanoukville and the capital city Phnom Penh are the main attractions for foreign tourists.[71]



View of Angkor Wat in Siem Reap. Today Angkor Wat is Cambodia's main tourist attraction and is visited by many tourists from around the world.



Rice paddies in Kampong Thom.

Demographics

Chinese in Cambodia

Linguistic Group	percent
Teochew	60%
Cantonese	20%
Hokkien	7%
Hainanese	4%

Main articles: Demographics of Cambodia, Ethnic groups in Cambodia, and Religion in Cambodia

As of 2010, Cambodia has an estimated population of 14,805,358 people. Ninety percent of Cambodia's population is of Khmer origin and speak the Khmer

Hakka		4%
Other groups		5%

language, the country's official language. Cambodia's population is relatively homogeneous. Its minority groups include Vietnamese (2,200,000), Chinese (1,180,000), Cham (317,000), and Khmer Loeu (550,000).[72] The country's birth rate is 25.4 per 1,000. Its population growth rate is 1.70%, significantly higher than those of Thailand, South Korea, and India.[73]



Buddhism is the major religion in Cambodia

The Khmer language is a member of the Mon–Khmer subfamily of the Austroasiatic language group. French, once the language of government in Indochina, is still spoken by many older Cambodians. French is also the language of instruction in some schools and universities that are funded by the government of France. Cambodian French, a remnant of the country's colonial past, is a dialect found in Cambodia and is sometimes used in government, particularly in court.[74]

In recent decades, many younger Cambodians and those in the business-class have favoured learning English. In the major cities and tourist centers, English is widely spoken and taught at a large number of schools because of the overwhelming number of tourists from English-speaking countries. Even in the most rural outposts, most young people speak at least some English, as it is often taught by monks at the local pagodas where many children are educated.

The civil war and its aftermath have markedly affected the Cambodian population; 50% of the population is younger than 22 years old. At a 1.04 female to male ratio, Cambodia has the most female-biased sex ratio in the Greater Mekong Subregion.[75] In the Cambodian population over 65, the female to male ratio is 1.6:1.[66]

Urbanization

Religion

Theravada Buddhism is the official religion of Cambodia, which is practiced by more than 95 percent of the population. The Theravada Buddhist tradition is widespread and strong in all provinces, with an estimated 4,392 monastery temples throughout the country.[76] The vast majority of ethnic Khmers are Buddhist, and there are close associations between Buddhism, cultural traditions, and daily life. Adherence to Buddhism generally is considered intrinsic to the country's ethnic and cultural identity. Religion in Cambodia, including Buddhism, was suppressed by the Khmer Rouge during the late 1970s but has since experienced a revival.

Islam is the religion of the majority of the Chams and Malay minorities in Cambodia. The majority of Muslims are Sunnis of the Shafi'i school and are highly populated in Kampong Cham Province. Currently there are more than 300,000 Muslims in the country.

One percent of Cambodians are identified as being Christian; of this, Catholics make up the largest group followed by Protestants. There are currently 20,000 Catholics in Cambodia which represents only 0.15% of the total population. Other Christian denominations include Baptists, The Christian and Missionary Alliance, Methodists, Jehovah's Witnesses, and The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints.[77]

Mahayana Buddhism is the religion of the majority of Chinese and Vietnamese in Cambodia. Elements of other religious practices, such as the veneration of folk heroes and ancestors, Confucianism, and Taoism mix with Chinese Buddhism are also practiced.



Buddhist Trinity in the Bayon style from the 13th century.

Education

Main article: Education in Cambodia

Religion in Cambodia

Religion	percent
Buddhism	96.4%
Islam	2.1%
Christianity	1.3%
Others	0.3%

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports is responsible for establishing national policies and guidelines for education in Cambodia. The Cambodian education system is heavily decentralised, with three levels of government, central, provincial and district – responsible for its management. The constitution of Cambodia promulgates free compulsory education for nine years, guaranteeing the universal right to basic quality education.

In 2004 it was estimated that 73.6% of the population was literate (84.7% of males and 64.1% of females).[78] Male youth age (15–24 years) have a literacy rate of 89% compared to 86% for females.[79]

The education system in Cambodia continues to face many challenges, but during the past years there have been significant improvements, especially in terms of primary net enrollment gains, the introduction of program based-budgeting, and the development of a policy framework which helps disadvantaged children to gain access to education.[80] Many of Cambodia's most acclaimed universities are based in Phnom Penh.



Stupa of King Ang Duong (1796–1860) in Udong.

Traditionally, education in Cambodia was offered by the wats (Buddhist temples), thus providing education exclusively for the male population[81] During the Khmer Rouge regime, education suffered significant setbacks.

Health

Main article: Health in Cambodia

The quality of health in Cambodia is rising. As of 2010, the life expectancy is 60 years for males and 65 years for females, a major improvement since 1999 when the average life expectancy was 49.8 and 46.8 respectively.[82] The Royal Cambodian Government plans to increase the quality of healthcare in the country by raising awareness of HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases. Government spending on health care corresponded to 5.8% of Cambodia's gross domestic product (GDP).

Cambodia's infant mortality rate has decreased from 115 per 1,000 live births in 1993 to 54 in 2009. In the same period, the under-five mortality rate decreased from 181 to 115 per 1,000 live births.[83] In the province with worst health indicators, Ratanakiri, 22.9% of children die before age five.[84]

UNICEF has designated Cambodia the third most landmined country in the world,[85] attributing over 60,000 civilian deaths and thousands more maimed or injured since 1970 because of the unexploded land mines left behind in rural areas.[86] The majority of the victims are children herding animals or playing in the fields.[85] Adults that survive landmines often require amputation of one or more limbs and have to resort to begging for

survival.[86] However, the number of landmine casualties has sharply decreased, from 800 in 2005 to less than 400 in 2006 and 208 in 2007 (38 killed and 170 injured).[87]

Culture

Main articles: Culture of Cambodia and Sport in Cambodia



The Royal Ballet of Cambodia in Paris, France 2010



Chhim Sothy's painting "Please let there be peace"

Various factors contribute to the Cambodian culture including Theravada Buddhism, Hinduism, French colonialism, Angkorian culture, and modern globalization. The Cambodian Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts is responsible for promoting and developing Cambodian culture. Cambodian culture not only includes the culture of the lowland ethnic majority, but also some 20 culturally distinct hill tribes colloquially known as the Khmer Loeu, a term coined by Norodom Sihanouk to encourage unity between the highlanders and lowlanders. Rural Cambodians wear a krama scarf which is a unique aspect of Cambodian clothing. The sampeah is a traditional Cambodian greeting or a way of showing respect to others. Khmer culture, as developed and spread by the Khmer empire, has distinctive styles of dance, architecture and sculpture, which have been exchanged with neighbouring Laos and Thailand through the history. Angkor Wat (*Angkor* means "city" and *Wat* "temple") is the best preserved example of Khmer architecture from the Angkorian era along with hundreds of other temples that have been discovered in and around the region.

Traditionally, the Khmer people have a unique method of recording information on Tra leaves. Tra leaf books record legends of the Khmer people, the Ramayana, the origin of Buddhism and other prayer book series. They are greatly taken care of and wrapped in cloth to protect from moisture and the climate.[88]

Bon Om Teuk (Festival of Boat Racing), the annual boat rowing contest, is the most attended Cambodian national festival. Held at the end of the rainy season when the Mekong river begins to sink back to its normal levels allowing the Tonle Sap River to reverse flow, approximately 10% of Cambodia's population attends this event each year to play games, give thanks to the moon, watch fireworks, dine, and attend the boat race in a carnival-type atmosphere.[89] Popular games include cockfighting, soccer, and kicking a *sey*, which is similar to a footbag. Based on the classical Indian solar calendar and Theravada Buddhism, the Cambodian New Year is a major holiday that takes place in April. Recent artistic figures include singers Sinn Sisamouth and Ros Sereysothea (and later Meng Keo Pichenda), who introduced new musical styles to the country.

Cuisine

Rice is the staple grain, as in other Southeast Asian countries. Fish from the Mekong and Tonle Sap rivers is also an important part of the diet. The supply of fish and fish products for food and trade in 2000 was 20 kilograms per person or 2 ounces per day per person.[90] Some of the fish can be made into prahok for longer storage. The cuisine of Cambodia contains tropical fruits, soups and noodles. Key ingredients are kaffir lime, lemon grass,

garlic, fish sauce, soy sauce, curry, tamarind, ginger, oyster sauce, coconut milk and black pepper. Some delicacies are(□□□□□□□□) (Num Bunhjok), (□□□□□□□□) (Amok), (□□□□□□) (Ah Ping).


Amok, a popular Khmer dish

French influence on Cambodian cuisine includes the Cambodian red curry with toasted baguette bread. The toasted baguette pieces are dipped in the curry and eaten. Cambodian red curry is also eaten with rice and rice vermicelli noodles. Probably the most popular dine out dish, ka tieu, is a *pork broth* rice noodle soup with fried garlic, scallions, green onions that may also contain various toppings such as beef balls, shrimp, pork liver or lettuce. The cuisine is relatively unknown to the world compared to that of its neighbours Thailand and Vietnam.

Sports

Football is one of the more popular sports, although professional organized sports are not as prevalent in Cambodia as in western countries because of the economic conditions. Football was brought to Cambodia by the French and became popular with the locals.[91] The Cambodia national football team managed fourth in the 1972 Asian Cup, but development has slowed since the civil war. Western sports such as volleyball, bodybuilding, field hockey, rugby union, golf, and baseball are gaining popularity. Native sports include traditional boat racing, buffalo racing, Pradal Serey, Khmer traditional wrestling and Bokator. Cambodia first participated in the Olympics during the 1956 Summer Olympic Games sending equestrian riders. Cambodia also hosted the GANEFO Games, the alternative to the Olympics, in the 1960s.


The 19th century illustration tale of Vorvong & Sorvong.



Sinn Sisamouth

Dance

Main article: Dance in Cambodia

Cambodian dance can be divided into three main categories: Khmer classical dance, folk dance, and social dances.

Music

Main article: Music of Cambodia

Traditional Cambodian music dates back as far as the Khmer Empire. Royal dances like the Apsara Dance are icons of the Cambodian culture. Popular types of dances are Romvong, commonly danced at festivals. The Classic Music Era of Cambodia was during the 1960s to the 1970s featuring notable singers Sinn Sisamouth and Ros Sereysothea. However, during the Khmer Rouge Revolution many classic and popular singers of the 60s and 70s died of execution, starvation, or overwork[*citation needed*].

Internet

As Cambodia continues to grow, so does its connection to the world. There are numerous places where internet is available for public use, such as coffee shops, bars, restaurants and petrol stations. Through the use of USB

modems and internet capabilities on cell phones, many Cambodians are connecting with the outside world.

The Internet connection in both metropolitan and rural areas of Cambodia is still quite expensive when compared to developed countries such as the US or Australia. A basic connection of 512 kbit/s can cost upwards of $100 per month with line and modem rental.[92] These connections are considered as "premium" in Cambodia but would be considered as out of date in more technologically advanced countries.

The increased connection to the internet has created the desire for more websites focused on Cambodia. Because of the literacy rate in Cambodia, the issue arises of whether Cambodia-focused sites need to be in English or Khmer. English is the predominant language of the internet, and the majority of internet users in Cambodia are able to understand English, but with the use of Khmer Unicode more sites have the capability to provide Khmer language versions.

Transport

Main article: Transport in Cambodia


National Highway 4

The civil war and neglect severely damaged Cambodia's transport system, but with assistance and equipment from other countries Cambodia has been upgrading the main highways to international standards and most are vastly improved from 2006. Most main roads are now paved.


Siem Reap International Airport

Cambodia has two rail lines, totalling about 612 kilometers (380 mi) of single, one meter gauge track.[93] The lines run from the capital to Sihanoukville on the southern coast, and from Phnom Penh to Sisophon (although trains often run only as far as Battambang). Currently only one passenger train per week operates between Phnom Penh and Battambang.

Besides the main interprovincial traffic artery connecting Phnom Penh with Sihanoukville, resurfacing a former dirt road with concrete / asphalt and implementation of 5 major river crossings by means of bridges have now permanently connected Phnom Penh with Koh Kong, and hence there is now uninterrupted road access to neighboring Thailand and their vast road system.

Cambodia's road traffic accident rate is high by world standards. In 2004, the number of road fatalities per 10,000 vehicles was ten times higher in Cambodia than in the developed world, and the number of road deaths had doubled in the preceding three years.[94]



The nation's extensive inland waterways were important historically in international trade. The Mekong and the Tonle Sap River, their numerous tributaries, and the Tonle Sap provided avenues of considerable length, including 3,700 kilometers (2,300 mi) navigable all year by craft drawing 0.6 meters (2 ft) and another 282 kilometers (175 mi) navigable to craft drawing 1.8 meters (6 ft).[93] Cambodia has two major ports, Phnom Penh and Sihanoukville, and five minor ones. Phnom Penh, located at the junction of the Bassac, the Mekong, and the Tonle Sap rivers, is the only river port capable of receiving 8,000-ton ships during the wet season and 5,000-ton

A Cambodia Angkor Air ATR-72

ships during the dry season. With increasing economic activity has come an increase in automobile and motorcycle use, though bicycles still predominate.[95] "Cyclo" (as hand-me-down French) or Cycle rickshaws are an additional option often used by visitors. These kind of rickshaws are unique to Cambodia in that the cyclist is situated behind the passenger(s) seat,[96] as opposed to Cycle rickshaws in neighbouring countries where the cyclist is at the front and "pulls" the carriage.

The country has four commercial airports. Phnom Penh International Airport (Pochentong) in Phnom Penh is the second largest in Cambodia. Siem Reap-Angkor International Airport is the largest and serves the most international flights in and out of Cambodia. The other airports are in Sihanoukville and Battambang.

See also

- Outline of Cambodia
- Index of Cambodia-related articles
- Angkor Wat
- Cambodian Center for Human Rights

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History of Cambodia

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History of Cambodia



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Prehistory and early history

Main article: Early history of Cambodia



Ancient Khmer script

Carbon 14 dating of a cave at Laang Spean in northwest Cambodia reveals people who made pots were living in Cambodia as early as 4200 BCE (Before the Common Era).[1] Further archaeological evidence indicates that other parts of the region now called Cambodia were inhabited from around 1000-2000 BCE by a Neolithic culture. Skulls and human bones found at Samrong Sen date from 1500 BCE.[1] These people may have migrated from South Eastern China to the Indochinese Peninsula. Scholars trace the first cultivation of rice and the first bronze making in Southeast Asia to these people.[1] By the 1st century CE, the inhabitants had developed relatively stable, organized societies and spoke languages very much related to the Cambodian or Khmer of the present day.[1] The culture and technical skills of these people of the 1st century in the CE far surpassed the primitive stage. The most advanced groups lived along the coast and in the lower Mekong River valley and delta regions in houses constructed on stilts where they cultivated rice, fished and kept domesticated animals. Recent research has unlocked the discovery of artificial circular earthworks dating to Cambodia's Neolithic era.1 (http://muse.jhu.edu /demo/asian_perspectives/v039/39.1albrecht.pdf)

The Khmer people were among the first inhabitants of South East Asia. They were also among the first in South East Asia to adopt religious ideas and political institutions from India and to establish centralized kingdoms surrounding large territories. The earliest known kingdom in the area, Funan, flourished from around the first to the 6th century. This was succeeded by Chenla, which controlled large parts of modern Cambodia, Vietnam, Laos, and Thailand.

Funan Kingdom

Main article: Kingdom of Funan



Map of Funan at around 3rd century

The Funanese Empire rose to eminence from its affluent and powerful home city of Oc Eo (in nowadays Vietnam), known in the Roman Empire as Kattigara, meaning the Renowned City. Contacts with the distant Roman Empire are evidenced by the fact that Roman coins have been found at archeological sites dating from the 2nd and 3rd centuries.[2] However, most of the foreign trade of the Funan Empire was carried on much closer to home with India, especially the Bengal area of India. Trade with India commenced well before 500 BCE (before the widespread use of Sanskrit as a language in India).[3] With the Indian trade came the Indianization of the culture of Funan and the religion of Hinduism. Funan and its succeeding societies which occupied this section of Southeast Asia would remain Hindu in religion for about 900 years. Some cultural features and customs of Hinduism continue to exist within the current society.

The empire reached its greatest extent under the rule of Fan Shih-man in the early 3rd century, extending as far south as Malaysia and as far west as Burma. The Funanese established a strong system of mercantilism and commercial monopolies that would become a pattern for empires in the region. Exports from the Funan Empire were largely forest products and precious metals—including gold elephants, ivory, rhinoceros horn, kingfisher feathers, wild spices like cardamom, lacquer hides and aromatic wood.[2] Fan Shih-man expanded the fleet and improved the Funanese bureaucracy, creating a quasi-feudal pattern that left local customs and identities largely intact, particularly in the empire's farther reaches.

Chenla Kingdom

Main article: Chenla

The Khmers, vassals of Funan, had reached the Mekong River from the northern Menam River via the Mun River Valley. Chenla, their first independent state developed out of Funanese influence.

Ancient Chinese records mention two kings, Shrutavarman and Shreshthavarman who ruled at the capital Shreshthapura located in modern day southern Laos. The immense influence on the identity of Cambodia to come was wrought by the Khmer Kingdom of Bhavapura, in the modern day Cambodian city of Kompong Thom. Its legacy was its most important sovereign, Ishanavarman who completely conquered the kingdom of Funan during 612-628. He chose his new capital at the Sambor Prei Kuk, naming it Ishanapura.

After the death of Jayavarman I in 681, turmoil came upon the kingdom and at the start of the 8th century, the kingdom broke up into many principalities. Pushkaraksha, the ruler of Shambhupura announced himself as king of the entire Kambuja. Chinese chronicles proclaim that in the 8th century, Chenla was split into land Chenla and water Chenla. During this time, Shambhuvarman son of Pushkaraksha controlled most of water Chenla until the 8th century which the Malayans and Javanese dominated over many Khmer principalities.

Khmer Empire

Main article: Khmer Empire



Angkor Wat

The golden age of Khmer civilization, however, was the period from the 9th to the 13th centuries, when Khmer Empire, which gave Kampuchea, or Cambodia, its name, ruled large territories from its capital in the region of Angkor in western Cambodia.

Legend has it that in 802 CE, Jayavarman II, king of the Khmers, first came to the Kuhlen hills, the future site of Angkor Wat.[4] Later, under Jayavarman VII (1181–ca. 1218), Khmer reached its zenith of political power and cultural creativity. Jayavarman VII gained power and territory in a series of successful wars. Khmer conquests were almost unstoppable as they raided home cities of powerful seafaring Chams. However, territorial expansion stopped after a defeat by Dai Viet. The battle also witnessed Suryavarman II's death. Following Jayavarman VII's death, Khmer experienced a gradual decline. Important factors were the aggressiveness of neighboring peoples (especially the Thai, or Siamese), chronic interdynastic strife, and the gradual deterioration of the complex irrigation system that had ensured rice surpluses. The Angkorian monarchy survived until 1431, when the Thai captured Angkor Thom and the Cambodian king fled to the southern part of the country



Map of South-east Asia circa 900 CE, showing the Khmer Empire in red, Champa in yellow and Haripunjaya in light Green plus additional surrounding states.

Dark Ages of Cambodia

Main article: Dark ages of Cambodia

The 15th to the 19th centuries were a period of continued decline and territorial loss. Cambodia enjoyed a brief period of prosperity during the 16th century because its kings, who built their capitals in the region southeast of the Tonle Sap along the Mekong River, promoted trade with other parts of Asia. This was the period when Spanish and Portuguese adventurers and missionaries first visited the country. However, the Thai conquest of the new capital at Lovek in 1594 marked a downturn in the country's fortunes and Cambodia. Becoming a pawn in power struggles between its two increasingly powerful neighbors, Siam and Vietnam. Cambodia remained a protectorate of Siam. Vietnam's settlement of the Mekong Delta led to its annexation of that area at the end of the 17th century. Vietnam employed a strategy similar to those of North American pilgrims and pioneers: settle and claim. Such foreign encroachments continued through the first half of the 19th century. A successful invasion by Vietnam further limited Thai protectorship in Cambodia and established the kingdom under full Vietnamese suzerainty.

French colonial period

Main articles: French protectorate of Cambodia and French Indochina

In 1863, King Norodom signed an agreement with the French to establish a protectorate over his kingdom. The

state gradually came under French colonial domination.


Norodom of Cambodia

During World War II, the 1940 - 1941 Franco–Thai War left the French Indochinese colonial authorities in a position of weakness. The Vichy government signed an agreement with Japan to allow the Japanese military transit through French Indochina.[5]

Meanwhile the Thai government, under the pro-Japanese leadership of Field Marshal Plaek Phibunsongkhram, took advantage of its position and invaded Cambodia's western provinces.[6]



French Indochina in 1913.

Cambodia's situation at the end of the war was chaotic. The Free French, under General Charles de Gaulle, were determined to recover Indochina, though they offered Cambodia and the other Inchochinese protectorates a carefully circumscribed measure of self-government. Convinced that they had a "civilizing mission", they envisioned Indochina's participation in a French Union of former colonies that shared the common experience of French culture.

Administration of Sihanouk

Main articles: Japanese occupation of Cambodia and Kingdom of Cambodia (1953–1970)

On 9 March 1945, during the Japanese occupation of Cambodia, young king Norodom Sihanouk proclaimed an independent Kingdom of Kampuchea, following a formal request by the Japanese. Shortly thereafter the Japanese government nominally ratified the independence of Cambodia and established a consulate in Phnom Penh.[7] The new government did away with the romanization of the Khmer language that the French colonial administration was beginning to enforce and officially reinstated the Khmer script. This measure taken by the short-lived governmental authority would be popular and long-lasting, for since then no government in Cambodia has tried to romanize the Khmer language again.[8] After Allied military units entered Cambodia, the Japanese military forces present in the country were disarmed and repatriated. The French were able to reimpose the colonial administration in Phnom Penh in October the same year.[9]

Sihanouk's "royal crusade for independence" resulted in grudging French acquiescence to his demands for a transfer of sovereignty. A partial agreement was struck in October 1953. Sihanouk then declared that independence had been achieved and returned in triumph to Phnom Penh. As a result of the Geneva Conference on Indochina, Cambodia was able to bring about the withdrawal of the Viet Minh troops from its territory and to withstand any residual impingement upon its sovereignty by external powers.

Neutrality was the central element of Cambodian foreign policy during the 1950s and 1960s. By the mid-1960s, parts of Cambodia's eastern provinces were serving as bases for North Vietnamese Army and Viet Cong (NVA/VC) forces operating against South Vietnam, and the port of Sihanoukville was being used to supply them. As NVA/VC activity grew, the United States and South Vietnam became concerned, and in 1969, the United

States began a 14 month long series of bombing raids targeted at NVA/VC elements, contributing to destabilization. Prince Sihanouk, fearing that the conflict between communist North Vietnam and South Vietnam might spill over to Cambodia, steadfastly opposed the bombing campaign by the United States along the Vietnam-Cambodia border and inside Cambodian territory. Prince Sihanouk wanted Cambodia to stay out of the North Vietnam-South Vietnam conflict and was very critical of the United States government and its allies (the South Vietnamese government). The United States claims that the bombing campaign took place no further than ten, and later twenty miles (32 km) inside the Cambodian border, areas where the Cambodian population had been evicted by the NVA.[10] Prince Sihanouk, facing internal struggles of his own, due to the rise of the Khmer Rouge, did not want Cambodia to be involved in the conflict. Sihanouk wanted the United States and its allies (South Vietnam) to keep the war away from the Cambodian border. Not only did Sihanouk try to keep the communist North Vietnamese soldiers from entering Cambodia territory, but he also did not allow the United States to use Cambodian air space and airports for military purposes. This upset the United States greatly. The United States saw Prince Sihanouk as a North Vietnamese sympathizer and a thorn on the United States, and using the CIA, it began plans to get rid of Sihanouk.[11]

Throughout the 1960s, domestic Cambodian politics became polarized. Opposition to the government grew within the middle class and leftists including Paris-educated leaders like Son Sen, Ieng Sary, and Saloth Sar (later known as Pol Pot), who led an insurgency under the clandestine Communist Party of Kampuchea (CPK). Sihanouk called these insurgents the Khmer Rouge, literally the "Red Khmer." But the 1966 national assembly elections showed a significant swing to the right, and General Lon Nol formed a new government, which lasted until 1967. During 1968 and 1969, the insurgency worsened. In August 1969, Lon Nol formed a new government. Prince Sihanouk went abroad for medical reasons in January 1970.

Khmer Republic and the War

Main article: Civil War in Cambodia



Map of Asia in 1890

In March 1970, while Prince Sihanouk was absent, General Lon Nol deposed Prince Sihanouk in a coup d'état in the early hours of March 18, 1970.[12] It has been alleged that this coup was not planned by the United States Central Intelligence Agency.[13][*citation needed*] Still while abroad, Prince Sihanouk had been warned by both the leaders in Soviet Union and in Peking, that he should return home, immediately without delay.[13] As early as March 12, 1970, the C.I.A. Station Chief told Washington that based on communications from Sirik Matak, Lon Nol's cousin, that "the (Cambodian) army was ready for a coup."[14] Nonetheless, Lon Nol assumed the power after the military coup and immediately allied Cambodia with the United States. Immediately, Son Ngoc Thanh, an opponent of Pol Pot, announced his support for the new government. On October 9, the Cambodian monarchy was abolished, and the country was renamed the Khmer Republic.

Hanoi rejected the new republic's request for the withdrawal of NVA troops. 2,000–4,000 Cambodians who had gone to North Vietnam in 1954 reentered Cambodia, backed by North Vietnamese soldiers. In response, the United States moved to provide material assistance to the new government's armed forces, which were engaged against both CPK insurgents and NVA forces.

On April 1970, US President Nixon announced to the American public that US and South Vietnamese ground forces had entered Cambodia in a campaign aimed at destroying NVA base areas in Cambodia (see Cambodian Incursion).[15] The US had already been bombing Cambodia for well over a year by that point.

While president, Bill Clinton released extensive Air Force data on all American bombings of Indochina between 1964 and 1975. Regarding Cambodia in particular, it emerged that

> [F]rom October 4, 1965, to August 15, 1973, the United States dropped far more ordnance on Cambodia than was previously believed: 2,756,941 tons' worth, dropped in 230,516 sorties on 113,716 sites. Just over 10 percent of this bombing was indiscriminate, with 3,580 of the sites listed as having "unknown" targets and another 8,238 sites having no target listed at all. . . . [T]he total payload dropped during these years to be nearly five times greater than the generally accepted figure. To put the revised total of 2,756,941 tons into perspective, the Allies dropped just over 2 million tons of bombs during all of World War II, including the bombs that struck Hiroshima and Nagasaki: 15,000 and 20,000 tons, respectively. Cambodia may well be the most heavily bombed country in history. . . . [T]he bombing forced the Vietnamese Communists deeper and deeper into Cambodia, bringing them into greater contact with Khmer Rouge insurgents . . . [and] drove ordinary Cambodians into the arms of the Khmer Rouge, a group that seemed initially to have slim prospects of revolutionary success.[16]

Nixon had commanded that, "They [the USAF] have got to go in there and I mean really go in . . . I want everything that can fly to go in there and crack the hell out of them. There is no limitation on mileage and there is no limitation on budget. Is that clear?"[16] Taylor Owen (http://taylorowen.com/?page_id=5) and Yale's Ben Kiernan note that, "Previously, it was estimated that between 50,000 and 150,000 Cambodian civilians were killed by the bombing. Given the fivefold increase in tonnage revealed by the database, the number of casualties is surely higher."[16]

Although a considerable quantity of equipment was seized or destroyed by US and South Vietnamese forces, containment of North Vietnamese forces proved elusive. The North Vietnamese moved deeper into Cambodia to avoid US and South Vietnamese raids. NVA units overran many Cambodian army positions while the CPK expanded their small-scale attacks on lines of communication.

The Khmer Republic's leadership was plagued by disunity among its three principal figures: Lon Nol, Sihanouk's cousin Sirik Matak, and National Assembly leader In Tam. Lon Nol remained in power in part because none of the others were prepared to take his place. In 1972, a constitution was adopted, a parliament elected, and Lon Nol became president. But disunity, the problems of transforming a 30,000-man army into a national combat force of more than 200,000 men, and spreading corruption weakened the civilian administration and army.

The Communist insurgency inside Cambodia continued to grow, aided by supplies and military support from North Vietnam. Pol Pot and Ieng Sary asserted their dominance over the Vietnamese-trained communists, many of whom were purged. At the same time, the Communist Party of Kampuchea forces became stronger and more independent of their Vietnamese patrons. By 1973, the CPK were fighting battles against government forces with little or no North Vietnamese troop support, and they controlled nearly 60% of Cambodia's territory and 25% of its population.

The government made three unsuccessful attempts to enter into negotiations with the insurgents, but by 1974, the CPK were operating openly as divisions, and some of the NVA combat forces had moved into South Vietnam. Lon Nol's control was reduced to small enclaves around the cities and main transportation routes. More than 2 million refugees from the war lived in Phnom Penh and other cities.

On New Year's Day 1975, Communist troops launched an offensive which, in 117 days of the hardest fighting of

the war, collapsed the Khmer Republic. Simultaneous attacks around the perimeter of Phnom Penh pinned down Republican forces, while other CPK units overran fire bases controlling the vital lower Mekong resupply route. A US-funded airlift of ammunition and rice ended when Congress refused additional aid for Cambodia. The Lon Nol government in Phnom Penh surrendered on April 17, 1975, just five (5) days after the US mission evacuated Cambodia.[17]

Democratic Kampuchea (Khmer Rouge Era)

Main articles: Democratic Kampuchea and Khmer Rouge rule of Cambodia



Flag of Democratic Kampuchea



Flag of the Communist Party of Kampuchea

Immediately after its victory, the CPK ordered the evacuation of all cities and towns, sending the entire urban population into the countryside to work as farmers, as the CPK was trying to reshape society into a model that Pol Pot had conceived.

Thousands starved or died of disease during the evacuation and its aftermath. Many of those forced to evacuate the cities were resettled in newly created villages, which lacked food, agricultural implements, and medical care. Many who lived in cities had lost the skills necessary for survival in an agrarian environment. Thousands starved before the first harvest. Hunger and malnutrition—bordering on starvation—were constant during those years. Most military and civilian leaders of the former regime who failed to disguise their pasts were executed.

Within the CPK, the Paris-educated leadership—Pol Pot, Ieng Sary, Nuon Chea, and Son Sen—were in control. A new constitution in January 1976 established Democratic Kampuchea as a Communist People's Republic, and a 250-member Assembly of the Representatives of the People of Kampuchea (PRA) was selected in March to choose the collective leadership of a State Presidium, the chairman of which became the head of state.

Prince Sihanouk resigned as head of state on April 4. On April 14, after its first session, the PRA announced that Khieu Samphan would chair the State Presidium for a 5-year term. It also picked a 15-member cabinet headed by Pol Pot as prime minister. Prince Sihanouk was put under virtual house arrest.

The new government sought to completely restructure Cambodian society. Remnants of the old society were abolished and religion, particularly Buddhism and Catholicism, was suppressed. Agriculture was collectivized, and the surviving part of the industrial base was abandoned or placed under state control. Cambodia had neither a currency nor a banking system.

Life in 'Democratic Kampuchea' was strict and brutal. In many areas of the country people were rounded up and executed for speaking a foreign language, wearing glasses, scavenging for food, and even crying for dead loved ones. Former businessmen and bureaucrats were hunted down and killed along with their entire families; the Khmer Rouge feared that they held beliefs that could lead them to oppose their regime. A few Khmer Rouge loyalists were even killed for failing to find enough 'counter-revolutionaries' to execute.

Solid estimates of the numbers who died between 1975 and 1979 are not available, but it is likely that hundreds of thousands were executed by the regime. Hundreds of thousands died of starvation and disease (both under the CPK and during the Vietnamese invasion in 1978). Some estimates of the dead range from 1 to 3 million, out of a

1975 population estimated at 7.3 million. The CIA estimated 50,000–100,000 were executed in a single purge by the state and that 1.5 million (from a range of 1.2 to 1.8 million) were killed by the Khmer Rouge from 1975 to 1979.[18]

Democratic Kampuchea's relations with Vietnam and Thailand worsened rapidly as a result of border clashes and ideological differences. While communist, the CPK was fiercely nationalistic, and most of its members who had lived in Vietnam were purged. Democratic Kampuchea established close ties with the People's Republic of China, and the Cambodian-Vietnamese conflict became part of the Sino-Soviet rivalry, with Moscow backing Vietnam. Border clashes worsened when the Democratic Kampuchea military attacked villages in Vietnam. The regime broke off relations with Hanoi in December 1977, protesting Vietnam's alleged attempt to create an Indochina Federation. In mid-1978, Vietnamese forces invaded Cambodia, advancing about 30 miles (48 km) before the arrival of the rainy season.

The reasons for Chinese support of the CPK was to prevent a pan-Indochina movement, and maintain Chinese military superiority in the region. The Soviet Union supported a strong Vietnam to maintain a second front against China in case of hostilities and to prevent further Chinese expansion. Since Stalin's death, relations between Mao-controlled China and the Soviet Union had been lukewarm at best. In February to March 1979, China and Vietnam would fight the brief Sino-Vietnamese War over the issue.

In December 1978, Vietnam announced formation of the Kampuchean United Front for National Salvation (KUFNS) under Heng Samrin, a former DK division commander. It was composed of Khmer Communists who had remained in Vietnam after 1975 and officials from the eastern sector—like Heng Samrin and Hun Sen—who had fled to Vietnam from Cambodia in 1978. In late December 1978, Vietnamese forces launched a full invasion of Cambodia, capturing Phnom Penh on January 7, 1979 and driving the remnants of Democratic Kampuchea's army westward toward Thailand.

People's Republic of Kampuchea

Main article: Cambodia under Vietnamese occupation (1979–1989)

On January 10, 1979, after the Vietnamese army and the KUFNS invaded Cambodia, the new People's Republic of Kampuchea (PRK) was established with Heng Samrin as head of state. Pol Pot's Khmer Rouge forces retreated rapidly to the Thai border. The Khmer Rouge and the PRK began a costly struggle that played into the hands of the larger powers China, the United States and the Soviet Union. A civil war was imposed on impoverished Cambodia that displaced 600,000 Cambodians to refugee camps along the border between Thailand and Cambodia.[19]

Peace efforts began in Paris in 1989 under the State of Cambodia, culminating two years later in October 1991 in a comprehensive peace settlement. The United Nations was given a mandate to enforce a ceasefire, and deal with refugees and disarmament known as the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC).[20]

Modern Cambodia: 1993-present

Main article: Modern Cambodia (1990–present)

On October 23, 1991, the Paris Conference reconvened to sign a comprehensive settlement giving the UN full authority to supervise a cease-fire, repatriate the displaced Khmer along the border with Thailand, disarm and demobilize the factional armies, and prepare the country for free and fair elections. Prince Sihanouk, President of the Supreme National Council of Cambodia (SNC), and other members of the SNC returned to Phnom Penh

in November 1991, to begin the resettlement process in Cambodia. The UN Advance Mission for Cambodia (UNAMIC) was deployed at the same time to maintain liaison among the factions and begin demining operations to expedite the repatriation of approximately 370,000 Cambodians from Thailand.

On March 16, 1992, the UN Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC) arrived in Cambodia to begin implementation of the UN Settlement Plan. The UN High Commissioner for Refugees began fullscale repatriation in March 1992. UNTAC grew into a 22,000-strong civilian and military peacekeeping force to conduct free and fair elections for a constituent assembly.

Over 4 million Cambodians (about 90% of eligible voters) participated in the May 1993 elections, although the Khmer Rouge or Party of Democratic Kampuchea (PDK), whose forces were never actually disarmed or demobilized, barred some people from participating. Prince Ranariddh's royalist FUNCINPEC Party was the top vote recipient with 45.5% of the vote, followed by Hun Sen's Cambodian People's Party and the Buddhist Liberal Democratic Party, respectively. FUNCINPEC then entered into a coalition with the other parties that had participated in the election. The parties represented in the 120-member assembly proceeded to draft and approve a new constitution, which was promulgated September 24, 1993. It established a multiparty liberal democracy in the framework of a constitutional monarchy, with the former Prince Sihanouk elevated to King. Prince Ranariddh and Hun Sen became First and Second Prime Ministers, respectively, in the Royal Cambodian Government (RGC). The constitution provides for a wide range of internationally recognized human rights.

On October 4, 2004, the Cambodian National Assembly ratified an agreement with the United Nations on the establishment of a tribunal to try senior leaders responsible for the atrocities committed by the Khmer Rouge. Donor countries have pledged the $43 million international share of the three-year tribunal budget, while the Cambodian government’s share of the budget is $13.3 million. The tribunal started trials of senior Khmer Rouge leaders in 2008. Cambodia is also recovering from the land mines which were used heavily by the Khmer Rouge and Vietnamese; it will take approximately a decade to remove most of the land mines from Cambodia.

See also

- Economic history of Cambodia
- History of Buddhism in Cambodia
- History of Asia
- Khmer Rouge
- List of kings of Cambodia
- List of Prime Ministers of Cambodia
- Military history of Cambodia
- Politics of Cambodia

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List of kings of Cambodia

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **King of Cambodia** is the head of state of the Kingdom of Cambodia. The King's power is limited to that of a symbolic figurehead to whom people are to give love and respect. The monarch also represents peace, stability, and prosperity to the Khmer people. The King of Cambodia is an elected monarch, making Cambodia one of the few elected monarchies of the world.

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King of Cambodia

MONARCHY



Royal Arms of Cambodia



Incumbent:
Norodom Sihamoni

Style:	His Majesty
First monarch:	Bhavavarman I
Formation:	550 A.D.

Kings of Cambodia (68-1960, 1993-Present)

Funan Kingdom (68-627)

Order	King	Personal Name	Reign
01	Queen Soma	Chinese Call: Liu Yi and Traditional Khmer Call: Neang Neak	latter 1st century
02	Kaundinya I	Chinese Call: Hun-tean and Traditional Khmer Call: Preah Tong	68-latter 1st century
03	Unknown		latter 2nd century
04	Unknown	Chinese Call: Hun Panhuang	latter 2nd century

05	Unknown	Chinese Call: P'an-P'an	early 3rd century
06	Srei Meara	Chinese Call: Fan Shih-Man	ca. 205-225
07	Unknown	Chinese Call: Fan Chin-Sheng	ca. 225
08	Unknown	Chinese Call: Fan Chan	ca. 225-ca. 240
09	Unknown	Chinese Call: Fan Siyun	ca. 240-ca. 287
10	Unknown	Unknown	latter 3rd century
11	Unknown	Chinese Call: Tian Chu Chantan	latter 4th century
12	Unknown	Unknown	latter 4th Century
13	Kaundinya II	Chinese Call: Chiao Chen-ju	Unknown-434
14	Srindravarman I	Chinese Call: Che-li-pa-mo or Shih-li-t'o-pa-mo	434-435
15	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
16	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
17	Jayavarman Kaundinya	Chinese Call: She-yeh-pa-mo	484-514
18	Rudravarman	Chinese Call: Liutao Pamao	514-550
Funan-Chenla War: 550-627			
19	Sarvabhauma	Unknown	550-?
20	Unknown	Unknown	c. 550-627

Chenla Kingdom (550-802)

Order	King	Personal Name	Reign
21	Bhavavarman I	Bhavavarman	550-600
22	Mohendravarman	Chet Sen	600-616
23	Isanavarman I	Isanavarman	616-635
24	Bhavavarman II	Bhavavarman	639-657
25	Jayavarman I	Jayavarman	657-681
26	Queen: Jayavedi	Jayavedi	681-713
Two Kingdoms of Chenla: Land Chenla and Water Chenla: 706-802			
Javanese Invasion: 774-802			

Khmer Empire (802-1431)

Order	King	Personal Name	Reign
27	Jayavarman II	Jayavarman	802-850

28	Jayavarman III	Jayavarthon	850-877
29	Indravarman I	Indravarman	877-889
30	Yasovarman I	Yasovarthon	889-900
31	Harshavarman I	Harshavarman	900-925
32	Ishanavarman II	Isanavarman	925-928
33	Jayavarman IV	Jayavarman	928-941
34	Harshavarman II	Harshavarman	941-944
35	Rajendravarman II	Rajedravarman	944-968
36	Jayavarman V	Jayavarman	968-1001
37	Udayadityavarman I	Udayadityavarman	1002
38	Jayavirahvarman	Jayavirahvarman	1002-1006
39	Suryavarman I	Suryavarman	1006-1050
40	Udayadityavarman II	Udayadityavarman	1050-1066
41	Harshavarman III	Harshavarman	1066-1080
42	Noriditdravarman	Noriditdravarman	1080-1113
43	Jayavarman VI	Jayavarman	1080-1107
44	Dharanindravarman I	Dharanindravarman	1107-1113
45	Suryavarman II	Suryavarman	1113-1150
46	Dharanindravarman II	Dharanindravarman	1150-1156
47	Yasovarman II	Yasovarman	1156-1165
48	Tribhuvanidityavarman	Tribhuvanidityavarman	1165-1177
Cham Invasion: 1177-1181			
49	Jayavarman VII	Jayavathon	1181-1218
50	Indravarman II	Indravarman	1218-1243
Siam was created in 1238 during reign of Indravarman by Pho Khun Si Intharathit in Sukhothai, one of Khmer's provinces.			
51	Jayavarman VIII	Jayavarman	1243-1295
52	Indravarman III	Srei Indravarman	1295-1307
53	Srei Jayavarman	Srei Jayavarman	1307-1327
54	Jayavarman IX	Jayavama Borommesvarah	1327-1336
55	Trosok Peam	Ponhea Chey	1336-1340
56	Nippean Bat	Nippean Bat	1340-1346
57	Lompong Racha	Lompong Racha	1346-1351
Siam Invasion: 1352-1357			
58	Soryavong	Soryavong	1357-1363
59	Borom Reachea I	Borommarama	1363-1373
60	Thomma Saok	Thomma Saok	1373-1393
Siam Invasion: 1393 (5 months).			

61	Barom Reachea II	Ponhea Yat	1393-1463

Cambodia after Angkor (1431-1863)

Charktomok Era (1431-1525)

Name	Personal Name	Reign
Ponhea Yat	Ponhea Yat	1393-1463
Narayanareachea I	Narayanareachea	1463-1469
Srei Reachea	Srei Reachea	1469-1485
Srei Soryatei	Soryatei	1475-1485
Thommareachea I	Thommareachea	1485-1504
Dharmarajadhiraja	Dharmarajadhiraja	1444-1512
Sri Sukonthor	Sri Sukonthor	1486-1512

Cambodia Civil War: Ponhea Chan and Sdech Kan war: 1516-1525

Lovek Era (1525-1593)

Name	Personal Name	Reign
Ney Khan	Ney Khan	1512-1516
Ang Chan I	Ang Chan	1516-1566
Baromreachea I	Satha Mahindharaja	1566-1576
Chey Chettha I	Chey Chettha	1576-1594

Srei Santhor Era (1594-1620)

Name	Personal Name	Reign
Reamea Chungprey	Reamea Chungprey	1594-1596
Baromreachea II	Baromreachea II	1596-1599
Baromreachea III	Baromreachea III	1599-1600
Ponhea Nhom	Ponhea Nhom	1600-1603
Baromreachea IV	Baromreachea IV	1603-1618

Oudong Era (Dark Age of Cambodia, 1620-1863)

Name	Personal Name	Reign
Chey Chettha II Preah Bat Samdech Chey Chettha II	Ponhea Nhom	1619-1627
Udayaraja or Paramaraja VIII Preah Bat Samdech Udayaraja	Outey	1627-1642

Thommoreachea II or Sri Dharmaraja II Preah Bat Samdech Thommoreachea II	Ponhea To	1628-1630
Batom Reachea or Padumaraja I Preah Bat Samdech Padumaraja I	Ang Non	1640-1642
Ramathipadi I Preah Bat Samdech Ramathipadi I	Ponhea Chan	1642-1658
Barom Reachea V or Paramaraja IX Preah Bat Samdech Barom Reachea V	Ang Sur	1658-1672
Chey Chettha III or Padumaraja II Preah Bat Samdech Chey Chettha III	Srei Chey Chettha	1672-1673
Kaev Hua II Preah Bat Samdech Kaev Hua II	Ang Chea	1673-1674
Padumaraja III Preah Bat Samdech Padumaraja III	Ang Nan	1674
Chey Chettha IV Preah Bat Samdech Chey Chettha IV	Ang Sor	1675-1695, 1696-1699, 1700-1702 and 1703-1706
Outey I or Narai Ramathipadi II Preah Bat Samdech Outey I	Ang Yong	1695-1696
Barom Ramadhipati or Kaev Hua III Preah Bat Samdech Barom Ramadhipati	Ang Em	1699-1700 and 1710-1722
Thommoreachea III or Sri Dhamaraja III Preah Bat Samdech Thommoreachea III	Ang Tham	1702-1703, 1706-1709 and 1738-1747
Satha II or Paramaraja X Preah Bat Samdech Satha II	Ang Chey	1722-1729, 1729-1736 and 1749
Thommoreachea IV or Sri Dhamaraja IV Preah Bat Samdech Thommoreachea IV	Ang Em	1747
Ramathipadi II Preah Bat Samdech Ramathipadi II	Ang Tong	1747-1748 and 1756-1757
Chey Chettha V Preah Bat Samdech Chey Chettha V	Ang Snguon	1749-1755
Outey Reachea II or Udayaraja II Preah Bat Samdech Udayaraja II	Ang Ton	1758-1775
Ream Rachea or Ramaraja Preah Bat Samdech Ramaraja	Ang Non	1775-1779
Narayanaraja III Preah Bat Samdech Narayanaraja III	Ang Eng	1779-1796
Interregnum: 1796 - 1806		
Outey Reachea III or Udayaraja III Preah Bat Samdech Udayaraja III	Ang Chan II	1806 - 1834
Ang Mey Preah Bat Samdech Ang Mey	Ang Mey	1834 - 1840
Hariharak Ramadhipati Preah Bat Samdech Hariharak Ramadhipati	Ang Duong	1840 - 1859

French protectorate of Cambodia (1863-1953)

Portrait	Name	Personal Name	Birth	Reign	Death
	Norodom *Preah Bat Samdech Norodom*	Ang Vattey	1834	1860-1904	1904
	Sisowath *Preah Bat Samdech Sisowath*	Sisowath	1840	1904-1927	1927
	Sisowath Monivong *Preah Bat Samdech Sisowath Monivong*	Sisowath Monivong	1875	1927-1941	1941
	Norodom Sihanouk *Preah Bat Samdech Norodom Sihanouk*	Norodom Sihanouk	31 October 1922	25 April 1941 – 2 March 1955	(still alive)

Kingdom of Cambodia (1953–1970)

Portrait	Name	Birth	Reign	Death
	Norodom Suramarit *Preah Reach Bat Pada Samdach Norodom Suramarit*	6 March 1896	3 March 1955 – 3 April 1960	3 April 1960

Kingdom of Cambodia (Restored, 1993-Present)

Portrait	Name	Birth	Reign	Death
	Norodom Sihanouk *Preah Karuna Preah Bat Sâmdach Preah Norodom Sihanouk Preahmâhaviraksat*	31 October 1922	24 September 1993 – 7 October 2004	(still alive)

	Norodom Sihamoni *Preah Karuna Preah Bat Sâmdach Preah Bâromneath Norodom Sihamoni*	14 May 1953	14 October 2004 – Present	(currently ruling)

Royal Symbols



Royal Standard of Cambodia



Royal Coat of Arms of Cambodia

See also

- List of heads of state of Cambodia
- Prime Minister of Cambodia

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Norodom Sihamoni

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Norodom Sihamoni (Khmer: [illegible], born 14 May 1953) is the current reigning King of Cambodia. He is the eldest son of Norodom Sihanouk and Norodom Monineath Sihanouk. Previously Cambodia's ambassador to UNESCO, he was named by a nine-member throne council to become the next king after his father Norodom Sihanouk abdicated in 2004. Before ascending the throne, Sihamoni was best known for his work as a cultural ambassador in Europe and as a classical dance instructor.

Norodom Sihamoni

[illegible]



King of Cambodia

Reign	14 October 2004 – present
Coronation	29 October 2004
Predecessor	Norodom Sihanouk
Prime Ministers	Hun Sen
House	House of Norodom
Father	Norodom Sihanouk
Mother	Norodom Monineath
Born	14 May 1953 Phnom Penh, Cambodia
Religion	Theravada Buddhism

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Life

Sihamoni was born in 1953. At the time of his birth and that of his younger brother, his mother, a Cambodian citizen of Italian and Khmer ancestry, had been one of King Norodom Sihanouk's consorts after being a constant companion since the day they met in 1951, when the young Monique Izzi won first prize in a national beauty contest.[1] She was granted the title of Neak Moneang and the name of Monineath at the time of her marriage to King Norodom Sihanouk in 1952.

Furthermore, Queen Monineath is a step-granddaughter of the late Prince Norodom Duongchak of Cambodia, and the daughter of Pomme Peang and of her second husband, Jean-François Izzi, a French-Italian banker. [2] The Royal Ark website entry about the genealogy of the Cambodian royal family states that Sihanouk and Monineath were married twice, once on 12 April 1952, when she was 15, and again ("more formally", according to the website) on 5 March 1955. She is described as Sihanouk's seventh wife.

King Norodom Sihamoni has 14 half-brothers and half-sisters by his father's various relationships; his only full sibling, a younger brother, HRH Samdech Norodom Narindrapong (born 1954) died in 2003.



Norodom Sihamoni in Phnom Penh in May 2008

He has spent most of his life outside Cambodia. As a child, Sihamoni was sent to Prague, Czechoslovakia, by his father in 1962, where he, while attending elementary school, high school and Academy of Music Arts, studied classical dance and music until 1975. He is fluent in French and Czech, as well as being a good speaker of English and Russian. During the 1970 coup d'état by Lon Nol, Sihamoni remained in Czechoslovakia. In 1975, he left Prague and began to study filmmaking in North Korea, and in 1977 returned to his native Cambodia. Immediately, the ruling Khmer Rouge government turned against the monarchy, and Sihamoni was put under house arrest by the Khmer Rouge with the rest of the royal family until the 1979 Vietnamese invasion. In 1981, he moved to France to teach ballet and was later president of the Khmer Dance Association. He lived in France for nearly 20 years, but even then he regularly visited Prague, where he spent his childhood and youth. He is the only ruling monarch who speaks Czech.

In 1993, the prince was appointed Cambodia's delegate to UNESCO, the UN cultural body based in Paris, where he became known for his hard work and his devotion to Cambodian culture. He previously refused an appointment as Cambodia's ambassador to France.[3]



Royal Standard of the King of Cambodia

On 14 October 2004, he was selected by a special nine-member council, part of a selection process that was quickly put in place after the surprise abdication of King Norodom Sihanouk a week before. Sihamoni's selection was endorsed by Prime Minister Hun Sen and National Assembly Speaker Prince Norodom Ranariddh (the new king's brother), both members of the privy council. He was inaugurated and formally anointed as King on Friday, 29 October 2004.[4] King Sihamoni and his parents, King Father Norodom Sihanouk and Queen Mother Norodom Monineath specifically requested that the ceremonies be kept low-key because they did not wish for the impoverished country to spend too much money on the event.

The original gold and diamond encrusted crown, a sacred symbol of Mount Meru, used in official coronation ceremonies in Cambodia for centuries dating back to the ancient Angkorian Empire, disappeared along with many other items of Royal Regalia during the Lon Nol regime in the early 1970s. As stated by Julio A. Jeldres, King Father Norodom Sihanouk's official biographer, "The King did not want a crown remade because of Cambodia's poverty."[5]

Sihamoni remains a bachelor. His father Norodom Sihanouk has stated that Sihamoni "loves women as his sisters"[6]. Sihamoni has no children, but this does not pose a problem because the King in Cambodia is selected by the throne council even when such a successor exists.

Title

Before he was crowned king, his royal title was: *Sdech Krom Khun* (□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□), equating him to the rank of 'great prince.' As king, his title is: **Preah Karuna Preah Bat Sâmdach Preah Bâromneath Norodom Sihamoni Nai**

Styles of

The King of Cambodia

Preah Reacheanachak Kampuchea (in romanized Khmer); roughly translating to: *His Majesty, King Norodom Sihamoni of the Kingdom of Cambodia*. His given name, Sihamoni, comprises two morphemes from his parent's given names, Sihanouk and Monineath.



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Sire*

Advisory court

On 12 December 2008, Sihamoni selected twenty-six members of the Cambodian royal family to his advisory court, among them his half-brother Prince Norodom Ranariddh as chief advisor. Other choices included Prince Sisowath Sirirath, Princess Norodom Marie (estranged wife of Prince Ranariddh) and Prince Sisowath Thomico.[7]

Awards

- Grand Cross of the Royal Order of Cambodia
- Grand Cross of the Royal Order of Monisaraphon
- Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor (2010; Grand Officer 2004)
- Silver Medal of the City of Paris
- Grand Cordon of the Order of the Chrysanthemum (2010)

[8]

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8. ^ [2] (http://www.royalark.net/Cambodia/camboa21.htm)

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External links

- King Norodom Sihamoni - Official Website (http://www.norodomsihamoni.org/)
- Article about Norodom Sihamoni's coronation (http://www.escapeartist.com/efam/65/King_Of_Cambodia.html) by Antonio Graceffo

Norodom Sihamoni

House of Norodom **Born:** 14 May 1953		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Norodom Sihanouk**	**King of Cambodia** 2004–present	**Incumbent**

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Japan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Japan /dʒəˈpæn/ (Japanese: 日本 ***Nihon*** or ***Nippon***; formally 日本国 ***Nippon-koku*** or ***Nihon-koku***, literally the *State of Japan*) is an island nation in East Asia. Located in the Pacific Ocean, it lies to the east of the Sea of Japan, China, North Korea, South Korea and Russia, stretching from the Sea of Okhotsk in the north to the East China Sea and Taiwan in the south. The characters that make up Japan's name mean "sun-origin", which is why Japan is sometimes referred to as the "Land of the Rising Sun".

Japan is an archipelago of 6,852 islands. The four largest islands are Honshū, Hokkaidō, Kyūshū and Shikoku, together accounting for ninety-seven percent of Japan's land area. Japan has the world's tenth-largest population, with over 127 million people. The Greater Tokyo Area, which includes the *de facto* capital city of Tokyo and several surrounding prefectures, is the largest metropolitan area in the world, with over 30 million residents.

Archaeological research indicates that people lived in Japan as early as the Upper Paleolithic period. The first written mention of Japan is in Chinese history texts from the 1st century AD. Influence from other nations followed by long periods of isolation has characterized Japan's history. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries victory in the First Sino-Japanese War, the Russo-Japanese War, and World War I allowed Japan to expand its empire during a period of increasing militarism. The Second Sino-Japanese War of 1937 expanded into part of World War II, which came to an end in 1945 following the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Since adopting its revised constitution in 1947, Japan has maintained a unitary constitutional monarchy with an emperor and an elected parliament called the Diet.

A major economic power,[2] Japan has the world's third-largest economy by nominal GDP and fourth-largest economy by purchasing power parity. It is also the world's fourth-largest exporter and fourth-largest importer. Although Japan has officially renounced its right to declare war, it maintains a modern military force in self-defense and peacekeeping roles. After Singapore, Japan has the lowest homicide rate (including attempted homicide) in the world.[10] According to both UN and WHO estimates, Japan has the longest life expectancy of any country in the world. According to the UN, it has the third lowest infant mortality rate.[11][12]

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Japan

日本

Nippon-koku* or *Nihon-koku



Flag



Imperial Seal

Anthem:

Kimigayo

(君が代)

Government Seal of Japan



国章 (*Go-Shichi no Kiri*)



Capital (and largest city)	Tokyo (*de facto*) 35°41′N 139°46′E
Official language(s)	None[1]
Recognised regional languages	Ainu itak, Ryukyuan languages, Eastern Japanese, Western Japanese, and several other Japanese dialects
National language	Japanese
Ethnic groups	98.5% Japanese, 0.5% Korean, 0.4% Chinese, 0.6% other[2]
Demonym	Japanese

- 7 Economy
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Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy
- Emperor	Akihito
- Prime Minister	Yoshihiko Noda
Legislature	Diet of Japan (Kokkai)
- Upper house	House of Councillors (Sangiin)
- Lower house	House of Representatives of Japan (Shūgiin)
Formation	
- National Foundation Day	February 11, 660 BC[3]
- Meiji Constitution	November 29, 1890
- Current constitution	May 3, 1947
- Treaty of San Francisco	April 28, 1952
Area	
- Total	377,944 km^2 [4](62nd) 145,925 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.8
Population	
- 2011 estimate	127,960,000[5] (10th)
- 2010 census	128,056,026[6]
- Density	337.1/km^2 (36th) 873.1/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$4.396 trillion[7] (4th)
- Per capita	$34,362[7] (25th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$5.855 trillion[7] (3rd)
- Per capita	$45,774[7] (18th)
Gini	37.6 (2008)[8]
HDI (2011)	▲ 0.901[9] (very high) (12th)
Currency	International Symbol ¥ *Pronounced* (**Yen**) Japanese Symbol 円 or 圓 *Pronounced* (**En**) (JPY)
Time zone	JST (UTC+9)
- Summer (DST)	not observed (UTC+9)
Date formats	yyyy-mm-dd yyyy年m月d日 Era yy年m月d日 (CE−1988)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	JP
Internet TLD	.jp

Etymology

Main article: Names of Japan

The English word *Japan* is an exonym. The Japanese names for Japan are *Nippon* (日本) listen and *Nihon* (日本) listen ; both names are written using the kanji 日本. The Japanese name *Nippon* is used for most official purposes, including on Japanese yen, postage stamps, and for many international sporting events. *Nihon* is a more casual term and is used in contemporary speech. Japanese people refer to themselves as *Nihonjin* (日本人) and to their language as *Nihongo* (日本語). Both *Nippon* and *Nihon* mean "sun-origin" and are often translated as *Land of the Rising Sun*. This nomenclature comes from Japanese missions to Imperial China and refers to Japan's eastward position relative to China. Before *Nihon* came into official use, Japan was known as *Wa* (倭) or *Wakoku* (倭国).[13]

The English word for Japan came to the West via early trade routes. The early Mandarin or possibly Wu Chinese (日本) word for Japan was recorded by Marco Polo as *Cipangu*. In modern Shanghainese, a Wu dialect, the pronunciation of characters 日本 'Japan' is *Zeppen* [zəʔpən]. The old Malay word for Japan, *Jepang*, was borrowed from a Chinese language — Jih'pen'kuo [14]—, and this Malay word was encountered by Portuguese traders in Malacca in the 16th century. Portuguese traders were the first to bring the word to Europe.[15] It was first recorded in English in a 1565 letter, spelled *Giapan*.[16]

History

Main article: History of Japan

Prehistory and ancient history

A Paleolithic culture around 30,000 BC constitutes the first known habitation of Japan. This was followed from around 14,000 BC (the start of the Jōmon period) by a Mesolithic to Neolithic semi-sedentary hunter-gatherer culture, who include ancestors of both the contemporary Ainu people and Yamato

Calling code	81



The Golden Hall and five-storey pagoda of Hōryū-ji, among the oldest wooden buildings in the world, National Treasures, and a UNESCO World Heritage Site

people,[17][18] characterized by pit dwelling and rudimentary agriculture.[19] Decorated clay vessels from this period are some of the oldest surviving examples of pottery in the world. Around 300 BC, the Yayoi people began to enter the Japanese islands, intermingling with the Jōmon.[20] The Yayoi period, starting around 500 BC, saw the introduction of practices like wet-rice farming,[21] a new style of pottery,[22] and metallurgy, introduced from China and Korea.[23]

The Japanese first appear in written history in the Chinese *Book of Han*. According to the *Records of Three Kingdoms*, the most powerful kingdom on the archipelago during the 3rd century was called Yamataikoku. Buddhism was first introduced to Japan from Baekje, but the subsequent development of Japanese Buddhism was primarily influenced by China.[24] Despite early resistance, Buddhism was promoted by the ruling class and gained widespread acceptance beginning in the Asuka period (592–710).[25]

The Nara period (710–784) of the 8th century marked the emergence of a strong Japanese state, centered on an imperial court in Heijō-kyō (modern Nara). The Nara period is characterized by the appearance of a nascent literature as well as the development of Buddhist-inspired art and architecture.[26] The smallpox epidemic of 735–737 is believed to have killed as much as one-third of Japan's population.[27] In 784, Emperor Kammu moved the capital from Nara to Nagaoka-kyō before relocating it to Heian-kyō (modern Kyoto) in 794.

This marked the beginning of the Heian period (794–1185), during which a distinctly indigenous Japanese culture emerged, noted for its art, poetry and prose. Lady Murasaki's *The Tale of Genji* and the lyrics of Japan's national anthem *Kimigayo* were written during this time.[28]



Byōdō-in (1053) is a temple of Pure Land Buddhism. It was registered to the UNESCO World Heritage Site.

Buddhism began to spread during the Heian era chiefly through two major sects, Tendai by Saichō, and Shingon by Kūkai. Pure Land Buddhism greatly becomes popular in the latter half of the 11th century.

Feudal era

Japan's feudal era was characterized by the emergence and dominance of a ruling class of warriors, the samurai. In 1185, following the defeat of the Taira clan, sung in the epic Tale of Heike, samurai Minamoto no Yoritomo was appointed shogun and established a base of power in Kamakura. After his death, the Hōjō clan came to power as regents for the shoguns. The Zen school of Buddhism was introduced from China in the Kamakura period (1185–1333) and became popular among the samurai class.[29] The Kamakura shogunate repelled Mongol invasions in 1274 and 1281, but was eventually overthrown by Emperor Go-Daigo. Go-Daigo was himself defeated by Ashikaga Takauji in 1336.

Ashikaga Takauji establishes the shogunate in Muromachi, Kyoto. It is a start of Muromachi Period (1336–1573). The Ashikaga shogunate receives glory in the age of Ashikaga Yoshimitsu, and the culture based on Zen Buddhism (art of *Miyabi*) has prospered. It evolves to Higashiyama Culture, and has prospered until the 16th century. On the other hand, the succeeding Ashikaga shogunate failed to control the feudal warlords (*daimyo*), and a civil war (the Ōnin War) began in 1467, opening the century-long Sengoku period ("Warring States").[30]

During the 16th century, traders and Jesuit missionaries from Portugal reached Japan for the first time, initiating direct commercial and cultural exchange between Japan and the West. Oda Nobunaga conquered many other daimyo using European technology and firearms; after he was assassinated in 1582, his successor Toyotomi Hideyoshi unified the nation in 1590. Hideyoshi invaded Korea twice, but following defeats by Korean and Ming Chinese forces and Hideyoshi's death, Japanese troops were withdrawn in 1598.[31] This age is called Azuchi-Momoyama Period (1573–1603).

Tokugawa Ieyasu served as regent for Hideyoshi's son and used his position to gain political and military support. When open war broke out, he defeated rival clans in the Battle of Sekigahara in 1600. Ieyasu was appointed shogun in 1603 and established the Tokugawa shogunate at Edo (modern Tokyo).[32] The Tokugawa shogunate enacted measures including *buke shohatto*, as a



Ginkaku-ji in Kyoto (Higashiyama period in Muromachi Period, c. 1489). It was registered as part of the UNESCO World Heritage Site "Historic Monuments of Ancient Kyoto".

code of conduct to control the autonomous daimyo;[33] and in 1639, the isolationist *sakoku* ("closed country") policy that spanned the two and a half centuries of tenuous political unity known as the Edo period (1603–1868).[34] The study of Western sciences, known as *rangaku*, continued through contact with the Dutch enclave at Dejima in Nagasaki. The Edo period also gave rise to *kokugaku* ("national studies"), the study of Japan by the Japanese.[35]

Modern era

On March 31, 1854, Commodore Matthew Perry and the "Black Ships" of the United States Navy forced the opening of Japan to the outside world with the Convention of Kanagawa. Subsequent similar treaties with Western countries in the Bakumatsu period brought economic and political crises. The resignation of the shogun led to the Boshin War and the establishment of a centralized state nominally unified under the Emperor (the Meiji Restoration).[36] Adopting Western political, judicial and military institutions, the Cabinet organized the Privy Council, introduced the Meiji Constitution, and assembled the Imperial Diet. The Meiji Restoration transformed the Empire of Japan into an industrialized world power that pursued military conflict to expand its sphere of influence. After victories in the First Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895) and the Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905), Japan gained control of Taiwan, Korea, and the southern half of Sakhalin.[37] Japan's population grew from 35 million in 1873 to 70 million in 1935.[38]

The early 20th century saw a brief period of "Taishō democracy" overshadowed by increasing expansionism and militarization. World War I enabled Japan, on the side of the victorious Allies, to widen its influence and territorial holdings. It continued its expansionist policy by occupying Manchuria in 1931; as a result of international condemnation of this occupation, Japan resigned from the League of Nations two years later. In 1936, Japan signed the Anti-Comintern Pact with Nazi Germany, and the 1940 Tripartite Pact made it one of the Axis Powers.[39] In 1941, Japan negotiated the Soviet–Japanese Neutrality Pact.[40]



The Meiji Emperor (1868–1912), in whose name imperial rule was restored at the end of the Tokugawa shogunate

The Empire of Japan invaded other parts of China in 1937, precipitating the Second Sino-Japanese War (1937–1945). In 1940, the Empire then invaded French Indochina, after which the United States placed an oil embargo on Japan.[41] On December 7, 1941, Japan attacked the US naval base at Pearl Harbor and declared war, bringing the US into World War II.[42][43] After the Soviet invasion of Manchuria and the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in 1945, Japan agreed to an unconditional surrender on August 15.[44] The war cost Japan and the rest of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere millions of lives and left much of the nation's industry and infrastructure destroyed. The Allies (led by the US) repatriated millions of ethnic Japanese from colonies and military camps throughout Asia, largely eliminating the Japanese empire and restoring the independence of its conquered territories.[45] The Allies also convened the International Military Tribunal for the Far East on May 3, 1946 to prosecute some Japanese leaders for war crimes. However, the bacteriological research units and members of the imperial family involved in the war were exonerated from criminal prosecutions by the Supreme Allied Commander despite calls for trials for both groups.[46]

In 1947, Japan adopted a new constitution emphasizing liberal democratic practices. The Allied occupation ended with the Treaty of San Francisco in 1952[47] and Japan was granted membership in the United Nations in 1956. Japan later achieved rapid growth to become the second-largest economy in the world, until surpassed by China in 2010. This ended in the mid-1990s when Japan suffered a major recession. In the beginning of the 21st century, positive growth has signaled a gradual economic recovery.[48] On March 11, 2011, Japan suffered the strongest earthquake in its recorded history; this triggered the Fukushima I nuclear accidents, one of the worst disasters in the history of nuclear power.[49]

Politics

Main articles: Politics of Japan and Government of Japan

Japan is a constitutional monarchy where the power of the Emperor is very limited. As a ceremonial figurehead, he is defined by the constitution as "the symbol of the state and of the unity of the people". Power is held chiefly by the Prime Minister of Japan and other elected members of the Diet, while sovereignty is vested in the Japanese people.[50] Akihito is the current Emperor of Japan; Naruhito, Crown Prince of Japan, stands as next in line to the throne.


Emperor Akihito and Empress Michiko

Japan's legislative organ is the National Diet, a bicameral parliament. The Diet consists of a House of Representatives with 480 seats, elected by popular vote every four years or when dissolved, and a House of Councillors of 242 seats, whose popularly-elected members serve six-year terms. There is universal suffrage for adults over 20 years of age,[2] with a secret ballot for all elected offices.[50] In 2009, the social liberal Democratic Party of Japan took power after 54 years of the liberal conservative Liberal Democratic Party's rule.[51] The Prime Minister of Japan is the head of government and is appointed by the Emperor after being designated by the Diet from among its members. The Prime Minister is the head of the Cabinet and appoints and dismisses the Ministers of State. Naoto Kan was designated by the Diet to replace Yukio Hatoyama as the Prime Minister of Japan on June 2, 2010.[52] Although the Prime Minister is formally appointed by the Emperor, the Constitution of Japan explicitly requires the Emperor to appoint whoever is designated by the Diet. Emperor Akihito formally appointed Kan as the country's 94th Prime Minister on June 8.[53]

Historically influenced by Chinese law, the Japanese legal system developed independently during the Edo period through texts such as *Kujikata Osadamegaki*.[54] However, since the late 19th century the judicial system has been largely based on the civil law of Europe, notably Germany. For example, in 1896, the Japanese government established a civil code based on a draft of the German Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch; with post–World War II modifications, the code remains in effect.[55] Statutory law originates in Japan's legislature and has the rubber stamp of the Emperor. The Constitution requires that the Emperor promulgate legislation passed by the Diet, without specifically giving him the power to oppose legislation.[50] Japan's court system is divided into four basic tiers: the Supreme Court and three levels of lower courts.[56] The main body of Japanese statutory law is called the Six Codes.[57]

Foreign relations and military

Main articles: Foreign relations of Japan and Japan Self-Defense Forces

Japan is a member of the G8, APEC, and "ASEAN Plus Three", and is a participant in the East Asia Summit. Japan signed a security pact with Australia in March 2007[58] and with India in October 2008.[59] It is the world's third largest donor of official development assistance after the United States and France, donating US$9.48 billion in 2009.[60]


JDS *Kongō* (DDG-173) guided missile destroyer launching a Standard Missile 3 anti-ballistic missile.

Japan has close economic and military relations with the United States; the US-Japan security alliance acts as the cornerstone of the nation's foreign policy.[61] A member state of the United Nations since 1956, Japan has served as a non-permanent Security Council member for a total of 19 years, most recently for 2009 and 2010. It is one of the G4 nations seeking permanent membership in the Security Council.[62]

Japan is engaged in several territorial disputes with its neighbors: with Russia over the South Kuril Islands, with South Korea over the Liancourt Rocks, with China and Taiwan over the Senkaku Islands, and with China over the EEZ around Okinotorishima.[63] Japan also faces an ongoing dispute with North Korea over the latter's abduction of Japanese citizens and its nuclear weapons and missile program (see also Six-party talks).[64]

Japan maintains one of the largest military budgets of any country in the world.[65] Japan contributed non-combatant troops to the Iraq War but subsequently withdrew its forces.[66] The Japan Maritime Self-Defense Force is a regular participant in RIMPAC maritime exercises.[67]

Japan's military is restricted by Article 9 of the Japanese Constitution, which renounces Japan's right to declare war or use military force in international disputes. Japan's military is governed by the Ministry of Defense, and primarily consists of the Japan Ground Self-Defense Force (JGSDF), the Japan Maritime Self-Defense Force (JMSDF) and the Japan Air Self-Defense Force (JASDF). The forces have been recently used in peacekeeping operations; the deployment of troops to Iraq marked the first overseas use of Japan's military since World War II.[66] Nippon Keidanren has called on the government to lift the ban on arms exports so that Japan can join multinational projects such as the Joint Strike Fighter.[68]

Administrative divisions

Main articles: Prefectures of Japan, Regions of Japan, Cities of Japan, Towns of Japan, and Villages of Japan

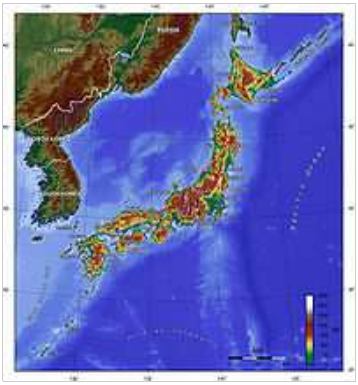
Japan consists of forty-seven prefectures, each overseen by an elected governor, legislature and administrative bureaucracy. Each prefecture is further divided into cities, towns and villages.[69] The nation is currently undergoing administrative reorganization by merging many of the cities, towns and villages with each other. This process will reduce the number of sub-prefecture administrative regions and is expected to cut administrative costs.[70]



Geography

Main articles: Geography of Japan and Geology of Japan

Japan has a total of 6,852 islands extending along the Pacific coast of East Asia.[71][72] The country, including all of the islands it controls, lies between latitudes 24° and 46°N, and longitudes 122° and 146°E. The main islands, from north to south, are Hokkaidō, Honshū, Shikoku and Kyūshū. The Ryūkyū Islands, including Okinawa, are a chain to the south of Kyūshū. Together they are often known as the Japanese Archipelago.[73] About 73 percent of Japan is forested, mountainous, and unsuitable for agricultural, industrial, or residential use.[2][74] As a result, the habitable zones, mainly located in coastal areas, have extremely high population densities. Japan is one of the most densely populated countries in the world.[75]



Topographic map of the Japanese Archipelago

The islands of Japan are located in a volcanic zone on the Pacific Ring of Fire. They are primarily the result of large oceanic movements occurring over hundreds of millions of years from the mid-Silurian to the Pleistocene as a result of the subduction of the Philippine Sea Plate beneath the continental Amurian Plate and Okinawa Plate to the south, and subduction of the Pacific Plate under the Okhotsk Plate to the north. Japan was originally attached to the eastern coast of the Eurasian continent. The subducting plates pulled Japan eastward, opening the Sea of Japan around 15 million years ago.[76] Japan has 108 active volcanoes. Destructive earthquakes, often resulting in tsunami, occur several times each century.[77] The 1923 Tokyo earthquake killed over 140,000 people.[78] More recent major quakes are the 1995 Great Hanshin earthquake and the 2011 Tōhoku earthquake, a 9.0-magnitude[79] quake which hit Japan on March 11, 2011, and triggered a large tsunami.[49]



Hanami celebrations under the cherry blossoms in Ueno Park, Tokyo

Climate

Main article: Climate of Japan



Autumn leaves (momiji) at Kongōbu-ji on Mount Kōya, a UNESCO World Heritage Site

The climate of Japan is predominantly temperate, but varies greatly from north to south. Japan's geographical features divide it into six principal climatic zones: Hokkaidō, Sea of Japan, Central Highland, Seto Inland Sea, Pacific Ocean, and Ryūkyū Islands. The northernmost zone, Hokkaido, has a temperate climate with long, cold winters and cool summers. Precipitation is not heavy, but the islands usually develop deep snowbanks in the winter. In the Sea of Japan zone on Honshū's west coast, northwest winter winds bring heavy snowfall. In the summer, the region is cooler than the Pacific area, though it sometimes experiences extremely hot temperatures because of the foehn wind. The Central Highland has a typical inland climate, with large temperature differences between summer and winter, and between day and night; precipitation is light. The mountains of the Chūgoku and Shikoku regions shelter the Seto Inland Sea from seasonal winds, bringing mild weather year-round. The Pacific coast experiences cold winters with little snowfall and hot, humid summers because of the southeast seasonal wind. The Ryukyu Islands have a subtropical climate, with warm winters and hot summers. Precipitation is very heavy, especially during the rainy season.[80]

The average winter temperature in Japan is 5.1 °C (41.2 °F) and the average summer temperature is 25.2 °C (77.4 °F).[81] The highest temperature ever measured in Japan—40.9 °C (105.6 °F)—was recorded on August 16, 2007.[82] The main rainy season begins in early May in Okinawa, and the rain front gradually moves north until reaching Hokkaidō in late July. In most of Honshū, the rainy season begins before the middle of June and lasts about six weeks. In late summer and early autumn, typhoons often bring heavy rain.[83]

Biodiversity

Japan has nine forest ecoregions which reflect the climate and geography of the islands. They range from subtropical moist broadleaf forests in the Ryūkyū and Bonin Islands, to temperate broadleaf and mixed forests in the mild climate regions of the main islands, to temperate coniferous forests in the cold, winter portions of the northern islands.[84] Japan has over 90,000 species of wildlife, including the brown bear, the Japanese macaque, the Japanese raccoon dog, and the Japanese giant

salamander.[85] A large network of national parks has been established to protect important areas of flora and fauna as well as thirty-seven Ramsar wetland sites.[86][87]

Environment

Main article: Environmental issues in Japan

In the period of rapid economic growth after World War II, environmental policies were downplayed by the government and industrial corporations; as a result, environmental pollution was widespread in the 1950s and 1960s. Responding to rising concern about the problem, the government introduced several environmental protection laws in 1970.[88] The oil crisis in 1973 also encouraged the efficient use of energy due to Japan's lack of natural resources.[89] Current environmental issues include urban air pollution (NOx, suspended particulate matter, and toxics), waste management, water eutrophication, nature conservation, climate change, chemical management and international co-operation for conservation.[90]

Japan is one of the world's leaders in the development of new environment-friendly technologies, and is ranked 20th best in the world in the 2010 Environmental Performance Index.[91] As a signatory of the Kyoto Protocol, and host of the 1997 conference which created it, Japan is under treaty obligation to reduce its carbon dioxide emissions and to take other steps to curb climate change.[92]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Japan



The Tokyo Stock Exchange, the largest stock exchange in Asia.[93]

Some of the structural features for Japan's economic growth developed in the Edo period, such as the network of transport routes, by road and water, and the futures contracts, banking and insurance of the Osaka rice brokers.[94] During the Meiji period from 1868, Japan expanded economically with the embrace of the market economy.[95] Many of today's enterprises were founded at the time, and Japan emerged as the most developed nation in Asia.[96] The period of overall real economic growth from the 1960s to the 1980s has been called the Japanese post-war economic miracle: it averaged 7.5 percent in the 1960s and 1970s, and 3.2 percent in the 1980s and early 1990s.[97] Growth slowed markedly in the 1990s during what the Japanese call the Lost Decade, largely because of the after-effects of the Japanese asset price bubble and domestic policies intended to wring speculative excesses from the stock and real estate markets. Government efforts to revive economic growth met with little success and were further hampered by the global slowdown in 2000.[2] The economy showed strong signs of recovery after 2005; GDP growth for that year was 2.8 percent, surpassing the growth rates of the US and European Union during the same period.[98]

As of 2011, Japan is the third largest national economy in the world, after the United States and China, in terms of nominal GDP,[99] and the fourth largest national economy in the world, after the United States, China and India in terms of purchasing power parity.[7] As of January 2011, Japan's public debt was more than 200 percent of its annual gross domestic product, the largest of any nation in the world. In August 2011, Moody's rating has cut Japan's long-term sovereign debt rating one notch from Aa3 to Aa2 inline with the size of the country's deficit and borrowing level. The large budget deficits and government debt since the 2009 global recession and followed by earthquake and tsunami in March 2011 made the rating downgrade.[100] The service sector accounts for three quarters of the gross domestic product.[101] Japan has a large industrial capacity, and is home to some of the largest and most technologically advanced producers of motor vehicles, electronics, machine tools, steel and nonferrous metals, ships, chemical substances, textiles, and processed foods. Agricultural businesses in Japan cultivate 13 percent of Japan's land, and Japan accounts for nearly 15 percent of the global fish catch, second only to China.[2] As of 2010, Japan's labor force consisted of some 65.9 million workers.[102] Japan has a low unemployment rate of around four percent. Almost one in six Japanese, or 20 million people, lived in poverty in 2007.[103] Housing in Japan is characterized by limited land supply in urban areas.[104]

Japan's exports amounted to US$4,210 per capita in 2005. Japan's main export markets are China (18.88 percent), the United States (16.42 percent), South Korea (8.13 percent), Taiwan (6.27 percent) and Hong Kong (5.49 percent) as of 2009. Its main

exports are transportation equipment, motor vehicles, electronics, electrical machinery and chemicals.[2] Japan's main import markets as of 2009 are China (22.2 percent), the US (10.96 percent), Australia (6.29 percent), Saudi Arabia (5.29 percent), United Arab Emirates (4.12 percent), South Korea (3.98 percent) and Indonesia (3.95 percent). Its main imports are machinery and equipment, fossil fuels, foodstuffs (in particular beef), chemicals, textiles and raw materials for its industries.[106] By market share measures, domestic markets are the least open of any OECD country.[107] Junichiro Koizumi's administration began some pro-competition reforms, and foreign investment in Japan has soared.[108]


A plug-in hybrid car manufactured by Toyota, one of the world's largest carmakers. Japan is the second-largest producer of automobiles in the world.[105]

Japan ranks 12th of 178 countries in the 2008 Ease of Doing Business Index and has one of the smallest tax revenues of the developed world. The Japanese variant of capitalism has many distinct features: keiretsu enterprises are influential, and lifetime employment and seniority-based career advancement are relatively common in the Japanese work environment.[107][109] Japanese companies are known for management methods like "The Toyota Way", and shareholder activism is rare.[110] Some of the largest enterprises in Japan include Toyota, Nintendo, NTT DoCoMo, Canon, Honda, Takeda Pharmaceutical, Sony, Panasonic, Toshiba, Sharp, Nippon Steel, Nippon Oil, and Seven & I Holdings Co.[111] It has some of the world's largest banks, and the Tokyo Stock Exchange (known for its Nikkei 225 and Topix indices) stands as the second largest in the world by market capitalization.[112] Japan is home to 326 companies from the Forbes Global 2000 or 16.3 percent (as of 2006).[113]

Science and technology

Main article: Science and technology in Japan

Japan is a leading nation in scientific research, particularly technology, machinery and biomedical research. Nearly 700,000 researchers share a US$130 billion research and development budget, the third largest in the world.[114] Japan is a world leader in fundamental scientific research, having produced fifteen Nobel laureates in either physics, chemistry or medicine,[115] three Fields medalists,[116] and one Gauss Prize laureate.[117] Some of Japan's more prominent technological contributions are in the fields of electronics, automobiles, machinery, earthquake engineering, industrial robotics, optics, chemicals, semiconductors and metals. Japan leads the world in robotics production and use, possessing more than half (402,200 of 742,500) of the world's industrial robots.[118]


H-II Transfer Vehicle

The Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) is Japan's space agency; it conducts space, planetary, and aviation research, and leads development of rockets and satellites. It is a participant in the International Space Station: the Japanese Experiment Module (Kibo) was added to the station during Space Shuttle assembly flights in 2008.[119] Japan's plans in space exploration include: launching a space probe to Venus, *Akatsuki*;[120][121] developing the *Mercury Magnetospheric Orbiter* to be launched in 2013;[122][123] and building a moon base by 2030.[124] On September 14, 2007, it launched lunar explorer "*SELENE*" (**Sel**enological and **En**gineering **E**xplorer) on an H-IIA (Model H2A2022) carrier rocket from Tanegashima Space Center. *SELENE* is also known as *Kaguya*, after the lunar princess of *The Tale of the Bamboo Cutter*.[125] *Kaguya* is the largest lunar mission since the Apollo program. Its purpose is to gather data on the moon's origin and evolution. It entered a lunar orbit on October 4,[126][127] flying at an altitude of about 100 km (62 mi).[128] The probe's mission was ended when it was deliberately crashed by JAXA into the Moon on 11 June 2009.[129]

Infrastructure

Main articles: Energy in Japan and Transport in Japan

As of 2008, 46.4 percent of energy in Japan is produced from petroleum, 21.4 percent from coal, 16.7 percent from natural gas, 9.7 percent from nuclear power, and 2.9 percent from hydro power. Nuclear power produced 25.1 percent of Japan's electricity, as of 2009.[131] However, in the wake of the Tohoku earthquake and the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear disaster, some nuclear reactors have been taken off-line and reliance on fossil fuels is higher.[132] Given its heavy dependence on imported



Nozomi Shinkansen or 'Bullet train' at Tokyo Station[130]

energy,[133] Japan has aimed to diversify its sources and maintain high levels of energy efficiency.[134]

Japan's road spending has been extensive.[135] Its 1.2 million kilometers of paved road are the main means of transportation.[136] A single network of high-speed, divided, limited-access toll roads connects major cities and is operated by toll-collecting enterprises. New and used cars are inexpensive; car ownership fees and fuel levies are used to promote energy efficiency. However, at just 50 percent of all distance traveled, car usage is the lowest of all G8 countries.[137]

Dozens of Japanese railway companies compete in regional and local passenger transportation markets; major companies include seven JR enterprises, Kintetsu Corporation, Seibu Railway and Keio Corporation. Some 250 high-speed Shinkansen trains connect major cities and Japanese trains are known for their safety and punctuality.[138][139] Proposals for a new Maglev route between Tokyo and Osaka are at an advanced stage.[140] There are 173 airports in Japan; the largest domestic airport, Haneda Airport, is Asia's second-busiest airport.[141] The largest international gateways are Narita International Airport, Kansai International Airport and Chūbu Centrair International Airport.[142] Nagoya Port is the country's largest and busiest port, accounting for 10 percent of Japan's trade value.[143]

Demographics

Main articles: Demographics of Japan, Japanese people, and Racial issues in Japan

Japan's population is estimated at around 127.3 million.[2] Japanese society is linguistically and culturally homogeneous,[144] composed of 98.5% ethnic Japanese,[145] with small populations of foreign workers.[144] Zainichi Koreans,[146] Zainichi Chinese, Filipinos, Brazilians mostly of Japanese descent,[147] and Peruvians mostly of Japanese descent are among the small minority groups in Japan.[148] In 2003, there were about 134,700 non-Latin American Western and 345,500 Latin American expatriates, 274,700 of whom were Brazilians (said to be primarily Japanese descendants, or *nikkeijin*, along with their spouses),[147] the largest community of Westerners.[149]

The most dominant native ethnic group is the Yamato people; primary minority groups include the indigenous Ainu[150] and Ryukyuan peoples, as well as social minority groups like the *burakumin*.[151] There are persons of mixed ancestry incorporated among the 'ethnic Japanese' or Yamato, such as those from Ogasawara Archipelago where roughly one-tenth of the Japanese population can have European, American, Micronesian and/or Polynesian backgrounds, with some families going back up to seven generations.[152] In spite of the widespread belief that Japan is ethnically homogeneous (in 2009, foreign-born non-naturalized workers made up only 1.7% of the total population),[153] also due to the absence of ethnicity and/or race statistics for Japanese nationals, at least one analysis describes Japan as a multiethnic society, for example, John Lie.[154] Internal to Japan, individuals may be described as Jomon or Yayoi although the distinction is largely facetious (i.e., almost all modern Japanese DNA is Yayoi).

Japan has the longest overall life expectancy at birth of any country in the world: 83.5 years for persons born in the period 2010–2015.[11][12] The Japanese population is rapidly aging as a result of a post–World War II baby boom followed by a decrease in birth rates. In 2009, about 22.7 percent of the population was over 65, by 2050 almost 40 percent of the population will be aged 65 and over, as projected in December 2006.[155] The changes in demographic structure have created a number of social issues, particularly a potential decline in workforce population and increase in the cost of social security benefits like the public pension plan. A growing number of younger Japanese are preferring not to marry or have families.[156] In 2011, Japan's population dropped for a fifth year, falling by 204,000 people to 126.24 million people. This is the greatest decline since at least 1947, the first year for which government data is available. The 1.26 million deaths included 15,844 people killed and 3,451 left missing by the tsunami.[157]

Japan's population is expected to drop to 95 million by 2050,[155][158] demographers and government planners are currently in a heated debate over how to cope with this problem.[156] Immigration and birth incentives are sometimes suggested as a solution

to provide younger workers to support the nation's aging population.[159][160] Japan accepts a steady flow of 15,000 *new Japanese citizens* by *naturalization* (帰化) per year.[161] According to the UNHCR, in 2007 Japan accepted just 41 refugees for resettlement, while the US took in 50,000.[162]

Japan suffers from a high suicide rate.[163][164] In 2009, the number of suicides exceeded 30,000 for the twelfth straight year.[165] Suicide is the leading cause of death for people under 30.[166]

Largest cities of Japan
2010 Census[167]


Tokyo


Yokohama

Rank	City name	Prefecture	Pop.	Rank	City name	Prefecture	Pop.
1	**Tokyo**	Tokyo	8,949,447	11	**Hiroshima**	Hiroshima	1,174,209
2	**Yokohama**	Kanagawa	3,689,603	12	**Sendai**	Miyagi	1,045,903
3	**Osaka**	Osaka	2,666,371	13	**Kitakyūshū**	Fukuoka	977,288
4	**Nagoya**	Aichi	2,263,907	14	**Chiba**	Chiba	962,130
5	**Sapporo**	Hokkaidō	1,914,434	15	**Sakai**	Osaka	842,134
6	**Kōbe**	Hyōgo	1,544,873	16	**Niigata**	Niigata	812,192
7	**Kyōto**	Kyōto	1,474,473	17	**Hamamatsu**	Shizuoka	800,912
8	**Fukuoka**	Fukuoka	1,463,826	18	**Kumamoto**	Kumamoto	734,294
9	**Kawasaki**	Kanagawa	1,425,678	19	**Sagamihara**	Kanagawa	717,561
10	**Saitama**	Saitama	1,222,910	20	**Shizuoka**	Shizuoka	716,328


Osaka


Nagoya

Religion

Main article: Religion in Japan

Upper estimates suggest that 84–96 percent of the Japanese population subscribe to Buddhism or Shinto, including a large number of followers of a syncretism of both religions.[2][168] However, these estimates are based on people affiliated with a temple, rather than the number of true believers. Other studies have suggested that only 30 percent of the population identify themselves as belonging to a religion.[169] Nevertheless the level of participation remains high, especially during festivals and occasions such as the first shrine visit of the New Year. Taoism and Confucianism from China have also influenced Japanese beliefs and customs.[170] Fewer than one percent of Japanese are Christian.[171] In addition, since the mid-19th century numerous new religious movements have emerged in Japan.[172]


Torii of Itsukushima Shrine near Hiroshima, one of the Three Views of Japan and a UNESCO World Heritage Site

Languages

Main article: Japanese language

More than 99 percent of the population speaks Japanese as their first language.[2] It is an agglutinative language distinguished by a system of honorifics reflecting the hierarchical nature of Japanese society, with verb forms and particular vocabulary indicating the relative status of speaker and listener. Japanese writing uses kanji (Chinese characters) and two sets of kana (syllabaries based on simplified Chinese characters), as well as the Latin alphabet and Arabic numerals.[173]

Besides Japanese, the Ryukyuan languages, also part of the Japonic language family, are spoken in Okinawa; however, few children learn these languages.[174] The Ainu language, which is unrelated to Japanese or any other known language, is moribund, with only a few elderly native speakers remaining in Hokkaido.[175] Most public and private schools require students

to take courses in both Japanese and English.[176]

Education

Main article: Education in Japan



Announcement of the results of the entrance examinations to the University of Tokyo

Primary schools, secondary schools and universities were introduced in 1872 as a result of the Meiji Restoration.[177] Since 1947, compulsory education in Japan comprises elementary and middle school, which together last for nine years (from age 6 to age 15). Almost all children continue their education at a three-year senior high school, and, according to the MEXT, as of 2005 about 75.9 percent of high school graduates attend a university, junior college, trade school, or other higher education institution.[178] The two top-ranking universities in Japan are the University of Tokyo and Kyoto University.[179][180] The Programme for International Student Assessment coordinated by the OECD currently ranks the overall knowledge and skills of Japanese 15-year-olds as sixth best in the world.[181]

Health

Main article: Health care in Japan

In Japan, health care is provided by national and local governments. Payment for personal medical services is offered through a universal health insurance system that provides relative equality of access, with fees set by a government committee. People without insurance through employers can participate in a national health insurance program administered by local governments. Since 1973, all elderly persons have been covered by government-sponsored insurance.[182] Patients are free to select the physicians or facilities of their choice.[183]

Culture

Main articles: Culture of Japan, Japanese popular culture, and Japanese folklore


Kinkaku-ji or 'The Temple of the Golden Pavilion' in Kyoto, Special Historic Site, Special Place of Scenic Beauty, and UNESCO World Heritage Site; its torching by a monk in 1950 is the subject of a novel by Mishima

Japanese culture has evolved greatly from its origins. Contemporary culture combines influences from Asia, Europe and North America. Traditional Japanese arts include crafts such as ceramics, textiles, lacquerware, swords and dolls; performances of bunraku, kabuki, noh, dance, and rakugo; and other practices, the tea ceremony, ikebana, martial arts, calligraphy, origami, onsen, Geisha and games. Japan has a developed system for the protection and promotion of both tangible and intangible Cultural Properties and National Treasures.[184] Sixteen sites have been inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage List.[185]

Art

Main articles: Japanese art, Japanese architecture, Japanese gardens, and Japanese aesthetics


The Great Wave off Kanagawa,

The Shrines of Ise have been celebrated as the prototype of Japanese architecture.[186] Largely of wood, traditional housing and many temple buildings see the use of tatami mats and sliding doors that break down the distinction between rooms and indoor and outdoor space.[187] Japanese sculpture, largely of wood, and Japanese painting are among the oldest of the Japanese arts, with early figurative paintings dating back to at least 300 BC. The history of Japanese painting exhibits synthesis and competition between native Japanese aesthetics and adaptation of imported ideas. The interaction between Japanese and European art has been significant: for example ukiyo-e prints, which began to be exported in the 19th century in the movement known as Japonism, had a significant influence on the development of modern art in the West, most notably on post-Impressionism.[188] Famous ukiyo-e artists include Hokusai and Hiroshige. The fusion of traditional woodblock printing

and Western art led to the creation of manga, a comic book format that is now popular within and outside Japan.[189] Manga-influenced animation for television and film is called anime. Japanese-made video game consoles have been popular since the 1980s.[190]


one of a series of woodblock prints by Hokusai

Music

Main article: Music of Japan

Japanese music is eclectic and diverse. Many instruments, such as the koto, were introduced in the 9th and 10th centuries. The accompanied recitative of the Noh drama dates from the 14th century and the popular folk music, with the guitar-like shamisen, from the sixteenth.[191] Western classical music, introduced in the late 19th century, now forms an integral part of Japanese culture. The imperial court ensemble Gagaku has influenced the work of some modern Western composers.[192] Notable classical composers from Japan include Toru Takemitsu and Rentarō Taki. Popular music in post-war Japan has been heavily influenced by American and European trends, which has led to the evolution of J-pop, or Japanese popular music.[193] Karaoke is the most widely practiced cultural activity in Japan. A 1993 survey by the Cultural Affairs Agency found that more Japanese had sung karaoke that year than had participated in traditional pursuits such as flower arranging (ikebana) or tea ceremonies.[194]

Literature

Main articles: Japanese literature and Japanese poetry

The earliest works of Japanese literature include the *Kojiki* and *Nihon Shoki* chronicles and the *Man'yōshū* poetry anthology, all from the 8th century and written in Chinese characters.[195][196] In the early Heian period, the system of phonograms known as *kana* (Hiragana and Katakana) was developed. *The Tale of the Bamboo Cutter* is considered the oldest Japanese narrative.[197] An account of Heian court life is given in *The Pillow Book* by Sei Shōnagon, while *The Tale of Genji* by Murasaki Shikibu is often described as the world's first novel.[198][199]


12th-century illustrated handscroll of *The Tale of Genji*, a National Treasure

During the Edo period, the chōnin ("townspeople") overtook the samurai aristocracy as producers and consumers of literature. The popularity of the works of Saikaku, for example, reveals this change in readership and authorship, while Bashō revivified the poetic tradition of the Kokinshū with his haikai (haiku) and wrote the poetic travelogue *Oku no Hosomichi*.[200] The Meiji era saw the decline of traditional literary forms as Japanese literature integrated Western influences. Natsume Sōseki and Mori Ōgai were the first "modern" novelists of Japan, followed by Ryūnosuke Akutagawa, Jun'ichirō Tanizaki, Yasunari Kawabata, Yukio Mishima and, more recently, Haruki Murakami. Japan has two Nobel Prize-winning authors—Yasunari Kawabata (1968) and Kenzaburō Ōe (1994).[197]

Cuisine

Main article: Japanese cuisine

The primary staple is Japanese rice. In the early modern era ingredients such as red meats that had previously not been widely used in Japan were introduced. Japanese cuisine is known for its emphasis on seasonality of food,[201] quality of ingredients and presentation. Japanese cuisine offers a vast array of regional specialties that use traditional recipes and local ingredients. The Michelin Guide has awarded Japanese cities more Michelin stars than the rest of the world combined.[202]


Breakfast at a ryokan or inn

Sports

Main article: Sport in Japan

Traditionally, sumo is considered Japan's national sport.[203] Japanese martial arts such as judo, karate and kendo are also widely practiced and enjoyed by spectators in the country. After the Meiji Restoration, many Western sports were introduced in

Japan and began to spread through the education system.[204] Japan hosted the Summer Olympics in Tokyo in 1964. Japan has hosted the Winter Olympics twice: Nagano in 1998 and Sapporo in 1972.[205]



Sumo wrestlers form around the referee during the ring-entering ceremony

The Japanese professional baseball league was established in 1936.[206] Today baseball is the most popular spectator sport in the country. Since the establishment of the Japan Professional Football League in 1992, association football has also gained a wide following.[207] Japan was a venue of the Intercontinental Cup from 1981 to 2004 and co-hosted the 2002 FIFA World Cup with South Korea.[208] Japan has one of the most successful football teams in Asia, winning the Asian Cup four times.[209] Also, Japan recently won the FIFA Women's World Cup in 2011.[210] Golf is also popular in Japan,[211] as are forms of auto racing like the Super GT series and Formula Nippon.[212]

Yuta Tabuse gained considerable international attention as he was Japan's first basketball player to play in the NBA.[213]

See also

- Outline of Japan
- Index of Japan-related articles

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History of Japan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **history of Japan** encompasses the history of the islands of Japan and the Japanese people, spanning the ancient history of the region to the modern history of Japan as a nation state. Following the last ice age, around 12,000 BC, the rich ecosystem of the Japanese Archipelago fostered human development. The earliest-known pottery belongs to the Jōmon period. The first known written reference to Japan is in the brief information given in *Twenty-Four Histories* in the 1st century AD. The main cultural and religious influences came from China.

The first permanent capital was founded at Nara in 710 AD, which became a center of Buddhist art, religion and culture. The current imperial family emerged about 700 AD, but until 1868 (with few exceptions) had high prestige but little power. By 1550 or so political power was subdivided into several hundred local units, or "domains" controlled by local "daimyō" (lords), each with his own force of samurai warriors. Tokugawa Ieyasu came to power in 1600, gave land to his supporters, set up his "bakufu" (military government) at Edo (modern Tokyo). The "Tokugawa period" was prosperous and peaceful, but Japan deliberately terminated the Christian missions and cut off almost all contact with the outside world. In the 1860s the Meiji Period began, and the new national leadership systematically ended feudalism and transformed an isolated, underdeveloped island country into a world power that closely followed Western models. Democracy was problematic, because Japan's powerful military was semi-independent and overruled—or assassinated—civilians in the 1920s and 1930s. The military moved into China starting in 1931 but was defeated in the Pacific War by the United States and Britain.

Occupied by the U.S. after the war and stripped of its conquests, Japan was transformed into a peaceful and democratic nation. After 1950 it enjoyed very high economic growth rates, and became a world economic powerhouse, especially in automobiles and electronics. Since the 1990s economic stagnation has been a major issue, with an earthquake and tsunami in 2011 causing massive economic dislocations.

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- Earthquakes

Glossary · Timeline

Japanese prehistory

Paleolithic Age

Main article: Japanese Paleolithic



Polished stone axes, excavated at Hinatabayashi B site, Shinano city, Nagano. Pre-Jōmon period, 30,000 BC. Tokyo National Museum

The Japanese Paleolithic age covers a lengthy period starting as early as 50,000 BC and ending sometime around 12,000 BC, at the end of the last ice age. Artifacts claimed to be older than ca. 38,000 BC are not generally accepted, and most historians therefore believe that the Japanese Paleolithic started after 38,000 BC.[1]

The Japanese archipelago would become disconnected from the mainland continent after the last ice age, around 11,000 BC. After a hoax by an amateur researcher, Shinichi Fujimura, had been exposed,[2] the Lower and Middle Paleolithic evidence reported by Fujimura and his associates has been rejected after thorough reinvestigation.

As a result of the fallout over the hoax, now only some Upper Paleolithic evidence (not associated with Fujimura) can possibly be considered as having been well established.

Ancient Japan

Jōmon period



A Middle Jōmon vessel (3000–2000 BCE)

Main article: Jōmon period

The Jōmon period lasted from about 14,000 until 300 BC. The first signs of civilization and stable living patterns appeared around 14,000 BC with the Jōmon culture, characterized by a Mesolithic to Neolithic semi-sedentary hunter-gatherer lifestyle of wood stilt house and pit dwellings and a rudimentary form of agriculture.

Weaving was still unknown at the time and clothes were often made of furs. The Jōmon people started to make clay vessels, decorated with patterns made by impressing the wet clay with braided or unbraided cord and sticks. Based on radio-carbon dating, some of the oldest surviving examples of pottery in the world can be found in Japan along with daggers, jade, combs made of shells, and various other household items dated to the 11th millennium BC.[3]

Alternatively, the Metropolitan Museum of Art's Timeline of Art History notes "Carbon-14 testing of the earliest known shards has yielded a production date of about 10,500 BC, but because this date falls outside the known chronology of pottery development elsewhere in the world, such an early date is not generally accepted.[4]

Calibrated radiocarbon measures of carbonized material from pottery artifacts: Fukui Cave 12500 ± 350 BP and 12500 ± 500 BP (Kamaki & Serizawa 1967), Kamikuroiwa rock shelter 12, 165 ± 350 years BP in Shikoku.[5] although the specific dating is disputed.

Clay figures known as dogū were also excavated. The household items suggest trade routes existed with places as far away as Okinawa.[*citation needed*] DNA analysis suggests that the Ainu, an indigenous people that live in Hokkaidō and the northern part of Honshū, are descended from the Jōmon and thus represent descendants of the first inhabitants of Japan.[*citation needed*]

Yayoi period

Main article: Yayoi period


A Yayoi period Dōtaku, 3rd century AD

The Yayoi period lasted from about 400 or 300 BC until 250 AD. This period followed the Jōmon period and completely supplanted it. This period is named after Yayoi town, the subsection of Bunkyō, Tokyo, where archaeological investigations uncovered its first recognized traces.

The start of the Yayoi period marked the influx of new practices such as weaving, rice farming, shamanism,[*citation needed*] and iron and bronze making. Bronze and iron appear to have been simultaneously introduced into Yayoi Japan. Iron was mainly used for agricultural and other tools, whereas, bronze was used for ritual and ceremonial artifacts. Some casting of bronze and iron began in Japan by about 100 BC, but the raw materials for both metals were introduced from the Asian continent.

Japan first appeared in written records in 57 AD with the following mention in China's Book of the Later Han:[6] "Across the ocean from Lelang are the people of Wa. Formed from more than one hundred tribes, they come and pay tribute frequently." The book also recorded that Suishō, the king of Wa, presented slaves to the Emperor An of Han in 107. The *Sanguo Zhi*, written in the 3rd century, noted that the country was the unification of some 30 small tribes or states and ruled by a shaman queen named Himiko of Yamataikoku.

During the Han and Wei dynasties, Chinese travelers to Kyūshū recorded its inhabitants and claimed that they were the descendants of the Grand Count (Tàibó) of the Wu. The inhabitants also show traits of the pre-sinicized Wu people with tattooing, teeth-pulling, and baby-carrying. The *Sanguo Zhi* records the physical descriptions which are similar to ones on *haniwa* statues, such as men wearing braided hair and tattoos and women wearing large, single-pieced clothing.

The Yoshinogari site in Kyūshū is the most famous archaeological site of the Yayoi period and reveals a large settlement continuously inhabited for several hundred years. Archaeological excavation has shown the most ancient parts to be from around 400 BC. It appears that the inhabitants had frequent communication and trade relations with the mainland. Today, some reconstructed buildings stand in the park on the archaeological site.[*citation needed*]

Kofun period

Main article: Kofun period

The Kofun period began around 250 AD, is named after the large tumulus burial mounds (*kofun*) that started appearing around that time.

The Kofun period (the *"Kofun-Jidai"*) saw the establishment of strong military states, each of them concentrated around powerful clans (or *zoku*). The establishment of the dominant Yamato polity was centered in the provinces of Yamato and Kawachi from the 3rd century AD till the 7th century, establishing the origin of the Japanese imperial lineage. And so the polity, by suppressing the clans and acquiring agricultural lands, maintained a strong influence in the western part of Japan.


Daisenryō Kofun, Osaka, 5th century.

Japan started to send tributes to Imperial China in the 5th century. In the Chinese history records, the polity was called Wa, and its five kings were recorded. Based upon the Chinese model, they developed a central administration and an imperial court system, with its society being organized into various occupation groups. Close relationships between the Three Kingdoms of Korea and Japan began during the middle of this period, around the end of the 4th century.

Classical Japan

Asuka period

Main article: Asuka period


Mural painting on the wall of the Takamatsuzuka Tomb, Asuka, Nara, 8th century

During the Asuka period (538 to 710), the proto-Japanese Yamato polity gradually became a clearly centralized state, defining and applying a code of governing laws, such as the Taika Reforms and Taihō Code.[7] Also during the same period, the Japanese developed strong economic ties with the Paikche or Baekje people, who lived on the southwestern coast of the Korean Peninsula. Good relations with the Baekje had begun in 391 when a Japanese expedition saved the King of Baekje and the Baekje people from their traditional enemies—the Koguryo people—who lived in the northern part of the Korean Peninsula.[8]

Indeed, Buddhism was introduced to Japan in 538 by Baekje people, to whom Japan continued to provide military support.[9] In Japan, however, Buddhism was promoted largely by the ruling class for their own purposes. Accordingly, in the early stages, Buddhism was not a popular religion with the common people of Japan.[10] However, the introduction of Buddhism led to a discontinuing of the practice of burying deceased people in large kofuns.

Prince Shōtoku came to power in Japan as Regent to Empress Suiko in 594. Empress Suiko had come to the throne as the niece of the previous Emperor—Sujun (588–593)--who had been assassinated in 593. Empress Suiko had also been married to a prior Emperor—Bidatsu (572–585), but she was the first female ruler of Japan since the legendary matriarchal times.[11]

As Regent to Empress Suiko, Prince Shotoku devoted his efforts to the spread of Buddhism and Chinese culture in Japan.[11] He is also credited with bringing relative peace to Japan through the proclamation of the Seventeen-article constitution, a Confucian style document that focused on the kinds of morals and virtues that were to be expected of government officials and the emperor's subjects. Buddhism would become a permanent part of Japanese culture.

A letter brought to the Emperor of China by an emissary from Japan in 607 stated that the "Emperor of the Land where the Sun rises (Japan) sends a letter to the Emperor of the land where Sun sets (China)",[12] thereby implying an equal footing with China which angered the Chinese emperor.[13]

Nara period

Main article: Nara period



The Great Buddha at Nara, 752 AD.

The Nara period of the 8th century marked the emergence of a strong Japanese state and is often portrayed as a golden age. In 710, the capital city of Japan was moved from Asuka to Nara.[14] Hall (1966) concludes that "Japan had been transformed from a loose federation of uji in the fifth century to an empire on the order of Imperial China in the eighth century. A new theory of state and a new structure of government supported the Japanese sovereign in the style and with the powers of an absolute monarch."[15] Traditional, political, and economic practices were now organized through a rationally structured government apparatus that legally defined functions and precedents. Lands were surveyed and registered with the state. A powerful new aristocracy emerged. This aristocracy controlled the state and was supported by taxes that were efficiently collected. The government built great public works, including government offices, temples, roads, and irrigation systems. A new system of land tenure and taxation, which was designed to widely spread land ownership throughout the rural population, was introduced. Such allotments tended to be about one acre. However, they could be as small as one-tenth of an acre. However, lots for slaves were about two-thirds the size of the allotments to free men. Allotments were reviewed every five years when the census was conducted.[16]

There was a cultural flowering during this period.[14] Soon, dramatic new cultural manifestations characterized the Nara period, which lasted four centuries.[17]

Following an imperial rescript by Empress Gemmei, the capital was moved to Heijō-kyō, present-day Nara, in 710. The city was modeled on Chang'an (now Xi'an), the capital of the Chinese Tang Dynasty.

During the Nara Period, political development was marked by a struggle between the imperial family and the Buddhist clergy,[16] as well as between the imperial family and the regents—the Fujiwara clan. Japan did enjoy peaceful relations with their traditional foes—the Silla people—who occupied the southeast coast of the Korean Peninsula. Japan also established formal relationships with the Tang dynasty of China.[18]

In 784, the capital was again moved to Nagaoka-kyō to escape the Buddhist priests; in 794, it was moved to Heian-kyō, present-day Kyōto. The capital was to remain in Kyoto until 1868.[19] In the religious town of Kyoto, Buddhism and Shinto began to form a syncretic system.[20]

Historical writing in Japan culminated in the early 8th century with the massive chronicles, the *Kojiki* (*The Record of Ancient Matters*, 712) and the *Nihon Shoki* (*Chronicles of Japan*, 720). These chronicles give a legendary account of Japan's beginnings, today known as the Japanese mythology. According to the myths contained in these chronicles, Japan was founded in 660 BC by the ancestral Emperor Jimmu, a direct descendant of the Shintō deity, Amaterasu (Sun Goddess). The myths recorded that Jimmu started a line of emperors that remains to this day. Historians assume that the myths partly describe historical facts, but the first emperor who actually existed was Emperor Ōjin, though the date of his reign is uncertain. Since the Nara period, actual political power has not been in the hands of the emperor but has, instead, been exercised at different times by the court nobility, warlords, the military, and, more recently, the Prime Minister of Japan.

Heian period

Main article: Heian period


Miniature model of Heian-kyō

The Heian period, lasting from 794 to 1185, is the final period of classical Japanese history. It is considered the peak of the Japanese imperial court and noted for its art, especially its poetry and literature. In the early 11th century, Lady Shikibu Murasaki wrote Japan's (and one of the world's) oldest surviving novels, *The Tale of Genji*.[21] The Man'yōshū[22] and Kokin Wakashū,[23] the oldest existing collections of Japanese poetry, were compiled during this period.

Strong differences from mainland Asian cultures emerged (such as an indigenous writing system, the kana). Due to the decline of the Tang Dynasty,[24] Chinese influence had reached its peak, and then effectively ended, with the last imperially sanctioned mission to Tang China in 838, although trade expeditions and Buddhist pilgrimages to China continued.[25]


A handscroll painting dated circa 1130, illustrating a scene from the "Bamboo River" chapter of the *Tale of Genji*

Political power in the imperial court was in the hands of powerful aristocratic families (*kuge*), especially the Fujiwara clan, who ruled under the titles Sesshō and Kampaku (imperial regents). The Fujiwara clan obtained almost complete control over the imperial family. However, the Fugiwara Regents who advised the Imperial Court were content to derive their authority from imperial line. This meant that the Fujiwara authority could always be challenged by a vigorous emperor. Fujiwara domination of the Court during the time from 858 until about 1160 led to this period being called "the Fujiwara Period."[26] The Fujiwara clan gained this ascendancy because of their matrimonial links with the imperial family.[27] Indeed, because of the number of emperors that were born to Fujiwara mothers, the Fujiwara Regents became so closely identified with the imperial family, that people saw no difference between the "direct rule" by the imperial family and the rule of the Fujiwara Regents.[28] Accordingly, when dissatisfaction with the government arose resulting in the Hogen Rebellion (1156–1158), the Heiji Rebellion (1160) and the Gempei War (1180–1185), the target of the dissatisfaction was the Fujiwara Regents, as well as the Imperial family. The Gempei War ended in 1185 with the naval battle of Dan-no-ura in which the Minamoto clan defeated the Taira clan. (The battle of Den-no-ura and the Gempei War is mentioned in a story told by the late Carl Sagan in the second episode of the 1980 TV miniseries *Cosmos*.) In 1192, the Court appointed Yoritomo of the Minamoto clan to a number of high positions in government. These positions were consolidated and Yoritomo became the first person to be designated the *Seii-tai-shogun* or "Shogun."[29] Yoritomo then defeated the Fujiwara clan in a military campaign in the north of Japan. This spelled the end of the Fujiwara Period and the end of Fujiwara influence over the government.

The end of the period saw the rise of various military clans. The four most powerful clans were the Minamoto clan, the Taira clan, the Fujiwara clan, and the Tachibana clan. Towards the end of the 12th century, conflicts between these clans turned into civil war, such as the Hōgen (1156–1158). The Hogen Rebellion was of cardinal importance to Japan, since it was the turning point that led to the first stages of the development of feudalism in Japan.[30] The Heiji Rebellion of 1160 also occurred during this period[31] and the uprising was followed by the Genpei War, from which emerged a society led by samurai clans under the political rule of the shōgun--the beginnings of feudalism in Japan.

Buddhism began to spread during the Heian Period. However, Buddhism was split between two sects—the Tendai sect which had been brought to Japan from China by Saichō (767–822) and the Shingon sect which had been introduced from China by Kūkai (774–835). Whereas, the Tendai sect tended to be a monastic form of Buddhism which established isolated monasteries or temples on the tops of mountains,[32] the Shingon variation

of Buddhism was a less philosophical and more practical and more popular version of the religion.[33] Pure Land Buddhism was a form of Buddhism which was much simpler than either the Tendai or Shingon versions of Buddhism. Pure Land Buddhism became very popular in Japan during a time of degeneration and trouble in the latter half of the 11th century.[34]



Byōdō-in (1053) is a temple of Pure Land Buddhism. It was registered to the UNESCO World Heritage Site.

Feudal Japan (1185–1868)

The "feudal" period of Japanese history, dominated by the powerful regional families (daimyō) and the military rule of warlords (shōgun), stretched from 1185 to 1868. The emperor remained but was mostly kept to a *de jure* figurehead ruling position, and the power of merchants was weak. This time is usually divided into periods following the reigning family of the shōgun.

Kamakura period

Main article: Kamakura period

The Kamakura period, 1185 to 1333, is a period that marks the governance of the Kamakura shogunate and the transition to the Japanese "medieval" era, a nearly 700-year period in which the emperor, the court, and the traditional central government were left intact but largely relegated to ceremonial functions. Civil, military, and judicial matters were controlled by the *bushi* (samurai) class, the most powerful of whom was the *de facto* national ruler, the shōgun. This period in Japan differed from the old *shōen* system in its pervasive military emphasis.

In 1185, Minamoto no Yoritomo and his younger brother, Yoshitsune defeated the rival Taira clan at the naval battle of Dan-no-ura.[35] The outcome of the Battle of Dan-no-ura meant the rise of the warrior or samurai class. Under the feudal structure that was arising in Japan, the samurai owed military service and loyalty to the emperor. The Samurai, in turn required loyalty and work from the peasants who rented land from them and served them. On occasion the samurai would conduct warfare against each other, which caused disruption to the society. In 1192, Yoritomo was appointed *Seii Tai-Shōgun* by the emperor.[29] The shogun was expected to run the day-to-day affairs of the government on behalf of the emperor and to keep the samurai in line. During this time the Imperial Court remained in their capital of Kyoto. Society at Kyoto was regarded as more refined and cultured than the rest of the country.[36] However, Yoritomo established his base of power called the Bakufu in the seaside town of Kamakura.[29] Yoritomo became the first in a line of shōguns who ruled from Kamakura. Thus, the period of time from 1185 until 1334 became known as the period of the Kamakura Shogunate. Society in the military or samurai capital of Kamakura was regarded as rough and ignorant by comparison with the refined society at Kyoto.[36] However, Yoritomo wished to free his government from the pernicious influence of the bureaucracy in Kyoto and, thus remained in Kamakura. The Kamakura Shogunate based itself on the interests of this rising class rather than on the bureaucracy at Kyoto. Accordingly, the preference of Kamakura as the capital of the shogunate fit this new warrior class.

Yoritomo was married to Hōjō Masako of the Hōjō clan, herself a Sensei (master) in kyudō (the art of the bow) and kendō (the art of the sword), and she contributed much to his ascent and organizing the Bafuku. However, after Yoritomo's death, another warrior clan, the Hōjō, came to rule as *shikken* (regents) for the shōgun.

A traumatic event of the period was the Mongol invasions of Japan in 1274 and in 1281. Massive Mongol forces with superior naval technology and weaponry attempted a full-scale invasion of the Japanese islands in both


Japanese samurai boarding Mongol ships in 1281

1274 and in 1281. However, a famous typhoon referred to as *kamikaze* (translating as *divine wind* in Japanese) is credited with devastating both Mongol invasion forces and saving Japan.[37] Although the Japanese were successful in stopping the Mongols, the invasion attempt had devastating domestic repercussions, leading to the extinction of the Kamakura shogunate. For two decades after the second failed Mongol invasion of Japan, the Japanese remained fearful of a third Mongol attempt. (Indeed, Japan could not rest assured of peace until the death of Kublai Khan in 1294.) Consequently, the shogun required the various samurai spend money lavishly on armed forces in order to remain in a high state of readiness for the expected third attack by the Mongols. This vast expenditure of money had a ruinous effect on the economy of Japan. The Kamakura Shogunate could perhaps have survived the strain of the continual military readiness and the resultant bad economy if that had been the only problem. However, upon the death of Emperor Go-Saga in 1272, there arose a bitter dispute over succession to the throne within the imperial family.

Kemmu Restoration

Main article: Kemmu Restoration

In 1333, the Kamakura shogunate was overthrown in a coup d'état known as the Kemmu Restoration, led by Emperor Go-Daigo and his followers (Ashikaga Takauji, Nitta Yoshisada, and Kusunoki Masashige). Emperor Go-Daigo had come to the throne in 1318. From the beginning, Go-Daigo had made it clear that he was going not going to abdicate and become a "cloistered emperor" and he was intending to rule Japan from his palace in Kyoto independent from the Kamakura Shogunate.[38] War was conducted against the Kamakura Shogunate by Go-Daigo and his supporters. The Imperial House was restored to political influence. The government was now a civilian government rather than the military-run government of the Kamakura Shogunate. However, this did not last. The warrior class throughout Japan was in tumult.[39] Furthermore, Go-Daigo was not a natural leader. Indeed, his personality tended to alienate people.[39] One of those that was alienated by Go-Daigo, was his former supporter, Ashikaga Takauji. Ashikaga Takauji found that he had support from other regional warlords in Japan. In early 1335, Ashikaga left Kyoto and moved to Kamakura.[40] Ashikaga, then began assuming powers that had not been given him by the Emperor. This brought Ashikaga Takauji in direct conflict with the governmental officials in Kyoto, including his old allies, Nitta Yoshisada and Kusunoki Masashige. However, by assuming shogun-like powers, Ashikaga appeared to be standing up for the warrior class against the civilian authority that seemed intent on destroying the power of the warriors. Accordingly, Ashikaga Takauji was joined in Kamakura by a number of other regional warlords. On November 17, 1335, Ashikaga Tadayoshi, brother of Takauji, issued a call (in the name of his brother Takauji) asking the warriors throughout the country to "assemble your clansmen and hasten to join me."[41] Dissatisfaction with Go-Daigo was so strong that a majority of the warriors in Japan answered this call.[42]

After initial defeats on the main island of Honshu, Ashikaga and his troops retreated to the southern island of Kyushu, where he immediately won over most of the regional warlords to his side and defeated the few who remained loyal to Go-Daigo. With all of the island of Kyushu in his hands, Ashikaga Takauji invaded the main island of Honshu again and, in 1336, at the decisive Battle of Minatogawa, or the Battle of Minato River, defeated the armed forces of Nitta Yoshisada and Kusunoki Masanori and the other loyalist forces of Go-Daigo. The victorious warrior-class forces gathered around the town of Kamakura became known as the "Northern Court." The Loyalist forces may have been defeated but they survived to fight on. They formed the "Southern Court" and upon the death of Go-Daigo in the late summer of 1339, they rallied around the person of Prince

Kazuhito who was enthroned as Emperor Kōgon. Prince Kazuhito was from a younger line of descendents in the Imperial family and, thus, his supporters were supporters of the "junior line." On September 20, 1336, the Ashikaga coalition of samurai opposed to Go-Daigo enthroned Prince Yutahito as Emperor Kōmyo.[43] Prince Yutahito was from the "senior line" of descendents in the Imperial family. Accordingly, the civil war between the warriors led by the Ashikaga clan—the Northern Court on the one hand and the "Loyalist" Southern Court on the other hand, became a civil war of imperial succession between followers of the "senior" and "junior" lines of succession in the Imperial family. The warriors and the Ashikaga clan captured Kyoto and proceeded to move their forces from Kamakura to Kyoto. Meanwhile, the Southern Court deposed from their capital in Kyoto, now established themselves in Yoshino.

The Ashikaga Shogunate was never able to control and centralize the government over the entire country. Rather they ruled because of a narrow and shifting majority of warlords who supported them. There were always some warlords that acted independently of either the Northern Court or the Southern Court. Later, during the war of succession, these independent warlords enthroned a third emperor—Emperor Suko. So the civil war of succession became a three-cornered affair. The prestige of the throne declined as the civil war continued. This had the effect of bolstering the idea that the Imperial family should be removed from politics and strengthened the need for a shogun to be appointed to run the government on a day-to-day basis.

In 1338, Ashikaga Takauji was officially appointed as Shogun by the new Emperor. He was the first of a line of Ashikaga shoguns. The attempted restoration of independent power of the throne—the Kemmu Restoration—was at an end and the period of the Ashikaga Shogunate had begun.

The civil war of succession to the throne was finally settled. As part of the settlement, all three "emperors" abdicated on April 6, 1352.[44] Ashikaga died in 1358 and Ashikaga Yoshiakira succeeded him as Shogun.[45] By 1368, however, the ascendancy of the Ashikaga Shogunate was so complete that Ashikaga Yoshimitsu was able to rule Japan without reference to the emperor.[46] In 1392, the Southern Court and the Northern Court were finally merged under an agreement that placed Emperor Kogon, of the Southern Court and the junior line, on the throne and pledged that the throne would, henceforth, alternate between candidates of the Northern Court and the Southern Court. This agreement was, however, never implemented.

Muromachi period

Main articles: Muromachi period and Nanboku-chō period

See also: Kitayama period and Higashiyama period



Kinkaku-ji, Kyoto. 1397, in Kitayama period

During the Muromachi period, the Ashikaga shogunate ruled for 237 years from 1336 to 1573. It was established by Ashikaga Takauji who seized political power from Emperor Go-Daigo. A majority of the warrior class supported the Ashikaga clan in the succession war. After taking Kyoto from Emperor Go-Daigo, the Ashikaga clan made Kyoto, the capital of the Ashikaga Shogunate in late 1336.[47] This became the new capital of the Northern Court. Go-Daigo, then, moved to the town of Yoshino and established the new capital of the Southern Court there. This ended the attempted restoration of the powers of the throne—the Kemmu restoration. The early years (1336 to 1392) of the Muromachi period are known as the Nanboku-chō (Northern and Southern court) period because the imperial court was split in two. In 1392, the Northern court and the southern Court were finally merged and Emperor Kogon was placed on the throne. There was an agreement that, heretofore, succession to the throne would alternate between candidates of the Northern court and candidates of the Southern Court. However, this agreement was never acted upon.

Rule of the Ashikaga Bakufu looked a lot like the rule of the Kamakura Bakufu, as the Ashikaga clan made few changes in the offices and councils of the prior government.[48] However, the Ashikaga Shogunate dominated the Imperial throne more than the Kamakura Shogunate ever did. Nonetheless, the Ashikaga Shogunate was never able to centralized its power over the regional warlords as much as the prior Kamakura government. The Ashikaga Shogunate was based on a coalition of a loose majority of the various regional warlords across the country. As a consequence, the Ashikaga Shogunate was unable to do anything about the problem of the pirates who were operating off their own shores, despite repeated requests to do so by both Korea[49] and Ming dynasty China.[50] Warlord clans, like the Kotsuna clan and the Kiyomori branch of the Taira clan, that lived along the coast of the Inland Sea, made money from the pirates and supported them.[51]

In 1368, the Ming Dynasty replaced the Yuan Dynasty of the Mongols in China. Japanese trade with China had been frozen since the second and final attempt by Mongol China to invade Japan in 1281. Now a new trade relationship began with the new Ming rulers in China. Part of the new trade with China was the coming to Japan of Zen Buddhist monks. During the Ashikaga Shogunate Zen Buddhism came to have a great influence with the ruling class in Japan.[52]

The Muromachi period ended in 1573 when the 15th and last shōgun, Ashikaga Yoshiaki, was driven out of the capital in Kyoto by Oda Nobunaga.

In the viewpoint of a cultural history, Kitayama period (14th end-15th first half[53]) and Higashiyama period (15th second half-16th first half[53]) exist in Muromachi period.

Sengoku period

Main article: Sengoku period

See also: Nanban trade and Kirishitan



Osaka Castle

The later years of the Muromachi period, 1467 to 1573, are also known as the Sengoku period (Period of Warring Kingdoms), a time of intense internal warfare, and correspond with the period of the first contacts with the West—the arrival of Portuguese "Nanban" traders.

In 1543, a Portuguese ship, blown off its course to China, landed on Tanegashima Island. Firearms introduced by the Portuguese would bring the major innovation of the Sengoku period, culminating in the Battle of Nagashino where reportedly 3,000 arquebuses (the actual number is believed to be around 2,000) cut down charging ranks of samurai. During the following years, traders from Portugal, the Netherlands, England, and Spain arrived, as did Jesuit, Dominican, and Franciscan missionaries.



Hasekura Tsunenaga and San Juan Bautista

Azuchi-Momoyama period

Main article: Azuchi-Momoyama period

The Azuchi-Momoyama period runs from approximately 1568 to 1603. The period, regarded as the late Warring Kingdoms period, marks the military reunification and stabilization of the country under a single political ruler, first by the campaigns of Oda Nobunaga (1534–1582) who almost united Japan. Nobunaga decided to reduce the power of the Buddhist priests, and gave protection to Christianity. He slaughtered many Buddhist priests and captured their fortified

temples. He was killed in a revolt in 1582.[54]

Unification was finally achieved by one of Nobunaga's generals, Toyotomi Hideyoshi.

After having united Japan, Hideyoshi invaded Korea in an attempt to conquer Korea and points beyond. However, after two unsuccessful campaigns towards the allied forces of Korea and China and his death, his forces returned to Japan in 1598. Following his death, Japan experienced a short period of succession conflict. Tokugawa Ieyasu, one of the regents for Hideyoshi's young heir, emerged victorious at the Battle of Sekigahara and seized political power.

Christian missions

Main article: History of Roman Catholicism in Japan

Catholic Jesuit missionaries led by Francis Xavier (1506–1552) arrived in 1549 and were welcomed in Kyoto.[55] Their proselytizing was most successful in Kyushu, with about 100,000 to 200,000 converts, including many daimyo.[56] In 1587, Hideyoshi reversed course and decided the Christian presence was divisive and might present the Europeans with an opportunity to disrupt Japan. The Christians missionaries were seen as a threat; the Portuguese merchants were allowed to continue their operations. The edict was not immediately enforced but restrictions grew tighter in the next three decades until a full-scale government persecution destroyed the Christian community by the 1620s. The Jesuits were expelled, churches and schools were torn down, and the daimyo were forbidden to become Christians. Converts who did not reject Christianity were killed. Many Christians went underground, becoming hidden Christians (□□□□□□ *kakure kirishitan*), but their communities died out. Not until the 1870s was Christianity re-established in Japan.[57][58]

Edo ("Tokugawa") period (1603–1868)

Main article: Edo period

The Edo or Tokugawa era saw power centralized in the hands of a hereditary shogunate that took control of religion, regulated the entire economy, subordinated the nobility, and set up uniform systems of taxation, government spending and bureaucracies. It avoided international involvement and wars, established a national judiciary and suppressed protest and criticism. The Tokugawa era brought peace, and that brought prosperity to a nation of 31 million.



Map of Japan appears in the Cihannuma

Economy

About 80% of the people were rice farmers.[59] Rice production increased steadily, but population remained stable, so prosperity increased. Rice paddies grew from 1.6 million chō in 1600 to 3 million by 1720.[60] Improved technology helped farmers control the all-important flow of irrigation to their paddies. The daimyos operated several hundred castle towns, which became loci of domestic trade. Large-scale rice markets developed, centered on Edo and Osaka.[61] In the cities and towns, guilds of merchants and artisans met the growing demand for goods and services. The merchants, while low in status, prospered, especially those with official patronage. Merchants invented credit instruments to transfer money, currency came into common use, and the strengthening credit market encouraged entrepreneurship.[62]

The samurai, forbidden to engage in farming or business but allowed to borrow money, borrowed too much. One scholar observed that the entire military class was living "as in an inn, that is, consuming now and paying later". The bakufu and daimyos raised taxes on farmers, but did not tax business, so they too fell into debt. By 1750 rising taxes incited peasant unrest and even revolt. The nation had to deal somehow with samurai impoverishment and treasury deficits. The financial troubles of the samurai undermined their loyalties to the system, and the empty treasury threatened the whole system of government. One solution was reactionary—with prohibitions on spending for luxuries. Other solutions were modernizing, with the goal of increasing agrarian productivity. The eighth Tokugawa shogun, Tokugawa Yoshimune (in office 1716–1745) had considerable success, though much of his work had to be done again between 1787 and 1793 by the shogun's chief councilor Matsudaira Sadanobu (1759–1829). Others shoguns debased the coinage to pay debts, which caused inflation.[63]



Tokugawa Ieyasu, first shogun of the Tokugawa shogunate

By 1800 the commercialization of the economy grew rapidly, bringing more and more remote villages into the national economy. Rich farmers appeared who switched from rice to high-profit commercial crops and engaged in local money-lending, trade, and small-scale manufacturing. Some wealthy merchants sought higher social status by using money to marry into the samurai class.

A few domains, notably Chōshū and Satsuma, used innovative methods to restore their finances, but most sunk further into debt. The financial crisis provoked a reactionary solution near the end of the "Tenpō Reforms" (1830–1843) promulgated by the chief counselor Mizuno Tadakuni. He raised taxes, denounced luxuries and tried to impede the growth of business; he failed and it appeared to many that the continued existence of the entire Tokugawa system was in jeopardy.[64]

Social structure

Japanese society had an elaborate social structure, in which everyone knew their place and level of prestige. At the top were the emperor and the court nobility, invincible in prestige but weak in power. Next came the "bushi" of shogun, daimyo and layers of feudal lords whose rank was indicated by their closeness to the Tokugawa. They had power. The "daimyo" comprised about 250 local lords of local "han" with annual outputs of 50,000 or more bushels of rice. The upper strata was much given to elaborate and expensive rituals, including elegant architecture, landscaped gardens, nō drama, patronage of the arts, and the tea ceremony.[65]

Samurai

Next in the social structure were the 400,000 warriors, called "samurai", whose ranks ranged in numerous grades and degrees. A few upper samurai were eligible for high office; most were foot soldiers (ashigaru) with minor duties. The samurai were affiliated with senior lords in a well-established chain of command. The shogun had 17,000 samurai retainers; the daimyo each had hundreds. Most lived in modest homes near their lord's headquarters, and lived off hereditary rights to collect rents and stipends. Together these high status groups comprised Japan's ruling class making up about 6% of the total population.[66]

Lower orders

The lower social orders were divided into two main segments—the peasants—80% of the population—whose

high prestige as producers was undercut by their burden as the chief source of taxes. They were illiterate and lived in villages controlled by appointed officials who kept the peace and collected taxes. Peasants and villagers frequently engaged in unlawful and disruptive protests, especially after 1780.[67]

Merchants and artisans

Near the bottom of the prestige scale—but much higher up in terms of income and life style—were the merchants and artisans of the towns and cities. They had no political power, and even rich merchants found it difficult to rise in the world in a society in which place and standing were fixed at birth.[68] Finally came the entertainers, prostitutes, day laborers and servants, and the thieves, beggars and hereditary outcasts. They were tightly controlled by local officials and were not allowed to mingle with higher status people.[69]

Literacy

Literacy was highly prized, albeit made difficult by the writing system. Wood block printing had been standard for centuries; after 1500 Japanese printers experimented with movable type, but reverted to the wood blocks. By the 1780s Japan was publishing 3000 books a year (compared with 400 in Russia). By the 1850s the major new trend was the translation of western scientific and geographical books, which reached a wide audience. By 1860 about 40% of the men and 10% of the women were literate in rural areas, with much higher rates in the cities, such as 80% in Edo (Tokyo).[70] Universal compulsory education only began in 1871.[71]

Government

During the Edo period, also called the **Tokugawa period,** the administration of the country was shared by over two hundred daimyō in a federation governed by the Tokugawa shogunate. The Tokugawa clan, leader of the victorious eastern army in the Battle of Sekigahara, was the most powerful of them and for fifteen generations monopolized the title of *Sei-i Taishōgun* (often shortened to *shōgun*). With their headquarters at Edo (present-day Tokyo), the Tokugawa commanded the allegiance of the other daimyō, who in turn ruled their domains with a rather high degree of autonomy.



Tokugawa Yoshimune the Shogun
1716–1745

The Tokugawa shogunate carried out a number of significant policies. They placed the samurai class above the commoners: the agriculturists, artisans, and merchants. They enacted sumptuary laws limiting hairstyle, dress, and accessories. They organized commoners into groups of five and held all responsible for the acts of each individual. To prevent daimyō from rebelling, the shōguns required them to maintain lavish residences in Edo and live at these residences on a rotating schedule; carry out expensive processions to and from their domains; contribute to the upkeep of shrines, temples, and roads; and seek permission before repairing their castles.

This 265-year span was called "A peaceful state". Cultural achievement was high during this period, and many artistic developments took place. Most significant among them were the *ukiyo-e* form of wood-block print and the *kabuki* and *bunraku* theaters. Also, many of the most famous works for the *koto* and *shakuhachi* date from this time period.

Sakoku—seclusion from the outside world

Main article: Sakoku



Japan's first treatise on Western anatomy, published in 1774, an example of Rangaku.

During the early part of the 17th century, the shogunate suspected that foreign traders and missionaries were actually forerunners of a military conquest by European powers. Christianity had spread in Japan, especially among peasants, and the shogunate suspected the loyalty of Christian peasants towards their daimyō, severely persecuting them. This led to a revolt by persecuted peasants and Christians in 1637 known as the Shimabara Rebellion which saw 30,000 Christians, rōnin, and peasants facing a massive samurai army of more than 100,000 sent from Edo. The rebellion was crushed at a high cost to the shōgun's army.

After the eradication of the rebels at Shimabara, the shogunate placed foreigners under progressively tighter restrictions. It monopolized foreign policy and expelled traders, missionaries, and foreigners with the exception of the Dutch and Chinese merchants who were restricted to the man-made island of Dejima in Nagasaki Bay and several small trading outposts outside the country. However, during this period of isolation (*Sakoku*) that began in 1635, Japan was much less cut off from the rest of the world than is commonly assumed, and some acquisition of western knowledge occurred under the Rangaku system. Russian encroachments from the north led the shogunate to extend direct rule to Hokkaidō, Sakhalin and the Kuriles in 1807, but the policy of exclusion continued.

End of seclusion

Main article: Bakumatsu



Landing of Commodore Perry, officers & men of the squadron, to meet the Imperial commissioners at Yokohama July 14, 1853. Lithograph by Sarony & Co., 1855, after W. Heine

The policy of isolation lasted for more than 200 years. In 1844, William II of the Netherlands sent a message urging Japan to open its doors which was rejected by the Japanese.[72] On July 8, 1853, Commodore Matthew Perry of the United States Navy with four warships—the *Mississippi*, *Plymouth*, *Saratoga*, and *Susquehanna*—steamed into the bay in Yokohama and displayed the threatening power of his ships' cannons during a Christian burial which the Japanese observed. He requested that Japan open to trade with the West. These ships became known as the *kurofune*, the Black Ships.

The following year at the Convention of Kanagawa on March 31, 1854, Perry returned with seven ships and demanded that the shōgun sign the Treaty of Peace and Amity, establishing formal diplomatic relations between Japan and the United States. Within five years, Japan had signed similar treaties with other Western countries. The Harris Treaty was signed with the United States on July 29, 1858. These treaties were unequal, having been forced on Japan through gunboat diplomacy, and were interpreted by the Japanese as a sign of Western imperialism taking hold of the rest of the Asian continent. Among other measures, they gave the Western nations unequivocal control of tariffs on imports and the right of extraterritoriality to all of their visiting nationals. They would remain a sticking point in Japan's relations with the West up to the turn of the century.

Empire of Japan (1868–1945)

Main article: Empire of Japan

Beginning in 1868, Japan undertook political, economic, and cultural transformations emerging as a unified and centralized state, the Empire of Japan (also Imperial Japan or Prewar Japan). This 77-year period, which lasted

until 1945, was a time of rapid economic growth. Japan became an imperial power, colonizing Korea and Taiwan. Starting in 1931 it began the takeover of Manchuria and China, in defiance of the League of Nations and the United States. Escalating tension with the U.S.--and western control of Japan's vital oil supplies—led to World War II. Japan launched multiple successful attacks on the U.S. as well as British and Dutch territories in 1941–42. But after a series of great naval battles it was defeated by a much larger industrial power, as its cities were systematically demolished by strategic bombing. Japan surrendered in 1945, and was occupied and transformed by the U.S.

Meiji Restoration

Main articles: Meiji Restoration and Meiji period



Samurai of the Satsuma clan, during the Boshin War period. Colored photograph by Felice Beato.

Renewed contact with the West precipitated a profound alteration of Japanese society. Importantly, within the context of Japan's subsequent aggressive militarism, the signing of the treaties was viewed as profoundly humiliating and a source of national shame. The Tokugawa shōgun was forced to resign, and soon after the Boshin War of 1868, the emperor was restored to power, beginning a period of fierce nationalism and intense socio-economic restructuring known as the Meiji Restoration. The Tokugawa system was abolished, the military was modernized, and numerous Western institutions were adopted–including a Western legal system and quasi-parliamentary constitutional government as outlined in the Meiji Constitution. This constitution was modeled on the constitution of the German Empire. While many aspects of the Meiji Restoration were adopted directly from Western institutions, others, such as the dissolution of the feudal system and removal of the shogunate, were processes that had begun long before the arrival of Perry. Nonetheless, Perry's intervention is widely viewed as a pivotal moment in Japanese history.



Emperor Meiji, the 122nd emperor of Japan.

Economic modernization

Main article: Economic history of Japan

Japan's industrial revolution began about 1870 as national leaders decided to catch up with the West. The government built railroads, improved roads, and inaugurated a land reform program to prepare the country for further development. It inaugurated a new Western-based education system for all young people, sent thousands of students to the United States and Europe, and hired more than 3,000 Westerners to teach modern science, mathematics, technology, and foreign languages in Japan (O-yatoi gaikokujin).

In 1871 a group of Japanese politicians known as the Iwakura Mission toured Europe and the USA to learn western ways. The result was a deliberate state-led industrialisation policy to enable Japan to quickly catch up. The Bank of Japan, founded in 1877, used taxes to fund model steel and textile factories. Education was expanded and Japanese students were sent to study in the West.

Modern industry first appeared in textiles, including cotton and especially silk, which was based in home workshops in rural areas.[73]

Wars with China and Russia

Main article: Foreign relations of Meiji Japan

Japanese intellectuals of the late-Meiji period espoused the concept of a "line of advantage", an idea that would help to justify Japanese foreign policy at the turn of the century. According to this principle, embodied in the slogan *fukoku kyōhei*, Japan would be vulnerable to aggressive Western imperialism unless it extended a line of advantage beyond its borders which would help to repel foreign incursions and strengthen the Japanese economy. Emphasis was especially placed on Japan's "preeminent interests" in the Korean Peninsula, once famously described as a "dagger pointed at the heart of Japan". It was tensions over Korea and Manchuria, respectively, that led Japan to become involved in the first Sino-Japanese War with China in 1894–1895 and the Russo-Japanese War with Russia in 1904–1905.

The war with China made Japan the world's first Eastern, modern imperial power, and the war with Russia proved that a Western power could be defeated by an Eastern state. The aftermath of these two wars left Japan the dominant power in the Far East with a sphere of influence extending over southern Manchuria and Korea, which was formally annexed as part of the Japanese Empire in 1910. Japan had also gained half of Sakhalin Island from Russia. The results of these wars established Japan's dominant interest in Korea, while giving it the Pescadores Islands, Formosa (now Taiwan), and the Liaodong Peninsula in Manchuria, which was eventually retroceded in the "humiliating" Triple Intervention.

Over the next decade, Japan would flaunt its growing prowess, including a very significant contribution to the Eight-Nation Alliance formed to quell China's Boxer Rebellion. Many Japanese, however, believed their new empire was still regarded as inferior by the Western powers, and they sought a means of cementing their international standing. This set the climate for growing tensions with Russia, which would continually intrude into Japan's "line of advantage" during this time.

Russian pressure from the north appeared again after Muraviev had gained Outer Manchuria at Aigun (1858) and Peking (1860). This led to heavy Russian pressure on Sakhalin which the Japanese eventually yielded in exchange for the Kuril islands (1875). The Ryukyu Islands were similarly secured in 1879, establishing the borders within which Japan would "enter the World". In 1898, the last of the unequal treaties with Western powers was removed, signaling Japan's new status among the nations of the world. In a few decades by reforming and modernizing social, educational, economic, military, political and industrial systems, the Emperor Meiji's "controlled revolution" had transformed a feudal and isolated state into a world power. Significantly, the impetus for this change was the belief that Japan had to compete with the West both industrially and militarily to achieve equality.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance

Main article: Anglo-Japanese Alliance

The Anglo-Japanese Alliance treaty was signed between the United Kingdom and Japan on January 30, 1902, and announced on February 12, 1902. It was renewed in 1905 and 1911 before its demise in 1921 and its termination in 1923. It was a military alliance between the two countries that threatened Russia and Germany. Due to this alliance, Japan entered World War I on the side of Great Britain. Japan attacked German bases in China and sent troops to the Mediterranean in 1917. Through this treaty, there was also great cultural exchange between the two countries.

World War I

Japan entered World War I on the Allied side and declared war on the Central Powers. Though Japan's role was limited largely to seizing German colonial outposts in East Asia and the Pacific, it took advantage of the opportunity to expand its influence in Asia and its territorial holdings in the Pacific. Acting virtually

independently of the civil government, the Japanese navy seized Germany's Micronesian colonies. It also attacked and occupied the German coaling port of Qingdao in the Chinese Shandong peninsula.


Early Modern Japan, Marunouchi, Tokyo 1920

Japan went to the peace conference at Versailles in 1919 as one of the great military and industrial powers of the world and received official recognition as one of the "Big Five" of the new international order. It joined the League of Nations and received a mandate over Pacific islands north of the Equator formerly held by Germany. Japan was also involved in the post-war Allied intervention in Russia, occupying Russian (Outer) Manchuria and also north Sakhalin (which held Japan's limited oil reserves). It was the last Allied power to withdraw from the interventions against Soviet Russia (doing so in 1925).

The post–World War I era brought Japan unprecedented prosperity.

Fascism in Japan

Main article: Statism in Shōwa Japan

During the 1910s and 1920s, Japan progressed towards democracy movements known as 'Taishō Democracy'. However, parliamentary government was not rooted deeply enough to withstand the economic and political pressures of the late 1920s and 1930s during the Depression period, and its state became increasingly militarized. This was due to the increasing powers of military leaders and was similar to the actions some European nations were taking leading up to World War II. These shifts in power were made possible by the ambiguity and imprecision of the Meiji Constitution, particularly its measure that the legislative body was answerable to the Emperor and not the people. The Kodoha, a militarist faction, even attempted a coup d'état known as the February 26 Incident, which was crushed after three days by Hirohito, the Emperor Shōwa.[74]

Party politics came under increasing fire because it was believed they were divisive to the nation and promoted self-interest where unity was needed. As a result, the major parties voted to dissolve themselves and were absorbed into a single party, the Imperial Rule Assistance Association (IRAA), which also absorbed many prefectural organizations such as women's clubs and neighborhood associations. However, this umbrella organization did not have a cohesive political agenda and factional in-fighting persisted throughout its existence, meaning Japan did not devolve into a totalitarian state. The IRAA has been likened to a sponge, in that it could soak everything up, but there is little one could do with it afterwards. Its creation was precipitated by a series of domestic crises, including the advent of the Great Depression in the 1930s and the actions of extremists such as the members of the Cherry Blossom Society, who enacted the May 15 Incident.[75]

Second Sino-Japanese War

Main articles: Germany–Japan relations, Second Sino-Japanese war, Pacific War, Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere, and Home front during World War II#Japan


The Imperial Japanese Navy's

Under the pretext of the Manchurian Incident, Lieutenant Colonel Kanji Ishiwara invaded Inner (Chinese) Manchuria in 1931, an action the Japanese government ratified with the creation of the puppet state of Manchukuo under the last Chinese emperor, Pu Yi. As a result of international condemnation of the incident, Japan resigned from the League of Nations in 1933. After several more similar incidents fueled by an expansionist military, the second Sino-Japanese War began in 1937 after the Marco Polo Bridge

Yamato, the heaviest battleship in history, 1941

Incident.

From 1937–45, Emperor Hirohito was supreme commander of the Imperial General Headquarters, by which the military decisions were made. This ad-hoc body consisted of the chief and vice chief of the Army, the minister of the Army, the chief and vice chief of the Navy, the minister of the Navy, the inspector general of military aviation, and the inspector general of military training.

Having joined the Anti-Comintern Pact in 1936, Japan formed the Axis Pact with Germany and Italy on September 27, 1940. Many Japanese politicians believed war with the Occident to be inevitable due to inherent cultural differences and Western imperialism. Japanese imperialism was then justified by the revival of the traditional concept of hakko ichiu, the divine right of the emperor to unite and rule the world.

Japan was defeated by Soviet Union in 1938 in large-scale but localized battles at Battle of Lake Khasan and in 1939 in the Battle of Khalkhin Gol. The Army no longer wanted to fight the Soviets, so the Soviet–Japanese Neutrality Pact was signed in 1941.[76] The treaty held until August 1945 when the Soviets again attacked Japan.

World War II

Main article: Home front during World War II#Japan

Tensions were mounting with the U.S. as a result of public outcry over Japanese aggression and reports of atrocities in China, such as the infamous Nanjing Massacre. The U.S. strongly supported China with money, airmen, supplies and threats against Japan. In retaliation to the invasion of French Indochina the U.S. began an embargo on such goods as petroleum products and scrap iron. On July 25, 1941, all Japanese assets in the US were frozen. Because Japan's military might, especially the Navy, was dependent on their dwindling oil reserves, this action had the contrary effect of increasing Japan's dependence on and hunger for new acquisitions.

Many civil leaders of Japan, including Prime Minister Konoe Fumimaro, believed a war with America would end in defeat, but felt the concessions demanded by the U.S. would almost certainly relegate Japan from the ranks of the World Powers, leaving it prey to Western collusion. Civil leaders offered political compromises in the form of the "Amau Doctrine," dubbed the "Japanese Monroe Doctrine" that would have given the Japanese free rein with regards to war with China. These offers were flatly rejected by the U.S.; the military leaders instead vied for quick military action.[77]

Most military leaders such as Osami Nagano, Kotohito Kan'in, Hajime Sugiyama and Hideki Tōjō believed that war with the Occident was inevitable. They finally convinced the Emperor to sanction on November 1941 an attack plan against U.S., Great Britain and the Netherlands. However, there were dissenters in the ranks about the wisdom of that option, most notably Admiral Yamamoto and Prince Takamatsu. They pointedly warned that at the beginning of hostilities with the US, the Empire would have the advantage for six months, after which Japan's defeat in a prolonged war with an enemy with a much larger economy would be almost certain.

The Americans were expecting an attack in the Philippines and sent bombers to deter Japan. On Yamamoto's advice, Japan made the decision to attack the main American fleet at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. American strategists believed that Japan would never be so bold as to attack so close to its home base, and the US was taken completely by surprise.[78]



The attack on Pearl Harbor, initially appeared to be a major success that knocked out the American battle fleet—but it missed the aircraft carriers that were at sea and ignored vital shore facilities whose destruction could

Planes from the Japanese aircraft carrier Shokaku preparing the attack on Pearl Harbor

have crippled US Pacific operations. Ultimately, the attack proved a long-term strategic disaster that actually inflicted relatively little significant long-term damage while provoking the United States to seek revenge. At the same time as the Pearl Harbor attack, the Japanese army attacked British Hong Kong and occupied it for nearly four years.[79]

While Nazi Germany was in the middle of its *Blitzkrieg* through Europe, Japan was following suit in Asia. The Japanese Army invaded and captured most of the coastal Chinese cities such as Shanghai. Japan took over French Indochina (Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia), British Malaya (Brunei, Malaysia, Singapore) as well as the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) while Thailand entered into an alliance with Japan. Japanese forces overwhelmed the British in Burma (thus cutting off supplies to China) and reached the borders of India and Australia. Its air raids devastated Darwin, Australia. Japan had soon established an empire stretching over much of the Pacific.



Atomic cloud over Hiroshima, 1945

However as Admiral Yamamoto warned, Japan's six-month window of military advantage following Pearl Harbor ended with the Japanese Navy's offensive ability being crippled at the hands of the American Navy in the Battle of Midway, which established a significant American military advantage. The war became one of mass production and logistics, the U.S. funding a far stronger navy with more numerous warplanes, and a superior communications and logistics system. The Japanese had stretched too far and were unable to supply its forward bases—many soldiers died of starvation. American submarines destroyed the Japanese tankers, causing a severe shortage of fuel oil for ships and aviation gasoline. Japan built warplanes in large quantity but the quality plunged, and the performance of poorly trained pilots spiraled downward.[80] The Navy lost a series of major battles, from Midway (1942) to the Philippine Sea (1944) and Leyte Gulf (1945), which put American long-range B-29 bombers in range. A series of massive raids burned out much of Tokyo and other major industrial cities beginning in March 1945 while Operation Starvation seriously disrupted the nation's vital internal shipping lanes. Regardless of how the war was becoming hopeless, the circle around the Emperor held fast and refused to open negotiations. Finally in August, two atomic bombs and the Soviet invasion of Manchuria demonstrated the cause was futile, and Hirohito authorized a surrender whereby he kept his throne.[81]

Total Japanese military fatalities between 1937 and 1945 were 2.1 million; most came in the last year of the war. Starvation or malnutrition-related illness accounted for roughly 80 percent of Japanese military deaths in the Philippines, and 50 percent of military fatalities in China. The aerial bombing of a total of 65 Japanese cities appears to have taken a minimum of 400,000 and possibly closer to 600,000 civilian lives (over 100,000 in Tokyo alone, over 200,000 in Hiroshima and Nagasaki combined, and 80,000–150,000 civilian deaths in the battle of Okinawa). Civilian death among settlers who died attempting to return to Japan from Manchuria in the winter of 1945 were probably around 100,000.[82]

Modernizing society

Childhood transformed

Childhood as a distinct phase of life was apparent in the early modern period, when social and economic changes brought increased attention to children, the growth of schooling and child-centered rituals. A modern concept of childhood emerged in Japan after 1850 as part of its engagement with the West. Meiji era leaders decided the

nation-state had the primary role in mobilizing individuals – and children – in service of the state. The Western-style school was introduced as the agent to reach that goal. By the 1890s, schools were generating new sensibilities regarding childhood.[83] After 1890 Japan had numerous reformers, child experts, magazine editors, and well-educated mothers who bought into the new sensibility. They taught the upper middle class a model of childhood that included children having their own space where they read children's books, played with educational toys and, especially, devoted enormous time to school homework. These ideas rapidly disseminated through all social classes [84][85]

Postwar Japan (1945–present)

Main article: Postwar Japan

After the collapse of the Empire of Japan, Japan was transformed into a democratic state with a revised democratic Constitution of Japan. During the postwar period, Japan became an economic power state. This period is characterized by the US-Japan Alliance such as the United States Forces Japan.

Occupation of Japan

Main article: Occupation of Japan



General MacArthur and Emperor Hirohito

As a result of its defeat of World War II, the Empire of Japan was dissolved, Japan lost all of its overseas possessions and retained only the home islands. Manchukuo was dissolved, and Inner Manchuria and Taiwan were returned to the Republic of China; Korea was taken under the control of the UN; southern Sakhalin and the Kuriles were occupied by the U.S.S.R.; and the United States became the sole administering authority of the Ryukyu, Bonin, and Volcano Islands. The International Military Tribunal for the Far East (Tokyo Trial), an international war crimes tribunal, was held, in which seven politicians were executed. Emperor Hirohito was not convicted, but instead was enthroned as the emperor of the new state.

The 1972 reversion of Okinawa completed the United States' return of control of these islands to Japan. Japan continues to protest for the corresponding return of the Kuril Islands from Russia.

Defeat came for a number of reasons. The most important is probably Japan's underestimation of the military capabilities of the U.S. The U.S. recovered from its initial setback at Pearl Harbor much quicker than the Japanese expected, and their sudden counterattack came as a blow to Japanese morale. U.S. output of military products was also much higher than Japanese counterparts over the course of the war. Another reason was factional in-fighting between the Army and Navy, which led to poor intelligence and cooperation. This was compounded as the Japanese forces found they had overextended themselves, leaving Japan itself vulnerable to attack. Another important factor is Japan's underestimation of resistance in China, which Japan claimed would be conquered in three months. The prolonged war was both militarily and economically disastrous for Japan.

After the war, Japan was placed under international control of the American-led Allied powers in the Asia-Pacific region through General Douglas MacArthur as Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers. This was the first time since the unification of Japan that the island nation was successfully occupied by a foreign power. Some high officers of the Shōwa regime were prosecuted and convicted by the International Military Tribunal for the Far East. However, Emperor Shōwa, all members of the imperial family implicated in the war such as prince

Asaka, prince Chichibu, prince Takeda, prince Higashikuni, prince Fushimi, as well as Shirō Ishii and all members of unit 731 were exonerated from criminal prosecutions by MacArthur.[86][87]

Entering the Cold War with the Korean War, Japan came to be seen as an important ally of the US government. Political, economic, and social reforms were introduced, such as an elected Japanese Diet (legislature) and expanded suffrage. The country's constitution took effect on May 3, 1947. The United States and 45 other Allied nations signed the Treaty of Peace with Japan in September 1951. The U.S. Senate ratified the treaty on March 20, 1952, and under the terms of the treaty, Japan regained full sovereignty on April 28, 1952.

Under the terms of the peace treaty and later agreements, the United States maintains naval bases at Sasebo, Okinawa and at Yokosuka. A portion of the U.S. Pacific Fleet, including one aircraft carrier (currently USS George Washington (CVN-73)), is based at Yokosuka. This arrangement is partially intended to provide for the defense of Japan, as the treaty and the new Japanese constitution imposed during the occupation severely restrict the size and purposes of Japanese Self-Defense Forces in the modern period.

Cold War

Main article: Post-occupation Japan

After a series of realignment of political parties, the conservative Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) and the leftist Social Democratic Party (SDP) were formed in 1955. The political map in Japan had been largely unaltered until early 1990s and LDP had been the largest political party in the national politics.[88] LDP politicians and government bureaucrats focused on economic policy. From the 1950s to the 1980s, Japan experienced its rapid development into a major economic power, through a process often referred to as the Japanese post-war economic miracle.

Japan's biggest postwar political crisis took place in 1960 over the revision of the Japan-United States Mutual Security Assistance Pact. As the new Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security was concluded, which renewed the United States role as military protector of Japan, massive street protests and political upheaval occurred, and the cabinet resigned a month after the Diet's ratification of the treaty. Thereafter, political turmoil subsided. Japanese views of the United States, after years of mass protests over nuclear armaments and the mutual defense pact, improved by 1972 with the reversion of United States-occupied Okinawa to Japanese sovereignty and the winding down of the Vietnam War.

Japan had reestablished relations with the Republic of China after World War II, and cordial relations were maintained with the nationalist government when it was relocated to Taiwan, a policy that won Japan the enmity of the People's Republic of China, which was established in 1949. After the general warming of relations between China and Western countries, especially the United States, which shocked Japan with its sudden rapprochement with Beijing in 1971, Tokyo established relations with Beijing in 1972. Close cooperation in the economic sphere followed. Japan's relations with the Soviet Union continued to be problematic after the war, but a Joint Declaration between Japan and the USSR ending the state of war and reestablishing diplomatic relations was signed October 19, 1956.[89] The main object of dispute was the Soviet occupation of what Japan calls its Northern Territories, the two most southerly islands in the Kurils (Etorofu and Kunashiri) and Shikotan and the Habomai Islands, which were seized by the Soviet Union in the closing days of World War II.

Economic growth

Throughout the postwar period, Japan's economy continued to boom, with results far outstripping expectations.[90] Given a massive boost by the Korean War, in which it acted as a major supplier to the UN force, Japan's economy embarked on a prolonged period of extremely rapid growth, led by the manufacturing

sectors. Japan emerged as a significant power in many economic spheres, including steel working, car manufacturing and the manufacturing of electronic goods. Japan rapidly caught up with the West in foreign trade, GNP, and general quality of life. These achievements were underscored by the 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games and the Osaka International Exposition in 1970. The high economic growth and political tranquility of the mid to late 1960s were tempered by the quadrupling of oil prices by the OPEC in 1973. Almost completely dependent on imports for petroleum, Japan experienced its first recession since World War II. Another serious problem was Japan's growing trade surplus, which reached record heights during Nakasone's first term. The United States pressured Japan to remedy the imbalance, demanding that Tokyo raise the value of the yen and open its markets further to facilitate more imports from the United States.[91]

After the Cold War

Main article: Heisei period

Japan after the Cold War is also called as the Heisei period, which starts from the year of the Revolutions of Eastern Europe. 1989 marked one of the most rapid economic growth spurts in Japanese history. With a strong yen and a favorable exchange rate with the dollar, the Bank of Japan kept interest rates low, sparking an investment boom that drove Tokyo property values up sixty percent within the year. Shortly before New Year's Day, the Nikkei 225 reached its record high of 39,000. By 1991, it had fallen to 15,000, signifying the end of Japan's famed bubble economy.[92] Unemployment ran reasonably high, but not at crisis levels. Rather than suffer large-scale unemployment and lay-offs, Japan's labor market suffered in more subtle, yet no less profound effects that were nonetheless difficult to gauge statistically. During the prosperous times, jobs were seen as long term even to the point of being life long. In contrast, Japan during the lost decade saw a marked increase in temporary and part time work which only promised employment for short periods and marginal benefits. This also created a generational gap, as those who had entered the labor market prior to the lost decade usually retained their employment and benefits, and were effectively insulated from the economic slowdown, whereas younger workers who entered the market a few years later suffered the brunt of its effects.

In a series of financial scandals of the LDP, a coalition led by Morihiro Hosokawa took power in 1993. Hosokawa succeeded to legislate a new plurality voting election law instead of the stalemated multi-member constituency election system.[93] However, the coalition collapsed the next year as parties had gathered to simply overthrow LDP and lacked a unified position on almost every social issue. The LDP returned to the government in 1996, when it helped to elect Social Democrat Tomiichi Murayama as prime minister.

The Great Hanshin earthquake hit Kobe on January 17, 1995. 6,000 people were killed and 44,000 were injured. 250,000 houses were destroyed or burned in a fire. The amount of damage totaled more than ten trillion yen.[94] In March of the same year the doomsday cult Aum Shinrikyo attacked on the Tokyo subway system with sarin gas, killing 12 and injuring hundreds more. An investigation later revealed that the cult was responsible for dozens of murders that occurred prior to the gas attacks.[95]

Junichiro Koizumi was president of the LDP and Prime Minister of Japan from April 2001 to September 2006. Koizumi enjoyed high approval ratings. He was known as an economic reformer and he privatized the national postal system. Koizumi also had an active involvement in the War on Terrorism, sending 1,000 soldiers of the Japan Self-Defense Forces to help in Iraq's reconstruction after the Iraq War, the biggest overseas troop deployment since World War II.

The ruling coalition is formed by the liberal Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ), the leftist Social Democratic Party and the conservative People's New Party. The opposition is formed by the liberal conservative Liberal Democratic Party (LDP). Other parties are the New Komeito Party, a Sōka Gakkai party and the Japanese Communist Party. On 2 June 2010 Prime Minister Yukio Hatoyama resigned from his position as leader of the

DPJ, citing the failure to fulfill his campaign promise of removing a U.S. base from the island of Okinawa as his main reason for stepping down.

On March 11, 2011, Japan suffered the strongest earthquake in its recorded history, affecting the north-east area of Honshū. The magnitude 9.0[96] quake was aggravated by a tsunami and also caused numerous fires and damaged several nuclear reactors. Damage to Fukushima Nuclear Plant led to meltdown of three reactors and release of radioactive material, in the largest nuclear accident since the 1986 Chernobyl disaster.

Periodization

One commonly accepted periodization of Japanese history:

Dates	Period	Period	Subperiod	Main government
30,000–10,000 BC	Japanese Paleolithic			unknown
10,000–300 BC	Ancient Japan	Jōmon		local clans
900 BC – 250 AD (overlaps)		Yayoi		
c. 250–538 AD		Kofun		Yamato clans
538–710 AD	Classical Japan	Asuka		
710–794		Nara		Emperor of Japan
794–1185		Heian		
1185–1333	Feudal Japan	Kamakura		Kamakura shogunate
1333–1336		Kemmu Restoration		Emperor of Japan
1336–1392		Muromachi	Nanboku-cho	Ashikaga shogunate
1392–1467				
1467–1573			Sengoku period	Ashikaga shogunate, daimyōs, Oda Nobunaga, Toyotomi Hideyoshi
1573–1603		Azuchi-Momoyama		
1603–1868	Early Modern Japan	Edo		Tokugawa shogunate
1868–1912	Modern Japan	Prewar	Meiji	Emperor of Japan
1912–1926			Taishō	
1926–1945			Prewar Shōwa	
1945–1952	Contemporary Japan	Postwar	Occupied Japan (Postwar Shōwa)	Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers
1952–1989			Post-occupation (Postwar Shōwa)	Parliamentary democracy
1989–present			Heisei	

Regnal years

Main article: Japanese era name

Regnal years (*Gengō*) in Japan

> Regnal years are commonly used in Japan as an alternative to the Gregorian calendar. For example, in censuses, birthdays are written using regnal years. Dates of newspapers and official documents are also written using regnal years.
> Regnal years are changed upon the enthronement of each new Tennō since Meiji until the Postwar Constitution was enacted (1868–1947).
> But, in 1979, the *Regnal Years Law* was enacted, regnal years are changed upon the enthronement of each new Tennō once more.
> Until Keio, regnal years were changed on a whim.

Regnal years since 1800

- Kansei (1789–1801)
- Kyōwa (1801–1804)
- Bunka (1804–1818)
- Bunsei (1818–1830)
- Tenpō (1830–1844)
- Kōka (1844–1848)
- Kaei (1848–1854)
- Ansei (1854–1860)
- Man'en (1860–1861)
- Bunkyū (1861–1864)
- Genji (1864–1865)
- Keiō (1865–1867)
- Meiji (1868–1912)
- Taishō (1912–1926)
- Shōwa (December 25, 1926 – January 7, 1989)
- Heisei (January 8, 1989–present)

For example

- 1820 was the 3rd year of Bunsei.
- 1855 was the 2nd year of Ansei.
- 1900 was the 33rd year of Meiji.
- 1945 was the 20th year of Shōwa.
- 2000 was the 12th year of Heisei.
- 1848 was the 5th year of Kōka through March 31, but on April 1, it became the 1st year(*Gan-nen*) of Kaei.
- 1989 was the 64th year of Shōwa through to January 7, but on January 8, it became the 1st year(*Gan-nen*) of Heisei.

Other eras

- During the pre–World War II period, **Jimmu era (Kōki)** is also used in common that the year of enthronement of first Tennō (*Jimmu-Tennō*) is defined as First Year. (= 660 BCE)[97][98][99] For example, 2010 is 2670 Jimmu era.

- During the post–World War II period, **postwar era (sengo)** has been used as a private era,[*citation needed*] which starts from 1946 (1945 being the 0th postwar year). It is seen in media and books. For example, 2010 is 65 postwar.

See also

- Timeline of Japanese history
- History of Asia
  - History of East Asia
- List of Emperors of Japan
- List of Prime Ministers of Japan
- Politics of Japan
- Rikkokushi, six imperially commissioned Japanese national histories
- 1980s in Japan

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17. ^ Hall (1966) p 64
18. ^ Sansom (1958) p. 128
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20. ^ Elmer M. Brown, ed. *The Cambridge history of Japan: Ancient Japan: Volume 1* (1993) p. 356 ISBN 0521223520
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22. ^ Sansom (1958) pp. 92–96.
23. ^ Sansom (1958) pp. 130–131.
24. ^ Fairbank, p. 121.
25. ^ "Heian Period (http://www.metmuseum.org/toah/hd/heia/hd_heia.htm) ," Metropolitan Museum of Art.
26. ^ Fairbank, p. 351.
27. ^ Sansom (1958) p. 155.

Emperor of Japan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Emperor of Japan** is "the symbol of the state and of the unity of the people" according to the 1947 Constitution of Japan, which dissolved the Empire of Japan when it was adopted by the Postwar Japanese government. He is a ceremonial figurehead under a form of constitutional monarchy and is head of the Japanese Imperial Family with functions as head of state. He is also the highest authority of the Shinto religion.[1]

The Emperor is called the ***Tennō*** (天皇) in Japanese, literally meaning "heavenly sovereign".[2] He is also referred to in English as the **Mikado** (帝) of Japan. Currently the Emperor of Japan is the only remaining monarch in the world reigning under that title.

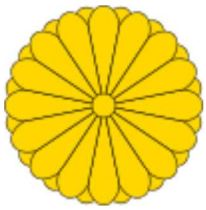
The Imperial House of Japan is the oldest continuing hereditary monarchy in the world.[3] In Nihon Shoki, a book of Japanese history finished in the eighth century, it is said that the Empire of Japan was founded in 660 BC by Emperor Jimmu. The current emperor is His Imperial Majesty the Emperor Akihito, who has been on the Chrysanthemum Throne since his father the Showa Emperor (Hirohito) died in 1989.

The role of the Emperor of Japan has historically alternated between a largely ceremonial symbolic role and that of an actual imperial ruler. Since the establishment of the first shogunate in 1192, the emperors of Japan have rarely taken on a role as supreme battlefield commander, unlike many Western monarchs. Japanese emperors have nearly always been controlled by external political forces, to varying degrees. In fact, from 1192 to 1867, the shoguns, or their *shikken* regents in Kamakura (1203–1333), were the *de facto* rulers of Japan, although they were nominally appointed by the emperor.

Emperor of Japan

天皇

MONARCHY
IMPERIAL



Arms of His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Japan

天皇



Incumbent:
Akihito

Style:	His Imperial Majesty
Heir apparent:	Crown Prince Naruhito
First monarch:	Emperor Jimmu
Formation:	*660 BC*

Since the mid-nineteenth century, the Imperial Palace has been called "Kyūjō" (宮城), then *Kōkyo* (皇居), and located on the former site of Edo Castle in the heart of Tokyo. Earlier emperors resided in Kyoto for nearly eleven centuries.

The Emperor's Birthday (currently celebrated on 23 December) is a national holiday.

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Role

Unlike most constitutional monarchies, the Emperor is not even the *nominal* chief executive explicitly in the Constitution of Japan, but has duties "in matters of state", which are closely regulated. The constitution states that the Emperor "shall perform only such acts in matters of state as are provided for in the Constitution and he shall not have powers related to government" (article 4) and that the "advice and approval of the Cabinet shall be required for all acts of the Emperor in matters of state" (article 3). Article 4 also states that these duties can be delegated by the Emperor as provided for by law. Article 65 explicitly vests the executive power in the Cabinet, of which the Prime Minister is the leader.

In addition, while formally the Emperor's duties include appointing the Prime Minister to office, article 6 of the constitution requires him to appoint the candidate "as designated by the Diet" (in practice, the candidate designated by the House of Representatives), without any right to decline appointment. This is in marked contrast to his status under the Meiji Constitution, which recognized the emperor as the embodiment of all sovereign power of the realm.

The other detailed regulation of the Emperor's duties is laid down in article 7 of the constitution, where it is stated that the "Emperor with the advice and approval of the Cabinet, shall perform the following acts in matters of state on behalf of the people:

1. Promulgation of amendments of the constitution, laws, cabinet orders and treaties.
2. Convocation of the Diet.
3. Dissolution of the House of Representatives.
4. Proclamation of general election of members of the Diet.
5. Attestation of the appointment and dismissal of Ministers of State and other officials as provided for by law, and of full powers and credentials of Ambassadors and Ministers.
6. Attestation of general and special amnesty, commutation of punishment, reprieve, and restoration of rights.
7. Awarding of honors.
8. Attestation of instruments of ratification and other diplomatic documents as provided for by law.
9. Receiving foreign ambassadors and ministers.

10. Performance of ceremonial functions."

The Emperor is not the (ceremonial) commander-in-chief of the Japan Self-Defense Forces as in some other monarchies. The Japan Self-Defense Forces Act of 1954 explicitly vests this role as commander-in-chief with the Prime Minister. This is similar to the system in Germany, where article 65a of the Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany vests it with the Federal Minister of Defence.

Regular ceremonies of the Emperor with a constitutional basis are the Prime Minister investitures in the Imperial palace throne room and the Speech from the Throne ceremony in the House of Councillors in the National Diet Building. The latter ceremony opens ordinary and extra sessions of the Diet. Ordinary sessions are opened this way each January and also after new elections to the House of Representatives. Extra sessions usually convene in the autumn and are opened then.[4]

History

Although the emperor has been a symbol of continuity with the past, the degree of power exercised by the emperor of Japan has varied considerably throughout Japanese history. In the early 7th century the emperor began to be called "Son of Heaven" (天子 *tenshi*).[5]

Origin

Main article: List of Japanese monarchs

The earliest emperor recorded in Kojiki and Nihon Shoki is Emperor Jimmu. The key to knowing the origin of the Japanese imperial line may lie within the ancient imperial tombs known as kofun. However, since the Meiji period, the Imperial Household Agency has refused to open the kofun to the public or to archaeologists, citing their desire not to disturb the spirits of the past emperors as justification for their refusal. But in December 2006, the Imperial Household Agency reversed its position and decided to allow researchers to enter some of the kofun with no restrictions.

Factional control

There have been six non-imperial families who have controlled Japanese emperors: the Soga (530s–645), the Fujiwara (850s–1070), the Taira (for a relatively short period), the Minamoto (and Kamakura bakufu) (1192–1333), the Ashikaga (1336–1565) and the Tokugawa (1603–1867). However, every shogun from the Minamoto, Ashikaga and Tokugawa families had to be officially recognized by the emperors, who were still the source of sovereignty, although they could not exercise their powers independently from the Shogunate.

Disputes

The growth of the samurai class from the 10th century gradually weakened the power of the imperial family over the nation, leading to a time of instability. Emperors have been known to come into conflict with the reigning shogun from time to time; a notable example is the Hōgen Rebellion of 1156, in which former Emperor Sutoku attempted to seize power from the then current Emperor Go-Shirakawa, both of whom were supported by different clans of samurai. Other instances, such as Emperor Go-Toba's 1221 rebellion against the Kamakura shogunate and the 1336 Kemmu Restoration under Emperor Go-Daigo, show the power struggle between the Imperial House and the military governments of Japan.

Territorial matters

Up to recent centuries, Japan's territory did not include several remote regions of its modern-day territory. The name Nippon came into use only many centuries after the start of the current imperial line. Centralized government only began to appear shortly before and during the time of Prince Shōtoku. The emperor was more like a revered embodiment of divine harmony rather than the head of an actual governing administration. In Japan it has always been easy for ambitious lords to hold actual power, as such positions have not been inherently contradictory to the emperor's position. Parliamentary government today continues a similar coexistence with the emperor as have various shoguns, regents, warlords, guardians, etc.

Historically the titles of *Tennō* in Japanese have never included territorial designations as is the case with many European monarchs. The position of emperor is a territory-independent phenomenon—the emperor is the emperor, even if he has followers only in one province (as was the case sometimes with the southern and northern courts).

Shoguns

From 1192 to 1867, sovereignty of the state was exercised by the shoguns, or their *shikken* regents (1203–1333), whose authority was conferred by Imperial warrant. When Portuguese explorers first came into contact with the Japanese (see *Nanban period*), they described Japanese conditions in analogy, likening the Emperor, with great symbolic authority but little political power, to the Pope, and the Shogun to secular European rulers, e.g. the Holy Roman Emperor. In keeping with the analogy, they even used the term "Emperor" in reference to the shogun/regent, e.g. in the case of Toyotomi Hideyoshi, who missionaries called "Emperor Taicosama" (from Taiko and the honorific *sama*).

Meiji restoration

Main article: Meiji restoration

After the United States Navy Commodore Matthew C. Perry's Black Ships forcibly opened Japan to foreign trade and the shogunate proved incapable of hindering the "barbarian" interlopers, the Emperor Kōmei began to assert himself politically. By the early 1860s, the relationship between the imperial court and the Shogunate was changing radically. Disaffected domains and ronin began to rally to the call of *sonnō jōi*, or "revere the emperor, expel the barbarians." The domains of Satsuma and Chōshū, historic enemies of the Tokugawa, used this turmoil to unite their forces and won an important military victory outside of Kyoto against Tokugawa forces.

In 1868, imperial "restoration" was declared, and the Shogunate was dissolved. A new constitution described the Emperor as "the head of the Empire, combining in Himself the rights of sovereignty", whose rights included to sanction and promulgate laws, to execute them and to exercise "supreme command of the Army and the Navy". The liaison conference created in 1893 also made the Emperor the leader of the Imperial General Headquarters.

World War II

The role of the emperor as head of the Shinto religion was exploited during the war, creating an Imperial cult that led to kamikaze bombers and other fanaticism. This in turn led to the requirement in the Potsdam Declaration for the elimination "for all time [of] the authority and influence of those who have deceived and misled the people of Japan into embarking on world conquest". Following Japan's surrender, the Allies issued the Shinto Directive separating church and state within Japan, leading to the Humanity Declaration of the incumbent Emperor. Subsequently a new constitution was drafted to define the role of the emperor and the government.

Current constitution

The constitution provides for a parliamentary system of government and guarantees certain fundamental rights. Under its terms the Emperor of Japan is "the symbol of the State and of the unity of the people" and exercises a purely ceremonial role without the possession of sovereignty.

The constitution, also known as the "Constitution of the State of Japan" (日本国憲法 *Nihonkoku-Kenpō*), "Postwar Constitution" (戦後憲法 *Sengo-Kenpō*) or the "Peace Constitution" (平和憲法 *Heiwa-Kenpō*), was drawn up under the Allied occupation that followed World War II and was intended to replace Japan's previous militaristic and absolute monarchy system with a form of liberal democracy. Currently, it is a rigid document and no subsequent amendment has been made to it since its adoption.

Addressing and naming

There are two Japanese words equivalent to the English word "emperor": *tennō* (天皇, lit. "heavenly sovereign"), which is used exclusively to refer to an emperor of Japan, and *kōtei* (皇帝, the title used for Chinese emperors), which is used primarily to describe non-Japanese emperors. ***Sumeramikoto*** (lit. "the Imperial person") was also used in Old Japanese. The term *tennō* was used by the emperors up until the Middle Ages; then, following a period of disuse, it was used again from the 19th century.[6] In English, the term ***mikado*** (帝 or 御門 or 御門), literally meaning "the honorable gate" (i.e. the gate of the imperial place, which indicates the person who lives and possesses the place), was once used (as in *The Mikado*, a 19th century operetta), but this term is now obsolete.[7] (Compare Sublime Porte, an old term for the Ottoman government.)

Traditionally, the Japanese considered it disrespectful to call any person by his given name, and more so for a person of noble rank. This convention is more relaxed in modern age and now it is acceptable among friends to use the given name, but use of the family name is still common. In the case of the imperial family, it is still considered inappropriate to use the given name. Since Emperor Meiji, it has been customary to have one era per emperor and to rename each emperor after his death using the name of the era over which he presided, plus the word *Tennō*. Prior to Emperor Meiji, the names of the eras were changed more frequently, and the posthumous names of the emperors were chosen in a different manner.



The Emperor of Japan giving a New Year's address to the people in 2010.

Outside of Japan, beginning with Emperor Shōwa, the emperors are often referred to by their given names, both whilst alive and posthumously. For example, the previous emperor is usually called Hirohito in English, although he was never referred to as Hirohito in Japan, and was renamed *Shōwa Tennō* after his death, which is the only name that Japanese speakers currently use when referring to him.

The current emperor on the throne is typically referred to by the title *Tennō Heika* (天皇陛下, literally "His Majesty the heavenly sovereign") or *Kinjō Heika* (今上陛下, literally "his current majesty") or simply *Tennō* when speaking Japanese. Other terms used to refer to the emperor in Japanese include *Heika* and *Okami*, but these are much less typical than *Tennō Heika* or *Kinjō Heika* in ordinary conversation. The current Emperor will be renamed *Heisei Tennō* (平成天皇) after his death and will then be referred to exclusively by that name in Japanese. Non-Japanese speakers typically refer to him now as Akihito, or "Emperor Akihito", and will almost certainly continue to do so after his death. It is considered a major faux pas to refer to a living emperor by his posthumous name, though.

Origin of the title

The ruler of Japan was known as either □□□/□ (Yamato-ōkimi, Grand King of Yamato), □/□□ (*Wa-ō*/*Wakoku-ō*, King of Wa, used externally), or □□□□ (*ame-no-shita shiroshimesu ōkimi* or *sumera no mikoto*, Grand King who rules all under heaven, used internally) in Japanese and Chinese sources prior to the 7th century. The oldest documented use of the word "tennō" is on a wooden slat, or *mokkan*, that was unearthed in Asuka-mura, Nara Prefecture in 1998 and dated back to the reign of Emperor Temmu and Empress Jitō.

Marriage traditions

Throughout history, Japanese emperors and noblemen appointed the position of chief wife, rather than just keeping a harem or an assortment of female attendants.



The current Empress Michiko

The Japanese imperial dynasty consistently practiced official polygamy, a practice that only ended in the Taishō period (1912–1926). Besides the empress, the emperor could take, and nearly always took, several secondary consorts ("concubines") of various hierarchical degrees. Concubines were allowed also to other dynasts (shinno, o). After a decision decreed by Emperor Ichijō, some emperors even had two empresses simultaneously (*kōgō* and *chūgū* are the two separate titles for that situation). With the help of all this polygamy, the imperial clan thus was capable of producing more offspring. (Sons by secondary consorts were usually recognized as imperial princes, too, and could be recognized as heir to the throne if the empress did not give birth to an heir.)

Of the eight female tennō (reigning empress) of Japan, none married or gave birth after ascending the throne. Some of them, being widows, had produced children prior to their reigns.



The current Crown Princess Masako

In the succession, children of the empress were preferred over sons of secondary consorts. Thus it was significant which quarters had preferential opportunities in providing chief wives to imperial princes, i.e. supplying future empresses.

Apparently the oldest tradition of official marriages within the imperial dynasty were marriages between dynasty members, even half-siblings or uncle and niece. Such marriages were deemed to preserve better the imperial blood or were aimed at producing children symbolic of a reconciliation between two branches of the imperial dynasty. Daughters of others than imperials remained concubines, until Emperor Shōmu—in what was specifically reported as the first elevation of its kind—elevated his Fujiwara consort Empress Kōmyō to chief wife.

Japanese monarchs have been, as much as others elsewhere, dependent on making alliances with powerful chiefs and other monarchs. Many such alliances were sealed by marriages. The specific feature in Japan has been the fact that these marriages have been soon incorporated as elements of tradition which controlled the marriages of later generations, though the original practical alliance had lost its real meaning. A repeated pattern has been an imperial son-in-law under the influence of his powerful non-imperial father-in-law.

Beginning from the 7th and 8th centuries, emperors primarily took women of the Fujiwara clan as their highest wives—the most probable mothers of future monarchs. This was cloaked as a tradition of marriage between heirs

of two kamis, Shinto gods: descendants of Amaterasu with descendants of the family kami of the Fujiwara. (Originally, the Fujiwara were descended from relatively minor nobility, thus their kami is an unremarkable one in the Japanese myth world.) To produce imperial children, heirs of the nation, with two-side descent from the two kamis, was regarded as desirable—or at least it suited powerful Fujiwara lords, who thus received preference in the imperial marriage market. The reality behind such marriages was an alliance between an imperial prince and a Fujiwara lord, his father-in-law or grandfather, the latter with his resources supporting the prince to the throne and most often controlling the government. These arrangements created the tradition of regents (Sesshō and Kampaku), with these positions allowed to be held only by a Fujiwara sekke lord.

Earlier, the emperors had married women from families of the government-holding Soga lords, and women of the imperial clan itself, i.e. various-degree cousins and often even their own sisters (half-sisters). Several imperials of the 5th and 6th centuries such as Prince Shōtoku were children of a couple of half-siblings. These marriages often were alliance or succession devices: the Soga lord ensured the domination of a prince, to be put as puppet to the throne; or a prince ensured the combination of two imperial descents, to strengthen his own and his children's claim to the throne. Marriages were also a means to seal a reconciliation between two imperial branches.

After a couple of centuries, emperors could no longer take anyone from outside such families as primary wife, no matter what the expediency of such a marriage and power or wealth brought by such might have been. Only very rarely was a prince without a mother of descent from such families allowed to ascend the throne. The earlier necessity and expediency had mutated into a strict tradition that did not allow for current expediency or necessity, but only dictated that daughters of a restricted circle of families were eligible brides, because they had produced eligible brides for centuries. Tradition had become more forceful than law.

Fujiwara women were often Empresses, and concubines came from less exalted noble families. In the last thousand years, sons of an imperial male and a Fujiwara woman have been preferred in the succession.

The five Fujiwara families, Ichijō, Kujō, Nijō, Konoe and Takatsukasa, were the primary source of imperial brides from the 8th century to the 19th century, even more often than daughters of the imperial clan itself. Fujiwara daughters were thus the usual empresses and mothers of emperors.

The acceptable source of imperial wives, brides for the emperor and crown prince, were even legislated into the Meiji-era imperial house laws (1889), which stipulated that daughters of Sekke (the five main branches of the higher Fujiwara) and daughters of the imperial clan itself were primarily acceptable brides.

Since that law was repealed in the aftermath of World War II, the present Emperor Akihito became the first crown prince for over a thousand years to have an empress outside the previously eligible circle.

Succession

The Japanese imperial dynasty bases its position in the expression that it has "reigned since time immemorial" (□□□□ *bansei ikkei*). It is true that its origins are buried in the mists of time: there are no records of any emperor who was not said to have been a descendant of other, yet earlier emperors. There is suspicion that Emperor Keitai (c. 500 AD) may have been an unrelated outsider, though the sources state that he was a male-line descendant of Emperor Ōjin.[*citation needed*] However, his descendants, including his successors, were according to records descended from at least one and probably several imperial princesses of the older lineage. The tradition built by those legends has chosen to recognize just the putative male ancestry as valid for legitimizing his succession, not giving any weight to ties through the said princesses.[*citation needed*] Millennia ago, the Japanese imperial family developed its own peculiar system of hereditary succession. It has been non-primogenitural, more or less agnatic, based mostly on rotation. Today, Japan uses strict agnatic

primogeniture, which was adopted from Prussia, by which Japan was greatly influenced in the 1870s.


Tokyo Imperial Palace

The controlling principles and their interaction were apparently very complex and sophisticated, leading to even idiosyncratic outcomes. Some chief principles apparent in the succession have been:

- Women were allowed to succeed (but there existed no known children of theirs whose father did not also happen to be an agnate of the imperial house, thus there is neither a precedent that a child of an imperial woman with a non-imperial man could inherit, nor a precedent forbidding it for children of empresses). However, female accession was clearly much more rare than male.
- Adoption was possible and a much used way to increase the number of succession-entitled heirs (however, the adopted child had to be a child of another member agnate of the imperial house).
- Abdication was used very often, and in fact occurred more often than death on the throne. In those days, the emperor's chief task was priestly (or godly), containing so many repetitive rituals that it was deemed that after a service of around ten years, the incumbent deserved pampered retirement as an honored former emperor.
- Primogeniture was not used—rather, in the early days, the imperial house practised something resembling a system of rotation. Very often a brother (or sister) followed the elder sibling even in the case of the predecessor leaving children. The "turn" of the next generation came more often after several individuals of the senior generation. Rotation went often between two or more of the branches of the imperial house, thus more or less distant cousins succeeded each other. Emperor Go-Saga even decreed an official alternation between heirs of his two sons, which system continued for a couple of centuries (leading finally to shōgun-induced (or utilized) strife between these two branches, the "southern" and "northern" emperors). Towards the end, the alternates were very distant cousins counted in degrees of male descent (but all that time, intermarriages occurred within the imperial house, thus they were close cousins if female ties are counted). During the past five hundred years, however, probably due to Confucian influence, inheritance by sons—but not always, or even most often, the eldest son—has been the norm.

Historically, the succession to Japan's Chrysanthemum Throne has always passed to descendants in male line from the imperial lineage. Generally they have been males, though of the over one hundred monarchs there have been nine women (one pre-historical and eight historical) as Emperor on eleven occasions. See the male line (http://genealogics.org/descend.php?personID=I00524444&tree=LEO&displayoption=male&generations=6) of the Yamato dynasty.

Over a thousand years ago, a tradition started that an emperor should ascend relatively young. A dynast who had passed his toddler years was regarded suitable and old enough. Reaching the age of legal majority was not a requirement. Thus, a multitude of Japanese emperors have ascended as children, as young as 6 or 8 years old. The high-priestly duties were deemed possible for a walking child. A reign of around ten years was regarded a sufficient service. Being a child was apparently a fine property, to better endure tedious duties and to tolerate subjugation to political power-brokers, as well as sometimes to cloak the truly powerful members of the imperial dynasty. Almost all Japanese empresses and dozens of emperors abdicated, and lived the rest of their lives in pampered retirement, wielding influence behind the scenes. Several emperors abdicated to their entitled retirement while still in their teens. These traditions show in Japanese folklore, theater, literature and other forms of culture, where the emperor is usually described or depicted as an adolescent.

Before the Meiji Restoration, Japan had eleven reigns of reigning empresses, all of them daughters of the male line of the Imperial House. None ascended purely as a wife or as a widow of an emperor. Imperial daughters and granddaughters, however, usually ascended the throne as a sort of a "stop gap" measure—if a suitable male was not available or some imperial branches were in rivalry so that a compromise was needed. Over half of Japanese empresses and many emperors abdicated once a suitable male descendant was considered to be old enough to rule (just past toddlerhood, in some cases). Four empresses, Empress Suiko, Empress Kōgyoku (also Empress Saimei) and Empress Jitō, as well as the mythical Empress Jingū, were widows of deceased emperors and princesses of the blood imperial in their own right. One, Empress Gemmei, was the widow of a crown prince and a princess of the blood imperial. The other four, Empress Genshō, Empress Kōken (also Empress Shōtoku), Empress Meishō and Empress Go-Sakuramachi, were unwed daughters of previous emperors. None of these empresses married or gave birth after ascending the throne.

Article 2 of the 1889 Meiji Constitution (the Constitution of the Empire of Japan) stated, "The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by imperial male descendants, according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law." The 1889 Imperial Household Law fixed the succession on male descendants of the imperial line, and specifically excluded female descendants from the succession. In the event of a complete failure of the main line, the throne would pass to the nearest collateral branch, again in the male line. If the empress did not give birth to an heir, the emperor could take a concubine, and the son he had by that concubine would be recognized as heir to the throne. This law, which was promulgated on the same day as the Meiji Constitution, enjoyed co-equal status with that constitution.

Article 2 of the Constitution of Japan, promulgated in 1947 by influence of the U.S. occupation administration and still in force, provides that "The Imperial Throne shall be dynastic and succeeded to in accordance with the Imperial Household Law passed by the Diet." The Imperial Household Law of 16 January 1947, enacted by the ninety-second and last session of the Imperial Diet, retained the exclusion on female dynasts found in the 1889 law. The government of Prime Minister Yoshida Shigeru hastily cobbled together the legislation to bring the Imperial Household in compliance with the American-written Constitution of Japan that went into effect in May 1947. In an effort to control the size of the imperial family, the law stipulates that only legitimate male descendants in the male line can be dynasts; that imperial princesses lose their status as Imperial Family members if they marry outside the Imperial Family;[8] and that the Emperor and other members of the Imperial Family may not adopt children. It also prevented branches, other than the branch descending from Taishō, from being imperial princes any longer.

Current status

Succession is now regulated by laws passed by the Japanese Diet. The current law excludes women from the succession. A change to this law had been considered until Princess Kiko gave birth to a son.

Until the birth of Prince Hisahito, son of Prince Akishino, on September 6, 2006, there was a potential succession problem, since Prince Akishino was the only male child to be born into the imperial family since 1965. Following the birth of Princess Aiko, there was public debate about amending the current Imperial Household Law to allow women to succeed to the throne. In January 2005 Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi appointed a special panel composed of judges, university professors, and civil servants to study changes to the Imperial Household Law and to make recommendations to the government.

The panel dealing with the succession issue recommended on October 25, 2005 amending the law to allow females of the male line of imperial descent to ascend the Japanese throne. On January 20, 2006, Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi devoted part of his annual keynote speech to the controversy, pledging to submit a bill allowing women to ascend the throne to ensure that the succession continues in the future in a stable manner. Shortly after the announcement that Princess Kiko was pregnant with her third child, Koizumi suspended such

plans. Her son, Prince Hisahito, is the third in line to the throne under the current law of succession. On January 3, 2007, Prime Minister Shinzo Abe announced that he would drop the proposal to alter the Imperial Household Law.[9]

See also

- Politics of Japan

Notes

1. ^ (http://www2u.biglobe.ne.jp/%257egln/77/7750/775004.htm) **(Japanese)**
2. ^ the etymology is unknown. Opinion is hopelessly divided on the truth of etymology, 1.apotheosize Polaris (ancient Chinese mythicalja:), 2.Emperor Gaozong of Tang's appellation 3.variations of "" (literally heavenly king)" (see)
3. ^ "Japan desperate for male heir to oldest monarchy" (http://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/japan-desperate-for-male-heir-to-oldest-monarchy-1339667.html) . London: independent.co.uk. 1 March 1996. http://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/japan-desperate-for-male-heir-to-oldest-monarchy-1339667.html. Retrieved 2010-06-05.
4. ^ The formal investiture of the Prime Minister in 2010 (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bVYP66nRSO8) , the opening of the ordinary session of the Diet in January 2012 (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gBcygK0uQ7E) and the opening of an extra session of the Diet in the autumn of 2011. (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hEkWcXFZz2c) The 120th anniversary of the Diet was commemorarated with a special ceremony (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fAY-7gl21i0) in the House of Councillors in November 2010, when also the Empress and the prince and princess Akishino were present.
5. ^ Boscaro, Adriana; Gatti, Franco; Raveri, Massimo, eds. (2003). *Rethinking Japan: Social Sciences, Ideology and Thought* (http://books.google.com/books?id=kO0tUpCViA8C&pg=PA300&dq=%22son+of+heaven%22#v=onepage&q=%22son%20of%20heaven%22&f=false) . **II**. Japan Library Limited. p. 300. ISBN 0-904404-79-X. http://books.google.com/books?id=kO0tUpCViA8C&pg=PA300&dq=%22son+of+heaven%22#v=onepage&q=%22son%20of%20heaven%22&f=false.
6. ^ Screech, (2006). *Secret Memoirs of the Shoguns: Isaac Titsingh and Japan, 1779-1822*, p. 232 n4.
7. ^ Kan'ichi Asakawa. *The early institutional life of Japan: a study in the reform of 645 A.D. (http://books.google.com/books?id=K1MuAAAAYAAJ&pg=PA25)* . Tokyo: Shueisha; 1903 [cited October 20, 2011]. p. 25. "We purposely avoid, in spite of its wide usage in foreign literature, the misleading term *Mikado*. If it be not for the natural curiosity of the races, which always seeks something novel and loves to call foreign things by foreign names, it is hard to understand why this obsolete and ambiguous word should so sedulously be retained. It originally meant not only the Sovereign, but also his house, the court, and even the State, and its use in historical writings causes many difficulties which it is unnecessary to discuss here in detail. The native Japanese employ the term neither in speech nor in writing. It might as well be dismissed with great advantage from sober literature as it has been for the official documents."
8. ^ Martin, Alex, "Imperial law revisited as family shrinks, Emperor ages (http://www.japantimes.co.jp/text/nn20111216f1.html?utm_source=feedburner&utm_medium=feed&utm_campaign=Feed:+japantimes+(The+Japan+Times:+All+Stories)) ", *Japan Times*, 16 December 2011, p. 3.
9. ^ "Report: Japan to drop plan to allow female monarch" (http://www.usatoday.com/money/world/2007-01-03-japan-female-monarch_x.htm) . *USA Today*. The Associated Press (McLean, VA: Gannett). January 3, 2007. ISSN 0734-7456 (http://www.worldcat.org/issn/0734-7456) . http://www.usatoday.com/money/world/2007-01-03-japan-female-monarch_x.htm. Retrieved October 20, 2011.

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Akihito

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Akihito /akiçito/ (, born 23 December 1933) is the current Emperor (*tennō*) of Japan, the 125th emperor of his line according to Japan's traditional order of succession. He acceded to the throne in 1989.

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Name

In Japan, the emperor is never referred to by his given name, but rather is referred to as "His Imperial Majesty the Emperor" which may be shortened to **"His Imperial Majesty"** (*Tennō Heika*). In writing, the emperor is also referred to formally as "The Reigning Emperor" (*kinjō tennō*). The Era of Akihito's reign bears the name "Heisei" ( ), and according to custom he will be renamed **"Emperor Heisei"** (*Heisei tennō*; see "posthumous name") by order of the cabinet after his death. At the same time, the name of the next era under his successor will also be established.[1]

Biography

Akihito is the eldest son and the fifth child of Emperor Hirohito (the Shōwa Emperor) and Empress Kōjun. Titled Prince Tsugu (*Tsugu-no-miya*) as a child, he was raised and educated by his private tutors and then attended the

Akihito



Emperor Akihito and Empress Michiko (background) visiting the Richmond Olympic Oval in Richmond, B.C., Canada on July 10, 2009.

Emperor of Japan

Reign	7 January 1989 – present
Enthronement	12 November 1990
Predecessor	Shōwa
Heir apparent	Crown Prince Naruhito
Prime Ministers	***See list***
Spouse	Michiko
Issue	***Detail***
Crown Prince Naruhito Prince Akishino Sayako Kuroda	
House	House of Yamato
Father	Hirohito
Mother	Kōjun
Born	23 December 1933 Tokyo, Japan
Religion	Shinto



The newly married Crown Prince and Crown Princess in Japanese traditional attire, with the Prince wearing a *sokutai*, the Princess a *jūnihitoe*

elementary and secondary departments of the Peers' School (*Gakushūin*) from 1940 to 1952.[2] Unlike his predecessors in the Imperial Family, he did not receive a commission as an Army officer, at the request of his father, Hirohito.

During the American firebombing raids on Tokyo in March 1945, he and his younger brother, HIH Prince Masahito, were evacuated from the city. During the American occupation of Japan following World War II, Prince Akihito was tutored in English and Western manners by Elizabeth Gray Vining. He briefly studied at the Department of Political Science at Gakushuin University in Tokyo, though he never received a degree. Although he was Heir-Apparent to the Chrysanthemum Throne from the moment of his birth, his formal Investiture as Crown Prince (*Rittaishi-no-rei*) was held at the Tokyo Imperial Palace on 10 November 1952. In June 1953, Crown Prince Akihito represented Japan at the coronation of Queen Elizabeth II in London.[2]

Then-Crown Prince Akihito and Crown Princess Michiko made official visits to thirty-seven countries. As an Imperial prince, Akihito compared the role of Japanese royalty to that of a robot; and he expressed the hope that he would like to help in bringing the Imperial family closer to the people of Japan.[3]



Imperial Standard

After the death of Emperor Hirohito on 7 January 1989, the crown prince received the succession (*senso*).[4] Emperor Akihito formally acceded to the throne (*sokui*)[4] on 12 November 1990.[2] In 1998, during a state visit to the United Kingdom, he was invested with The Most Noble Order of the Garter.

On 23 December 2001, during his annual birthday meeting with reporters, the Emperor, in response to a reporter's question about tensions with Korea, remarked that he felt a kinship with Koreans and went on to explain that in the *Shoku Nihongi* the mother of Emperor Kammu (736–806) is related to Muryeong of Korea, King of Baekje.[5]

Emperor Akihito underwent surgery for prostate cancer in January 2003.[6] Since succeeding to the throne, Emperor Akihito has made an effort to bring the Imperial Family closer to the Japanese people. The Emperor and Empress of Japan have made official visits to eighteen countries, as well as all forty-seven Prefectures of Japan.[2]

In response to the 2011 Tōhoku earthquake and tsunami and the Fukushima I nuclear crisis, the Emperor made a historic televised appearance[7] urging his people not to give up hope and to help each other. The Emperor had never been featured in a prerecorded televised message before, and so this event is historic and showed the scale of this disaster.[8] The Emperor and the Empress also made a visit on Wednesday, 30 March 2011 to a temporary shelter housing refugees of the disaster, in order to inspire hope in the people. This kind of event is also extremely rare, though in line with the Emperor's attempts to bring the Imperial Family closer to the people.[9]

Later in 2011 he was admitted to hospital suffering from pneumonia.[10] In February 2012, it was announced

that the Emperor would be having a coronary examination.[11] He underwent successful heart bypass surgery on 18 February 2012.[12]

Marriage and children

On 10 April 1959, he married Michiko Shōda (born 24 October 1934), the eldest daughter of Hidesaburo Shōda, the president and later honorary chairman of Nisshin Flour Milling Company.[2][13] The new Crown Princess was the first commoner to marry into the imperial family. The Emperor and the Empress have three children:

- HIH The Crown Prince Naruhito (b. 23 February 1960, titled Hiro-no-miya or Prince Hiro),
- HIH The Prince Akishino (Fumihito, b. 30 November 1965, titled Aya-no-miya or Prince Aya) and
- Sayako Kuroda, formerly HIH The Princess Sayako (titled Nori-no-miya or Princess Nori, b. 18 April 1969).[2]

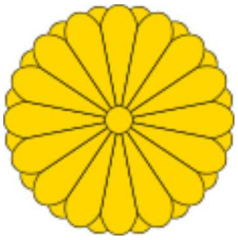
Official functions

Despite being strictly constrained by his constitutional position, he also issued several wide-ranging statements of remorse to Asian countries, for their suffering under Japanese occupation, beginning with an expression of remorse to China made in April 1989, three months after the death of his father, Emperor Hirohito.

In June 2005, the Emperor visited the US territory of Saipan, the site of a battle in World War II from 15 June to 9 July 1944 (Battle of Saipan). Accompanied by Empress Michiko, he offered prayers and flowers at several memorials, honoring not only the Japanese who died, but also American soldiers, Korean laborers, and local islanders. It was the first trip by a Japanese monarch to a World War II battlefield abroad. The Saipan journey was received with high praise by the Japanese people, as were the Emperor's visits to war memorials in Tokyo, Hiroshima, Nagasaki, and Okinawa in 1995.

On 6 September 2006, the Emperor celebrated the birth of his first grandson, Prince Hisahito, the third child of the Emperor's younger son. Prince Hisahito is the first male heir born to the Japanese imperial family in 41 years (since his father Prince Akishino) and could avert a possible succession crisis as the Emperor's elder son, the Crown Prince, has only one daughter, Princess Aiko. Under Japan's current male-only succession law, Princess Aiko is not eligible for the throne. The birth of Prince Hisahito could mean that proposed changes to the law to allow Aiko to ascend the Chrysanthemum Throne will not go through after being temporarily shelved following the announcement of Princess

Japanese Imperial Family



- **HIM The Emperor**
  HIM The Empress
  - HIH The Crown Prince
    HIH The Crown Princess
    - HIH The Princess Toshi
  - HIH The Prince Akishino
    HIH The Princess Akishino
    - HIH Princess Mako of Akishino
    - HIH Princess Kako of Akishino
    - HIH Prince Hisahito of Akishino

- HIH The Prince Hitachi
  HIH The Princess Hitachi

HIH The Prince Mikasa
HIH The Princess Mikasa

- HIH Prince Tomohito of Mikasa
  HIH Princess Tomohito of Mikasa
  - HIH Princess Akiko of Mikasa
  - HIH Princess Yōko of Mikasa
- HIH The Prince Katsura
- HIH The Princess Takamado
  - HIH Princess Tsuguko of Takamado
  - HIH Princess Noriko of Takamado
  - HIH Princess Ayako of Takamado

Monarchical styles of

Emperor Akihito



Reference style	His Imperial Majesty
Spoken style	Your Imperial Majesty
Alternative style	Sir



Emperor Akihito and Empress Michiko of Japan.

Kiko's third pregnancy in February 2006.



The Emperor of Japan, at Chowaden Reception Hall, giving a New Year's address to the people of Japan in 2010.

Ichthyological research

In extension of his father's interest in marine biology, the Emperor is a published ichthyological researcher, and has specialized studies within the taxonomy of the family *Gobiidae*.[14] He has written papers for scholarly journals, namely *Gene* and the *Japanese Journal of Ichthyology*.[15]

He has also written papers about the history of science during the Edo and Meiji eras, which were published in *Science*[16] and *Nature*.[17] In 2005, a newly described goby was named *Exyrias akihito* in his honour.

- Member of the Ichthyological Society of Japan
- Foreign member of the Linnean Society of London (1980)
- Honorary member of the Linnean Society of London (1986)
- Research associate of the Australian Museum
- Honorary member of the Zoological Society of London (1992)
- Honorary member of the Research Institute for Natural Science of Argentina (1997)
- Honorary degree of the Uppsala University (2007)

Awards

National

- Collar and Grand Cordon of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum
- Grand Cordon of The Order of the Rising Sun with the Paulownia Blossoms (renamed Grand Cordon of The Order of the Paulownia Flowers from 2003)
- Grand Cordon of the Order of the Sacred Treasure
- Order of Culture
- The Golden Medal of Merit of the Japanese Red Cross
- The Golden Medal of Honorary Member of the Japanese Red Cross

International

Country	Awards
Afghanistan	Order of the Supreme Sun
Austria	Decoration for Services to the Republic of Austria Grand Star

Bahrain	Order of al-Khalifa Collar
Belgium	Order of Leopold Grand Cordon
Botswana	Presidential Order
Brazil	Order of the Southern Cross Grand Collar
Cameroon	Order of Valour Grand Cordon
Chile	Order of the Merit of Chile Grand Collar
Colombia	Order of the Cross of Boyaca Grand Collar
Democratic Republic of the Congo	National Order of the Leopard Grand Cordon
Côte d'Ivoire	Order of the Ivory Coast Grand Cordon
Czech Republic	Order of the White Lion 1st Class (Civil Division) with Collar Chain
Denmark	Order of the Elephant Knight Grand Cross
Egypt	Order of the Nile Grand Collar
Estonia	Order of the Cross of Terra Mariana The Collar of the Cross[18]
Ethiopia	Order of Solomon Grand Collar
Finland	Order of the White Rose Grand Cross with Collar
France	Légion d'honneur Grand Cross
Germany	Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany Grand Cross, Special Class
Greece	Order of the Redeemer Grand Cross
Hungary	Order of Merit of Hungary Grand Cross
Iceland	Order of the Falcon Grand Cross with Collar
Indonesia	Star of Adipurna 1st Class
Italy	Order of Merit of the Republic Grand Cross with Cordon
Jordan	Order of Hussein ibn' Ali Collar
Kazakhstan	Order of the Golden Eagle
Kenya	Order of the Golden Heart
Kuwait	Order of Mubarak the Great Collar
Latvia	Order of the Three Stars Commander Grand Cross with Chain [19]
Liberia	Order of the Star of Africa Knight Grand Band Order of the Pioneers of the Republic Knight Grand Band
Lithuania	Order of Vytautas the Great the Great Grand Cross with Collar[20]
Luxembourg	Order of the Gold Lion of the House of Nassau Knight
Malawi	Order of the Lion Grand Commander
Malaysia	Order of the Crown of the Realm
Mali	National Order Grand Cordon
Mexico	Order of the Aztec Eagle Grand Collar

Morocco	Order of Muhammad Grand Collar
Nepal	Order of Ojaswi Rajanya
Netherlands	Order of the Netherlands Lion Knight Grand Cross
Nigeria	Order of the Federal Republic Grand Cordon
Norway	Royal Norwegian Order of St. Olav Grand Cross with Collar
Oman	Order of Oman Superior Class
Pakistan	Nishan-e-Pakistan 1st Class
Panama	Order of Manuel Amador Guerrero Gold Collar
Peru	Order of the Sun Grand Cross in Brilliants
Philippines	Philippine Legion of Honor Chief Commander[21]
Poland	Order of the White Eagle
Portugal	Order of Prince Henry Grand Collar[22]
Qatar	Collar of Independence
Saudi Arabia	Badr Chain
Senegal	Order of the Lion Grand Cordon
South Africa	Order of Good Hope Grand Cross in Gold
Spain	Order of the Golden Fleece Knight
Sweden	Royal Order of the Seraphim Knight
Thailand	The Most Auspicious Order of the Rajamitrabhorn The Most Illustrious Order of the Royal House of Chakri
The Gambia	Order of the Republic of Gambia Grand Commander
Ukraine	Order of Prince Yaroslav the Wise First Class
United Arab Emirates	Collar of the Federation
United Kingdom	Stranger 984th Knight of Order of the Garter
Commonwealth realms	Knight Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order Queen Elizabeth II Coronation Medal
Serbia and Montenegro	Order of the Yugoslav Star
Zaire	Order of the Leopard Grand Cordon

Other Awards

- The Royal Society King Charles II Medal

Ancestors

- Ancestry in Genealogics.org (http://genealogics.org/pedigree.php?personID=I00436222&tree=LEO&parentset=0&display=standard&generations=5)

Patrilineal descent

See also

- The Emperor's Birthday
- Imperial Household Agency
- Imperial Household of Japan
- Japanese era name
- List of Japanese Emperors
- List of longest reigning current monarchs

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External links

- The Japanese Imperial Household Agency Homepage (http://www.kunaicho.go.jp/eindex.html) , press conferences, extensive biography, official duties and public activities.
- Complete transcript and audio mp3 and video of 'Do Not Lose Hope' Address to the Nation (http://americanrhetoric.com/speeches/emperorakihitodisasterspeech.htm) at AmericanRhetoric.com

Akihito **House of Yamato** **Born:** 23 December 1933		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Emperor Shōwa**	**Emperor of Japan** 1989–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent:* *Crown Prince Naruhito*

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Akihito&oldid=483102136"
Categories: 1933 births | Current national leaders | Gakushuin University alumni | Japanese emperors | Japanese ichthyologists | Living people | Reigning monarchs | Japanese philanthropists | Collars of the Order of the Chrysanthemum | Collars of the Order of the White Lion | Commanders Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of the White Rose of Finland | Extra Knights Companion of the Garter | Grand Collars of the Order of Prince Henry | Grand Collars of the Order of the Southern Cross | Grand Cordons of the Order of Leopold (Belgium) | Grand Croix of the Légion d'honneur | Grand Crosses of the Order of the Redeemer | Grand Crosses Special Class of the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany | Honorary Knights Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order | Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion | Knights Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of Merit of the Italian Republic | Knights Grand Cross with Collar of the Order of St. Olav | Knights of the Elephant | Knights of the Golden Fleece | Knights of the Order of the Rajamitrabhorn | Knights of the Order of the Royal House of Chakri | Recipients of the Collar of the Order of the Cross of Terra Mariana | Recipients of the Decoration for Services to the Republic of Austria | Recipients of the Nishan-e-Pakistan

Recipients of the Order of the Crown of the Realm | Recipients of the Order of Culture
Recipients of the Order of Prince Yaroslav the Wise | Recipients of the Order of Manuel Amador Guerrero
Recipients of the Order of Merit (Chile) | Recipients of the Order of Solomon
Recipients of the Order of the Aztec Eagle | Recipients of the Order of the Falcon
Recipients of the Order of the Gold Lion of the House of Nassau | Recipients of the Order of the Nile
Recipients of the Order of the Rising Sun | Recipients of the Order of the Sacred Treasure
Recipients of the Order of the Seraphim | Recipients of the Order of the Sun (Peru)
Recipients of the Order of the Supreme Sun | Recipients of the Order of the Three Stars, 1st Class with Chain
Recipients of the Order of the White Eagle (Poland) | Recipients of the Order of the White Lion
Recipients of the Order of the Yugoslav Star | Recipients of the Order of Vytautas the Great
Recipients of the Philippine Legion of Honor

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Imperial House of Japan

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

For the administration of the Imperial household, see Imperial Household Agency.

The **Imperial House of Japan** (皇室 *kōshitsu*), also referred to as the **Imperial Family** or the **Yamato Dynasty**, comprises those members of the extended family of the reigning Emperor of Japan who undertake official and public duties. Under the present Constitution of Japan, the emperor is the symbol of the state and unity of the people. Other members of the imperial family perform ceremonial and social duties, but have no role in the affairs of government. The duties as an emperor are passed down the line to children and their children's children and so on.

The Japanese monarchy is the oldest continuous hereditary monarchy in the world. The imperial house recognizes 125 monarchs beginning with the legendary Emperor Jimmu (traditionally dated to February 11, 660 BC) and continuing up to the current emperor, Akihito; see its family tree. However, there is no historical evidence for the genealogical relationships, and in most cases even the existence of, the first 25 emperors.

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This article contains Japanese text. Without proper rendering support, you may see question marks, boxes, or other symbols instead of kanji and kana.

Imperial House of Japan

Country	Japan
Titles	Emperor of Japan
Founder	Emperor Jimmu
Current head	Akihito
Founding	660 BC (traditional)
Cadet branches	Akishino-no-miya Hitachi-no-miya Mikasa-no-miya Katsura-no-miya Takamado-no-miya

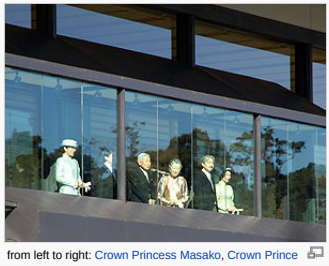
List of current members

[edit]

The 1947 Imperial Household Law defines the imperial house as: the Emperor of Japan (天皇 *tennō*); the empress (皇后 *kōgō*); the empress dowager (皇太后 *kōtaigō*); the grand empress dowager (太皇太后 *tai-kōtaigō*); the crown prince (皇太子 *kōtaishi*) and his consort (皇太子妃 *kōtaishihi*); the imperial grandson who is heir apparent (*kōtaison*, 皇太孫) and his consort; the male-line Imperial grandsons (親王 *shinnō*) and their consorts; the unmarried male-line Imperial granddaughters (内親王 *naishinnō*); Imperial Princes (王 *ō*) and their consorts; and the Imperial Princesses (女王 *nyoō*). The legitimate children and male line grandchildren of an emperor are 親王 *shinnō* (imperial princes) in the case of males and 内親王 *naishinnō* (imperial princesses) in the case of females. More distant male line descendants are *ō* (princes) or *nyoō* (princesses).

After the removal of eleven collateral branches from the Imperial House in October 1947, the official membership of the imperial family has effectively been limited to the male line descendants of the Emperor Taishō, excluding females who married outside the imperial family and their descendants.

There are presently 23 members of the imperial family:



from left to right: Crown Princess Masako, Crown Prince Naruhito, Emperor Akihito, Empress Michiko, Prince Akishino, Princess Akishino; on the occasion of the Emperor's Birthday at the Tokyo Imperial Palace; 2005

- **The Emperor** was born at the Imperial Palace in Tokyo on 23 December 1933, the elder son and sixth child of the Shōwa Emperor and Empress Kōjun. He was married on 10 April 1959 to Michiko Shōda. Emperor Akihito succeeded his father as emperor on 7 January 1989.
- **The Empress**, formerly Michiko Shoda, was born in Tokyo on 24 October 1934, the eldest daughter of Hidesaburo Shoda, president and honorary chairman of Nisshin Flour Milling Inc..
  - **The Crown Prince**, the eldest son of the Emperor and the Empress, was born at the Tsugo Palace in Tokyo on 23 February 1960. He became heir apparent upon his father's ascension to the throne. Crown Prince Naruhito was married on 10 June 1993 to Masako Owada. The Crown Prince and Crown Princess have one daughter.
  - **The Crown Princess** was born on 9 December 1963, the daughter of Hisashi Owada, a former vice minister of foreign affairs and former permanent representative of Japan to the United Nations.
    - **The Princess Toshi**, who was born on 1 December 2001 and who holds the childhood title "Princess Toshi".
  - **The Prince Akishino**, the Emperor's second son, was born on 11 November 1965. His childhood title was Prince Aya. He received the title Prince Akishino and permission to start a new branch of the imperial family upon his marriage to Kawashima Kiko on 29 June 1988.
  - **The Princess Akishino** was born on 11 September 1966, the daughter of Kawashima Tatsuhiko, professor of economics at Gakushuin University. Prince and Princess Akishino have two daughters and a son:
    - **Princess Mako of Akishino** (born 23 October 1991)
    - **Princess Kako of Akishino** (born 29 December 1994)
    - **Prince Hisahito of Akishino** (born 6 September 2006)
- **The Prince Hitachi** was born on 28 November 1935, the second son and seventh child of the Emperor Shōwa and Empress Kojun. His childhood title was Prince Yoshi. He received the title Prince Hitachi and permission to set up a new branch of the imperial family on 1 October 1961, the day after his wedding.
- **The Princess Hitachi** was born on 19 July 1940, the daughter of former Count Tsugaru Yoshitaka. Prince and Princess Hitachi have no children.
- **The Prince Mikasa** was born on 2 December 1915, the fourth son of the Taisho Emperor and Empress Teimei. He is the surviving brother of Emperor Shōwa and the surviving paternal uncle of Emperor Akihito. His childhood title was Prince Sumi (Sumi-no-miya). He received the title Prince Mikasa and permission to start a new branch of the imperial family on 2 December 1935. He married on 22 October 1941.
- **The Princess Mikasa** was born on 6 June 1923, the second daughter of Viscount Takagi Masanori. Prince and Princess Mikasa have two daughters and three sons.
  - **Prince Tomohito of Mikasa** is the eldest son of the Prince and Princess Mikasa and a first cousin of Emperor Akihito. He is also heir apparent to his father's title, Mikasa-no-miya. He was born on 5 January 1946. Prince Tomohito married Aso Nobuko on 7 November 1980.
  - **Princess Tomohito of Mikasa** was born on 9 April 1955, the daughter of Aso Takakichi, chairman of Aso Cement Co. and his wife, Kazuko, a daughter of former prime minister Yoshida Shigeru. Prince and Princess Tomohito of Mikasa have two daughters:
    - **Princess Akiko of Mikasa** (born 20 December 1981)
    - **Princess Yōko of Mikasa** (born 25 October 1983)
  - **The Prince Katsura** is the second son of Prince and Princess Mikasa and a first cousin of Emperor Akihito. He was born on 11 February 1948. Originally known as Prince Yoshihito of Mikasa, he received the title Prince Katsura (Katsura-no-miya) and authorization to start a new branch of the imperial family on 1 January 1988.
  - **The Princess Takamado** is the widow of the Prince Takamado (born 29 December 1954, died 21 November 2002), the third son of the Prince and the Princess Mikasa and a first cousin of Emperor Akihito. The princess was born 10 July 1953, the daughter of Tottori Shigejiro. She married the prince on 6 December 1981. Originally known as Prince Norihito of Mikasa, he received the title Prince Takamado and permission to start a new branch of the imperial family on 1 December 1981. Princess Takamado has three daughters:
    - **Princess Tsuguko of Takamado** (born 6 March 1986)
    - **Princess Noriko of Takamado** (born 22 July 1988)
    - **Princess Ayako of Takamado** (born 15 September 1990)

Japanese Imperial Family

- **HIM The Emperor**
  HIM The Empress
  - HIH The Crown Prince
    HIH The Crown Princess
    - HIH The Princess Toshi
  - HIH The Prince Akishino
    HIH The Princess Akishino
    - HIH Princess Mako of Akishino
    - HIH Princess Kako of Akishino
    - HIH Prince Hisahito of Akishino

- HIH The Prince Hitachi
  HIH The Princess Hitachi

HIH The Prince Mikasa
HIH The Princess Mikasa

- HIH Prince Tomohito of Mikasa
  HIH Princess Tomohito of Mikasa
  - HIH Princess Akiko of Mikasa
  - HIH Princess Yōko of Mikasa
- HIH The Prince Katsura
- HIH The Princess Takamado
  - HIH Princess Tsuguko of Takamado
  - HIH Princess Noriko of Takamado
  - HIH Princess Ayako of Takamado

Family tree

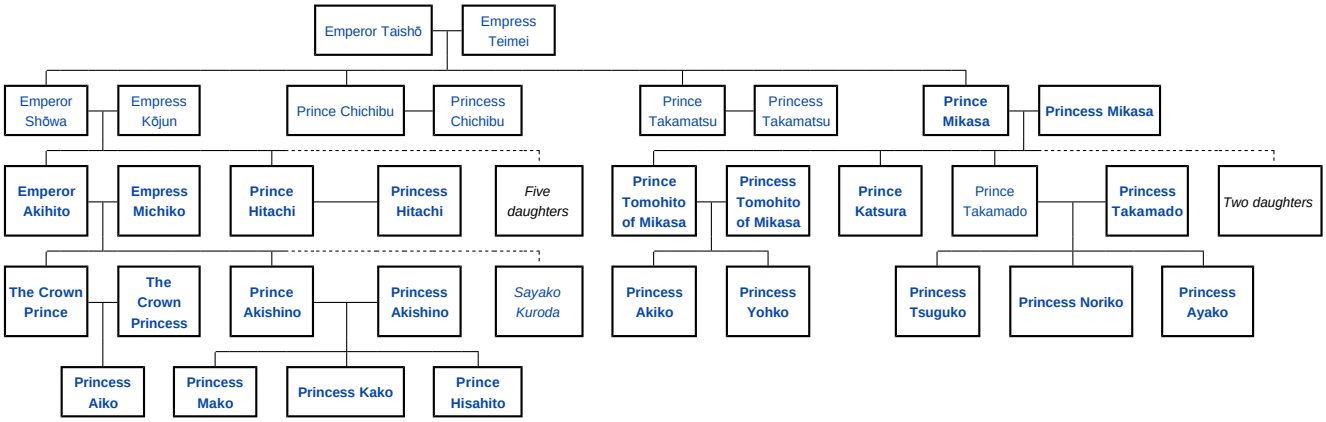
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URL: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Imperial_House_of_Japan

Panoramic view of Tokyo Imperial Palace as seen from Marunouchi.

The following family tree shows the lineage of the current members of the Imperial family (living members in **bold**). Princesses who left the imperial family upon their marriage are indicated in *italics*:[1]



Living former members [edit]

Under the terms of the 1947 Imperial Household Law, *naishinnō* (imperial princesses) and *nyoō* (princesses) lose their titles and membership in the imperial family upon marriage, unless they marry the Emperor or another member of the imperial family. Three of the five daughters of Emperor Shōwa, the two daughters of Prince Mikasa, and most recently, the only daughter of the Emperor Akihito left the imperial family upon marriage, taking the surnames of their husbands. The eldest daughter of Emperor Shōwa married the eldest son of Prince Higashikuni Naruhiko in 1943. The Higashikuni family lost its imperial status along with the other collateral branches of the imperial family in October 1947. The living former imperial princesses are:

- Atsuko Ikeda, born 7 March 1931, fourth daughter of Emperor Shōwa and surviving elder sister of Emperor Akihito.
- Takako Shimazu, born 2 March 1939, fifth daughter and youngest child of Emperor Shōwa and younger sister of Emperor Akihito.
- Yasuko Konoe, born 26 April 1944, eldest daughter and eldest child of Prince and Princess Mikasa.
- Masako Sen, born 23 October 1951, second daughter and fourth child of Prince and Princess Mikasa.
- Sayako Kuroda, born 18 April 1969, third child and only daughter of Emperor Akihito and Empress Michiko.

In addition to these former princesses, there are also several people of Imperial descent in the eleven cadet branches of the dynasty (Asaka, Fushimi, Higashi-Fushimi, Higashi-kuni, Kan'in, Kaya, Kitashirakawa, Kuni, Nashimoto, Takeda, and Yamashina) that left the imperial family in October 1947. The Shōwa emperor's eldest daughter, Higashikuni Morihito (Shigeko), and his third daughter, Takatukasa Toshimichi (Kazuko), died in 1961 and 1989, respectively.

Succession [edit]

See also: See also: Emperor of Japan –Succession


Crown Prince Naruhito is heir apparent to the Japanese throne

Historically, the succession to the Chrysanthemum Throne has generally passed in male line of the imperial lineage. The imperial clan previously included specially designated collateral lines or shinnōke (princely houses), too. The surviving shinnōke and several other branches of the extended imperial clan (the ōke) were reduced to commoner status in 1947.

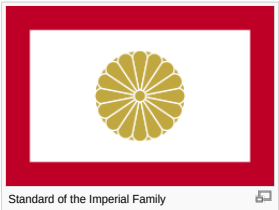
Before the Meiji Restoration, Japan had eight female *tennō* or reigning empresses, all of them daughters of male line of the imperial clan. None ascended purely as a wife or as a widow of an emperor. None of these empresses married or gave birth after ascending the throne.

Article 2 of the Constitution of Japan provides that "the Imperial Throne shall be dynastic and succeeded to in accordance with the Imperial Household Law passed by the Diet." *The Imperial Household Law of 1947* enacted by the 92nd and last session of the Imperial Diet, retained the exclusion on female dynasts found in the 1889 law. The government of Prime Minister Yoshida Shigeru hastily cobbled together the legislation to bring the Imperial House in compliance with the American-written Constitution of Japan that went into effect in May 1947. In an effort to control the size of the imperial family, the law stipulates that only legitimate male descendants in the male line can be dynasts; that *naishinnō* (imperial princesses) and *nyoō* (princesses) lose their status as imperial family-members if they marry outside the imperial family; that *shinnō* (imperial princes), other than the crown prince, *ō* (princes), unmarried imperial princesses and princesses, and the widows of imperial princes and princesses may, upon their own request or in the event of special circumstances, renounce their membership in the imperial family with approval of the Imperial House Council; and that the Emperor and other members of the imperial family may not adopt children.

Before September 2006, there was a potential succession crisis since no male child had been born into the imperial family since Prince Akishino in 1965. Following the birth of Princess Aiko, there was some public debate about amending the Imperial House Law to allow female descendants of an emperor and their descendants to succeed to the throne. In January 2005, Prime Minister Koizumi Junichiro appointed a special panel of judges, university professors, and civil servants to study changes to the Imperial House Law and to make recommendations to the government. On October 25, 2005, the commission recommended amending the law to allow females in the male line of imperial descent to succeed to the throne. Since the birth of a male son to another of Akihito's children the issue has been left in abeyance by both the public and successive governments. Also see Japanese Imperial succession controversy.

History of titles [edit]

Ō (王) is a title (commonly translated "prince") given to male members of the Japanese Imperial Family who do not have the higher title of shinnō. The female equivalent is joō/nyoō (女王). Ō can also be translated as "king". The origin of this double meaning is a copying of the Chinese pattern. Unlike in China, however, ō was only used for imperial family members.


Standard of the Imperial Family

Historically, any male member of the Imperial Family was titled ō by default, with shinnō (親王; literally *relative-prince*) and its female equivalent naishinnō (内親王; literally *relative-princess*) being special titles granted by the Emperor. After the Meiji Restoration, the difference between ō and shinnō were altered. A shinnō or naishinnō was a legitimate Imperial Family member descended from an Emperor down to the great grandchild. The term "legitimate Imperial Family" excludes anyone not connected by a direct *male line* descent, as well as the descendants of anyone who renounced their membership in the Imperial Family, or were expelled from the Imperial Family. Shinnō also included the heads of any of the shinnōke. A provision of law which never had an opportunity to be applied also stipulated that if the head of a shinnōke succeeded to the Chrysanthemum Throne, then his brothers would acquire the title of shinnō, as well as their descendants (down to the grandchildren?). The Emperor could also specially grant the title of shinnō to any ō.

In 1947, the law was changed so that shinnō only extended to the male-line grandchildren of an Emperor. The Imperial Family was also drastically pruned, disestablishing the ōke and shinnōke. The consort of an ō or shinnō has the suffix -hi (妃) to ō or shinnō.

See also [edit]

- Chrysanthemum Throne
- Three Palace Sanctuaries
- Tokyo Imperial Palace
- Emperor of Japan

Related terms [edit]

- Shinnōke
  - Fushimi
    - Ōke
  - Katsura
  - Arisugawa
  - Kan'in

References [edit]

This **biographical article needs additional citations for verification**. Please help by adding reliable sources. Contentious material about living persons that is unsourced or poorly sourced **must be removed immediately**, especially if potentially libelous or harmful. *(April 2011)*

1. ^ Imperial Household Agency Genealogy

External links [edit]

- The official website of the Imperial Household Agency
- Japan Zone | The Imperial Family

Categories: Japan-related lists | Dynasty genealogy | Imperial House of Japan

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Thailand

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Thailand (/ˈtaɪlænd/ *TY-land* or /ˈtaɪlənd/;[7] Thai: ประเทศไทย, RTGS: Prathet Thai), officially the **Kingdom of Thailand** (Thai: ราชอาณาจักรไทย, RTGS: Ratcha Anachak Thai; IPA: [râːt.tɕʰā ʔāːnāːtɕàk tʰāj] (listen)), formerly known as **Siam** (Thai: สยาม; RTGS: Sayam), is a country located at the centre of the Indochina peninsula in Southeast Asia. It is bordered to the north by Burma and Laos, to the east by Laos and Cambodia, to the south by the Gulf of Thailand and Malaysia, and to the west by the Andaman Sea and the southern extremity of Burma. Its maritime boundaries include Vietnam in the Gulf of Thailand to the southeast, and Indonesia and India in the Andaman Sea to the southwest.

The country is a constitutional monarchy, headed by King Rama IX, the ninth king of the House of Chakri, who, having reigned since 1946, is the world's longest-serving head of state and the longest-reigning monarch in Thai history.[8] The king of Thailand is titled Head of State, Head of the Armed Forces, the Upholder of the Buddhist religion, and the Defender of all Faiths.

Thailand is the world's 51st-largest country in terms of total area, with an area of approximately 513,000 km^2 (198,000 sq mi), and is the 20th-most-populous country, with around 64 million people. The capital and largest city is Bangkok, which is Thailand's political, commercial, industrial and cultural hub. About 75% of the population is ethnically Thai, 14% is of Chinese origin, and 3% is ethnically Malay;[1] the rest belong to minority groups including Mons, Khmers and various hill tribes. The country's official language is Thai. The primary religion is Buddhism, which is practiced by around 95% of the population.

Thailand experienced rapid economic growth between 1985 and 1995, and is presently a newly industrialized country and a major exporter. Tourism also contributes significantly to the Thai economy, as the country is home to a number of well-known tourist destinations, including Ayutthaya, Pattaya, Bangkok, Phuket, Krabi, Chiang Mai, Hua Hin and Ko Samui.[9][10] There are approximately 5.2 million legal and illegal migrants in Thailand,[11] and the country has also attracted a number of expatriates from developed countries.[12]

Contents

- 1 Etymology
- 2 History
  - 2.1 20th century
  - 2.2 The southern region
- 3 Politics and government
  - 3.1 History
  - 3.2 28 June 1932
  - 3.3 1933 to 1997
  - 3.4 1997 to 2006
  - 3.5 2006 coup d'état
  - 3.6 Political crisis

Kingdom of Thailand
ราชอาณาจักรไทย
Ratcha Anachak Thai
ประเทศไทย
Prathet Thai



Flag



Emblem

Anthem: *Phleng Chat Thai*

Royal anthem: *Phleng Sansoen Phra Barami*



Location of **Thailand** (green)
in ASEAN (dark grey) — [Legend]

Capital (and largest city)	Bangkok (Thai: *Krung Thep*)[1] 13°45′N 100°29′E
Official language(s)	Thai[1]
Official scripts	Thai alphabet
Demonym	Thai
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy
- King	Bhumibol Adulyadej
- Prime Minister	Yingluck Shinawatra (PT)
Legislature	National Assembly
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	House of Representatives
Formation	
- Sukhothai Kingdom	1238–1448
- Ayutthaya Kingdom	1351–1767
- Thonburi Kingdom	1768–1782
- Rattanakosin Kingdom	6 April 1782

- 4 Administrative divisions
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  - 11.2 Religion
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- 13 International rankings
- 14 See also
- 15 References
- 16 External links

- Constitutional monarchy	24 June 1932
- 2007 Constitution	24 August 2007
Area	
- Total	513,120 km^2 (51st) 198,115 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.4 (2,230 km^2)
Population	
- 2011 estimate	66,720,153[2][2] (20th)
- 2010 census	65,479,453 [3]
- Density	132.1/km^2 (88th) 342/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$616.783 billion[4] (24th)
- Per capita	$9,598[4] (84th)
GDP (nominal)	2011 estimate
- Total	$332.47 billion[4] (30th)
- Per capita	$5,174[4] (89th)
Gini (2009)	42.5[5]
HDI (2011)	▲0.682[6] (medium) (103rd)
Currency	Baht (฿) (THB)
Time zone	(UTC+7)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	TH
Internet TLD	.th, .ไทย
Calling code	+66

1 ^ Thai name: กรุงเทพมหานคร *Krung Thep Maha Nakhon* or *Krung Thep*. The full name is กรุงเทพมหานคร อมรรัตนโกสินทร์ มหินทรายุทธยา มหาดิลกภพ นพรัตนราชธานีบุรีรมย์ อุดมราชนิเวศน์มหาสถาน อมรพิมานอวตารสถิต สักกะทัตติยะวิษณุกรรมประสิทธิ์ *Krung Thep Mahanakhon Amon Rattanakosin Mahinthara Yuthaya Mahadilok Phop Noppharat Ratchathani Burirom Udomratchaniwet Mahasathan Amon Phiman Awatan Sathit Sakkathattiya Witsanukam Prasit*.

2 ^ According to the Department of Provincial Administration's official register (http://203.113.86.149/stat/pk/pk53/pk_53.pdf) , not taking into account unregistered citizens and immigrants.

Etymology

The country's official name was *Siam* (Thai: สยาม RTGS: Sayam, pronounced [sàjǎːm]) until 23 June 1939,[13] when it was changed to Thailand. It was then renamed Siam from 1945 to 11 May 1949, after which it was again renamed Thailand. Also spelled *Siem*, *Syâm* or *Syâma*, it has been identified with the Sanskrit *Śyâma* (श्याम, meaning "dark" or "brown"). The names Shan and A-hom seem to be variants of the same word, and Śyâma is possibly not its origin but a learned and artificial distortion.[14]

The word *Thai* (ไทย) is not, as commonly believed,[*citation needed*] derived from the word *Tai* (ไท) meaning "freedom" in the Thai language; it is, however, the name of an ethnic group from the central plains (the Thai people).[*citation needed*] A famous Thai scholar argued that Tai (ไท) simply means "people" or "human being" since his investigation shows that in some rural areas the word "Tai" was used instead of the usual Thai word "khon" (คน) for people.[15]

The Thai use the phrase "land of the free" to express pride in the fact that Thailand is the only country in Southeast Asia never colonized by a European power. While the Thai people will often refer to their country using the polite form *Prathet Thai* (Thai: ประเทศไทย), they most commonly use the more colloquial word *Mueang Thai* (Thai: เมืองไทย) or simply *Thai* (Thai: ไทย); the word *mueang* (Thai: เมือง) meaning nation but most commonly used to refer to a city or town. *Ratcha Anachak Thai* (Thai: ราชอาณาจักรไทย) means "Kingdom of Thailand" or "Kingdom of Thai".

Etymologically, its components are: -*Ratcha*- (from Sanskrit *raja*, meaning "king, royal, realm") ; -*ana*- (from Pāli *āṇā*, "authority, command, power", itself from Sanskrit *ājñā*, same meaning) -*chak* (from Sanskrit *cakra* or *cakraṃ* meaning "wheel", a symbol of power and rule). The Thai National Anthem (Thai: เพลงชาติ), composed and written by Peter Feit during the extremely "patriotic" 1930s, refers to the Thai nation as: prathet-thai (Thai: ประเทศไทย). The first line of the national anthem is: *prathet thai ruam lueat nuea chat chuea thai* (Thai: ประเทศไทยรวมเลือดเนื้อชาติเชื้อไทย) and was translated in 1939 by Colonel Luang Saranuprabhandi as: "Thailand is the unity of Thai blood and body."

History

Main articles: History of Thailand and People of Thailand



An example of pottery discovered near Ban Chiang in Udon Thani province, the earliest dating to 2100 BCE.

The region known as Thailand has been inhabited by humans at least about 4,000 years ago. Similar to other regions in Southeast Asia, it was heavily influenced by the culture and religions of India, starting with the kingdom of Funan around the 1st century CE.[16]



The ruins of Wat Chaiwatthanaram at Ayutthaya, the city was burned and sacked in 1767 by a Burmese army under the King Hsinbyushin.

After the fall of the Khmer Empire in the 13th century, various states thrived there, such as the various Tai, Mon, Khmer and Malay kingdoms, as seen through the numerous archaeological sites and artifacts that are scattered throughout the Siamese landscape. Prior to the 12th century however, the first Thai or Siamese state is traditionally considered to be the Buddhist kingdom of Sukhothai, which was founded in 1238.

Following the decline and fall of the Khmer empire in the 13th–15th century, the Buddhist Tai kingdoms of Sukhothai, Lanna and Lan Xang (now Laos) were on the ascension. However, a century later, the power of Sukhothai was overshadowed by the new kingdom of Ayutthaya, established in the mid-14th century in the lower Chao Phraya River or Menam area.



Phanom Rung, a temple in Thailand from the former Khmer Empire



The Ayutthaya period immense 19 meter high seated bronze Buddha in Wat Phanan Choeng from 1324 pre-dates the founding of the city in 1351

Ayutthaya's expansion centred along the Menam while in the northern valley the Lanna Kingdom and other small Tai city-states ruled the area. In 1431, the Khmer abandoned Angkor after the Ayutthaya forces invaded the city.[17] Thailand retained a tradition of trade with its neighbouring states, from China to India, Persia and Arab lands. Ayutthaya became one of the most vibrant trading centres in Asia. European traders arrived in the 16th century, beginning with the Portuguese, followed by the French, Dutch and English.

After the fall of Ayutthaya in 1767 to the Burmese, King Taksin the Great moved the capital of Thailand to Thonburi for approximately 15 years. The current Rattanakosin era of Thai history began in 1782, following the establishment of Bangkok as capital of the Chakri dynasty under King Rama I the Great. According to *Encyclopædia Britannica*, "A quarter to a third of the population of some areas of Thailand and Burma were slaves in the 17th through the 19th centuries."[18][19]

Despite European pressure, Thailand is the only Southeast Asian nation that has never been colonized.[20] This has been ascribed to the long succession of able rulers in the past four centuries who exploited the rivalry and tension between French Indochina and the British Empire. As a result, the country remained a buffer state between parts of Southeast Asia that were colonized by the two colonizing powers, Great Britain and France. Western influence nevertheless led to many reforms in the 19th century and major concessions, most notably being the loss of a large territory on the east side of the Mekong to the French and the step-by-step absorption by Britain of the Malay Peninsula.



Kosa Pan presents King Narai's letter to Louis XIV at Versailles, 1 September 1686

20th century

The losses initially included Penang and eventually culminated in the loss of four predominantly ethnic-Malay southern provinces, which later became Malaysia's four northern states, under the Anglo-Siamese Treaty of 1909.

In 1932, a bloodless revolution carried out by the Khana Ratsadon group of military and civilian officials resulted in a transition of power, when King Prajadhipok was forced to grant the people of Siam their first constitution, thereby ending centuries of absolute monarchy.

During World War II, the Empire of Japan demanded the right to move troops across Thailand to the Malayan frontier. Japan invaded the country and engaged the Thai Army for six to eight hours before Plaek Pibulsonggram ordered an armistice. Shortly thereafter Japan was granted free passage, and on 21 December 1941, Thailand and Japan signed a military alliance with a secret protocol wherein Tokyo agreed to help Thailand regain territories lost to the British and French. Subsequently, Thailand declared

war on the United States and the United Kingdom on 25 January 1942 and undertook to 'assist' Japan in its war against the Allies, while at the same time maintaining an active anti-Japanese resistance movement known as the Seri Thai. Approximately 200,000 Asian labourers (mainly romusha) and 60,000 Allied POWs worked on the Thailand–Burma Death Railway.[21]

After the war, Thailand emerged as an ally of the United States. As with many of the developing nations during the Cold War, Thailand then went through decades of political instability characterised by coups d'état as one military regime replaced another, but eventually progressed towards a stable prosperity and democracy in the 1980s.[*citation needed*]

The southern region

See also: South Thailand insurgency

Thailand controlled the Malay Peninsula as far as Malacca in the 1400s and held much of the peninsula, including Temasek (Singapore) some of the Andaman Islands and a colony on Java, but eventually failed when the British used force to guarantee their suzerainty over the sultanate.

Mostly the northern states of the Malay Sultanate presented annual gifts to the Thai king in the form of a golden flower, which understood the gesture to be tribute and an acknowledgement of vassalage. The British intervened in the Malay State and with the Anglo-Siamese Treaty tried to build a railway from the south to Bangkok. Thailand relinquished sovereignty over what are now the northern Malay provinces of Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan and Terengganu to the British. Satun and Pattani provinces were given to Thailand. The Malay peninsula provinces were infiltrated by the Japanese during World War II, and by the Malayan Communist Party (CPM) from 1942 to 2008, when they decided to sue for peace with the Malaysian and Thai governments after the CPM lost its support from Vietnam and China subsequent to the Cultural Revolution. Recent insurgent uprisings may be a continuation of separatist fighting which started after World War II with Sukarno's support for the PULO, and the intensification. Most victims since the uprisings have been Buddhist and Muslim bystanders.

Politics and government

Main articles: Politics of Thailand, Constitutions of Thailand, Law of Thailand, and Government of Thailand

The politics of Thailand is currently conducted within the framework of a constitutional monarchy, whereby the Prime Minister is the head of government and a hereditary monarch is head of state. The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislative branches.



Rama IX, The current King of Thailand.

History



Bangkok's Democracy Monument: a representation of the 1932 Constitution sits on top of two golden offering bowls above a turret.

Since the political reform of the absolute monarchy in 1932, Thailand has had 17 constitutions and charters.[22][23] Throughout this time, the form of government has ranged from military dictatorship to electoral democracy, but all governments have acknowledged a hereditary monarch as the head of state.[24][25]

28 June 1932

Prior to 1932, the Kingdom of Siam did not possess a legislature, as all legislative powers were vested within the person of the monarch. This had been the case since the foundation of the Sukhothai Kingdom in the 12th century: as the king was seen as a "Dharmaraja" or "King who rules in accordance with Dharma" (the Buddhist law of righteousness). However on 24 June 1932 a group of civilians and military officers, calling themselves the Khana Ratsadon (or People's Party) carried out a bloodless revolution, in which the 150 years of absolute rule of the House of Chakri was ended. In its stead the group advocated a constitutional form of monarchy with an elected legislature.

The "Draft Constitution" of 1932 signed by King Prajadhipok, created Thailand's first legislature, a **People's Assembly** with 70

appointed members. The assembly met for the first time on 28 June 1932, in the Ananda Samakhom Throne Hall. The Khana Ratsadon decided that the people were not yet ready for an elected assembly; however they later changed their minds. By the time the "permanent" constitution came into force in December of that year, elections were scheduled for 15 November 1933. The new constitution also changed the composition of the assembly to 78 directly elected and 78 appointed (by the Khana Ratsadon) together compromising 156 members.

1933 to 1997

For events subsequent to the abdication of the king, including the name change of 1939, up to the coup d'état of 1957, see Plaek Pibulsonggram. For additional history to 1997, refer to his successors in the List of Prime Ministers of Thailand.

1997 to 2006

See also: 1997 Constitution of Thailand

The 1997 Constitution was the first constitution to be drafted by popularly elected Constitutional Drafting Assembly, and was popularly called the "People's Constitution".[26] The 1997 Constitution created a bicameral legislature consisting of a 500-seat House of Representatives (**สภาผู้แทนราษฎร**, sapha phutaen ratsadon) and a 200-seat Senate (**วุฒิสภา**, wuthisapha). For the first time in Thai history, both houses were directly elected.



Ananda Samakhom Throne Hall the old meeting place of the National Assembly, now only the State Opening is held there.

Many human rights are explicitly acknowledged, and measures were established to increase the stability of elected governments. The House was elected by the first past the post system, where only one candidate with a simple majority could be elected in one constituency. The Senate was elected based on the province system, where one province can return more than one senator depending on its population size.

The two houses of the National Assembly have two different terms. In accordance with the constitution the Senate is elected to a six year term, while the House is elected to a four year term. Overall the term of the National Assembly is based on that of the House. The National Assembly each year will sit in two sessions an "ordinary session" and a "legislative session". The first session of the National Assembly must take place within thirty days after the general election of the House of Representatives. The first session must be opened by the king in person by reading a Speech from the Throne; this ceremony is held in the Ananda Samakhom Throne Hall. He may also appoint the crown prince or a representative to carry out this duty. It is also the duty of the king to prorogue sessions through a Royal Decree when the House term expires. The king also has the prerogative to call extraordinary sessions and prolong sessions at his discretion.



Parliament House the meeting place of the two chambers of the National Assembly of Thailand.

The National Assembly may host a "Joint-sitting" of both Houses under several circumstances. These include: The appointment of a regent, any alteration to the 1924 Palace Law of Succession, the opening of the first session, the announcement of policies by the Cabinet of Thailand, the approval of the declaration of war, the hearing of explanations and approval of a treaty and the amendment of the Constitution.

Members of the House of Representatives served four-year terms, while senators served six-year terms. The 1997 People's Constitution also promoted human rights more than any other constitutions. The court system (**ศาล**, saan) included a constitutional court with jurisdiction over the constitutionality of parliamentary acts, royal decrees, and political matters.

The January 2001 general election, the first election under the 1997 Constitution, was called the most open, corruption-free election in Thai history.[27] The subsequent government was the first in Thai history to complete a four-year term. The 2005 election had the highest voter turnout in Thai history.[28][29] Despite efforts to clean up the system, vote buying and electoral violence remained problems of electoral quality in 2005.[30]

The PollWatch Foundation, Thailand's most prominent election watchdog, declared that vote buying in this election, specifically in the North and the Northeast, was more serious than in the 2001 election. The organization also accused the government of violating the election law by abusing state power in presenting new projects in a bid to seek votes.

2006 coup d'état

See also: 2006 Thai coup d'état

Without meeting much resistance, a military junta overthrew the interim government of Thaksin Shinawatra on 19 September 2006. The junta abrogated the constitution, dissolved Parliament and the Constitutional Court, detained and later removed several members of the government, declared martial law, and appointed one of the king's Privy Counselors, General Surayud Chulanont, as the Prime Minister. The junta later wrote a highly abbreviated interim constitution and appointed a panel to draft a new permanent constitution. The junta also appointed a 250-member legislature, called by some critics a "chamber of generals" while others claimed that it lacks representatives from the poor majority.[31][32]

In this interim constitution draft, the head of the junta was allowed to remove the prime minister at any time. The legislature was not allowed to hold a vote of confidence against the cabinet and the public was not allowed to file comments on bills.[33] This interim constitution was later surpassed by the permanent constitution on 24 August 2007. Martial law was partially revoked in January 2007. The ban on political activities was lifted in July 2007,[34] following the 30 May dissolution of the Thai Rak Thai party. The new constitution was approved by referendum on 19 August, which led to a return to a democratic general election on 23 December 2007.

Political crisis

See also: 2008–2010 Thai political crisis

The People's Power Party (Thailand), led by Samak Sundaravej formed a government with five smaller parties. Following several court rulings against him in a variety of scandals, and surviving a vote of no confidence, and protesters blockading government buildings and airports, in September 2008, Sundaravej was found guilty of conflict of interest by the Constitutional Court of Thailand (due to being a host in a TV cooking program),[35] and thus, ended his term in office.



Yellow shirts rally on Sukhumvit Road in 2008.

He was replaced by PPP member Somchai Wongsawat. As of October 2008, Wongsawat was unable to gain access to his offices, which were occupied by protesters from the People's Alliance for Democracy. On 2 December 2008, Thailand's Constitutional Court in a highly controversial ruling found the Peoples Power Party[36] guilty of electoral fraud, which led to the dissolution of the party according to the law. It was later alleged in media reports that at least one member of the judiciary had a telephone conversation with officials working for the Office of the Privy Council and one other. The phone call was taped and has since circulated on the Internet. In it, the callers discuss finding a way to ensure the ruling PPP party would be disbanded. Accusations of judicial interference were levelled in the media but the recorded call was dismissed as a hoax. However, in June 2010, supporters of the eventually disbanded PPP were charged with tapping a judge's phone.



Red Shirts protest on Ratchaprasong intersection in 2010.

Immediately following what many media described as a "judicial coup", a senior member of the Armed Forces met with factions of the governing coalition to get their members to join the opposition and the Democrat Party was able to form a government, a first for the party since 2001. The leader of the Democrat party, and former leader of the opposition, Abhisit Vejjajiva was appointed and sworn-in as the 27th Prime Minister, together with the new cabinet on 17 December 2008.

Thailand remains an active member of ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations).

In of April 2010, a set of new protests by the Red Shirt opposition movement resulted in 87 deaths (mostly civilian and some military) and 1,378 injured.[37] When the army tried to disperse the protesters on 10 April 2010, the army was met with automatic gunfire, grenades, and fire bombs from the opposition faction in the army, known as the "watermelon". This resulted in the army returning fire with rubber bullets and some live ammunition. During the time of the "red shirt" protests against the government, there have been numerous grenade and bomb attacks against government offices and the homes of government officials. Grenades were fired at protesters, that were protesting against the "red shirts" and for the government, by unknown gunmen killing one pro-government protester, the government stated that the Red Shirts protesters were firing the weapons at civilians.[38][39][40][41]

On 3 July 2011, the oppositional Pheu Thai Party led by Yingluck Shinawatra (the youngest sister of Thaksin Shinawatra) won the general election by a landslide (265 seats in the House of Representatives). They could form a coalition government presided over by Yingluck.

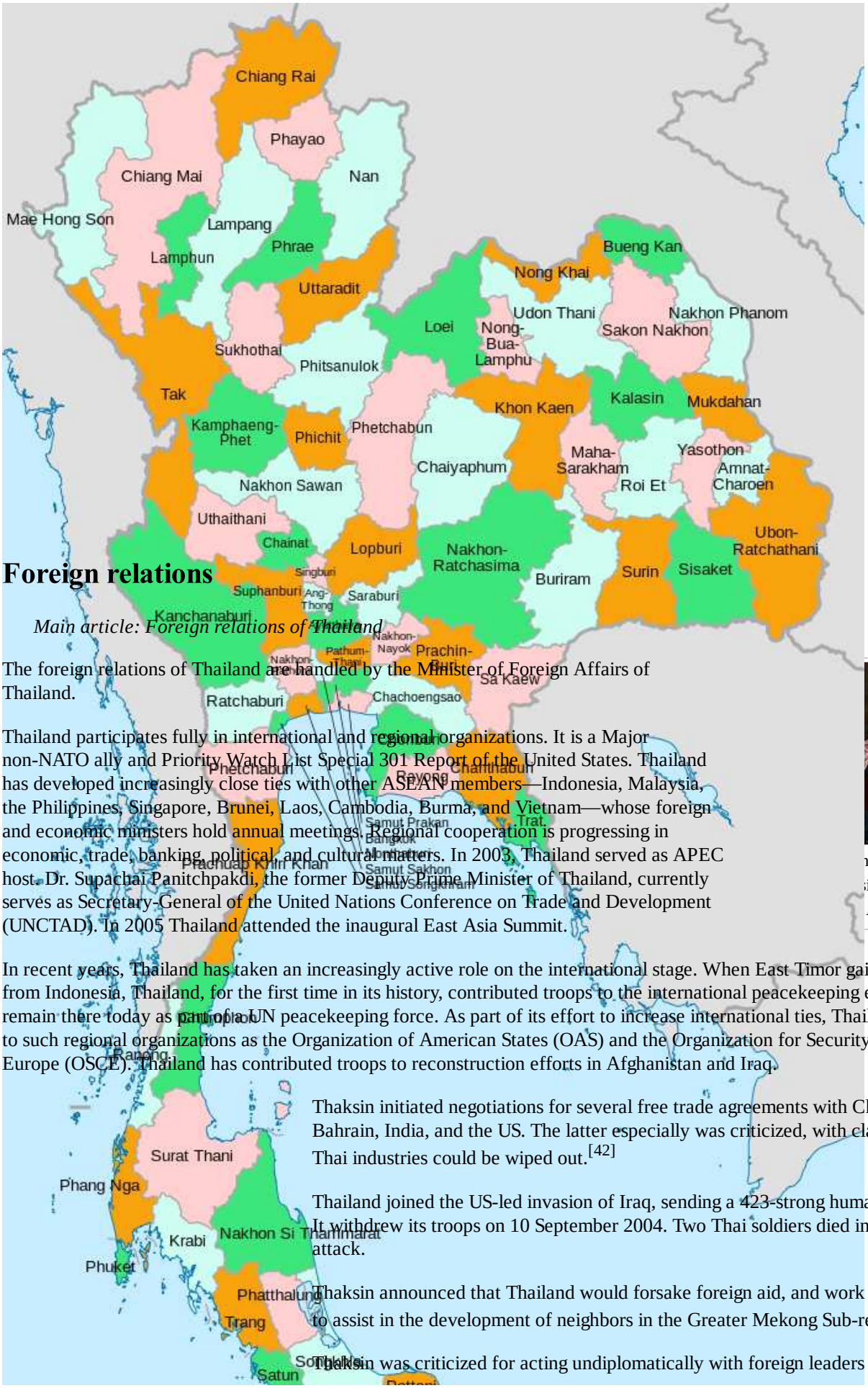
Administrative divisions

Main article: Subdivisions of Thailand

Thailand is divided into 76 provinces (**จังหวัด**, changwat), which are gathered into 5 groups of provinces by location. There are also 2 special governed districts: the capital Bangkok (Krung Thep Maha Nakhon) and Pattaya, of which Bangkok is at provincial level and thus often counted as a province.

Each province is divided into districts and the districts are further divided into sub-districts (tambons). As of 2006 there are 877 districts (**อำเภอ**, amphoe) and the 50 districts of Bangkok (**เขต**, khet). Some parts of the provinces bordering Bangkok are also referred to as Greater Bangkok (**ปริมณฑล**, pari monthon). These provinces include Nonthaburi, Pathum Thani, Samut Prakan, Nakhon Pathom and Samut Sakhon. The name of each province's capital city (**เมือง**, mueang) is the same as that of the province. For example, the capital of Chiang Mai province (*Changwat Chiang Mai*) is *Mueang Chiang Mai* or *Chiang Mai*.

A clickable map of Thailand exhibiting its provinces.



Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Thailand

The foreign relations of Thailand are handled by the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Thailand.

Thailand participates fully in international and regional organizations. It is a Major non-NATO ally and Priority Watch List Special 301 Report of the United States. Thailand has developed increasingly close ties with other ASEAN members—Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Brunei, Laos, Cambodia, Burma, and Vietnam—whose foreign and economic ministers hold annual meetings. Regional cooperation is progressing in economic, trade, banking, political, and cultural matters. In 2003, Thailand served as APEC host. Dr. Supachai Panitchpakdi, the former Deputy Prime Minister of Thailand, currently serves as Secretary-General of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). In 2005 Thailand attended the inaugural East Asia Summit.



with former Prime
in Shinawatra before
APEC Summit in 2003

In recent years, Thailand has taken an increasingly active role on the international stage. When East Timor gained independence from Indonesia, Thailand, for the first time in its history, contributed troops to the international peacekeeping effort. Its troops remain there today as part of a UN peacekeeping force. As part of its effort to increase international ties, Thailand has reached out to such regional organizations as the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE). Thailand has contributed troops to reconstruction efforts in Afghanistan and Iraq.

Thaksin initiated negotiations for several free trade agreements with China, Australia, Bahrain, India, and the US. The latter especially was criticized, with claims that high-cost Thai industries could be wiped out.[42]

Thailand joined the US-led invasion of Iraq, sending a 423-strong humanitarian contingent. It withdrew its troops on 10 September 2004. Two Thai soldiers died in Iraq in an insurgent attack.

Thaksin announced that Thailand would forsake foreign aid, and work with donor countries to assist in the development of neighbors in the Greater Mekong Sub-region.[43]

Thaksin was criticized for acting undiplomatically with foreign leaders and the international

bama on 23 September 2009, in New York

community and there were allegations of gaffes at international meetings.[44]

Thaksin was ambitious to position Thailand as a regional leader, initiating various development projects in poorer neighbouring countries like Laos. More controversially, he established close, friendly ties with the Burmese dictatorship, including extending the impoverished country a 4 billion baht credit line so it could conclude a satellite telecom deal with his family business.[45]

Thaksin energetically supported his former foreign minister Surakiart Sathirathai's somewhat improbable campaign to become UN Secretary General.

Abhisit appointed Peoples Alliance for Democracy leader Kasit Piromya as Foreign Minister. Prior to his appointment, Kasit had led anti-Cambodia protests and called Cambodian Prime Minister Hun Sen a "gangster minded (**ใจนักเลง** *jai-nak-leng*)" (he later claimed the word he used actually meant "a person who is lionhearted, a courageous and magnanimous gentleman"). In April 2009, "large-scale fighting" erupted between Thai and Cambodian troops on territory immediately adjacent to the 900-year-old ruins of Cambodia's Preah Vihear Hindu temple near the border. The Cambodian government claimed its army had killed at least four Thais and captured 10 more, although the Thai government denied that any Thai soldiers were killed or injured. Two Cambodian soldiers were killed and three Thai soldiers were killed. Both armies blamed the other for firing first and denied entering the other's territory.[46][47]

Military

Main article: Royal Thai Armed Forces

The **Royal Thai Armed Forces** (Thai: **กองทัพไทย**: *Kongthap Thai*) constitutes the military of the Kingdom of Thailand. It consists of the Royal Thai Army (**กองทัพบกไทย**), the Royal Thai Navy (**กองทัพเรือไทย**, **ราชนาวีไทย**) and the Royal Thai Air Force (**กองทัพอากาศไทย**). It also incorporates various paramilitary forces.



The HTMS *Chakri Naruebet*, an aircraft carrier of the Royal Thai Navy.

Currently, the Royal Thai Armed Forces has a combined manpower of about 800,000 personnel. The Head of the Thai Armed Forces (**จอมทัพไทย**: *Chomthap Thai*) is King Bhumibol Adulyadej (Rama IX),[48] although this position is only nominal. The Armed Forces is managed by the Ministry of Defence of Thailand, which is headed by the Minister of Defence (a member of the Cabinet of Thailand) and commanded by the Royal Thai Armed Forces Headquarters, which in turn is headed by the Chief of Defence Forces of Thailand.[49]



F-16 Block 15OCUs of the Royal Thai Air Force in flight.

According to the Constitution of the Kingdom, serving in the Armed Forces is a duty of all Thai citizens.[50] However only males over the age of 21, who have not gone through reserve training of the Army Reserve Force Students are given the option of whether they want to volunteer for the armed forces, or pick the random draft. The candidates are subjected to varying lengths of training from 6 months to 2 years of fulltime service depending on their education, whether they have partially completed the reserve training course, and whether they volunteered prior to the drafting date (usually 1 April every year).

Candidates with a recognized bachelor's degree will be subjected to 1 year of full-time service if they picked the random draft, or 6 months if they volunteer at their respective district office (Sasadee).

Likewise, the training length is also reduced for those who have partially completed the 3-year reserve training course (Ror Dor). A person who completed 1 year out of 3 will only have to serve full-time for 1 year. Those completed 2 years of reserve training will only have to do 6 months of full-time training. While those who complete 3 years or more of reserve training will be exempted.

The Royal Thai Armed Forces Day is celebrated on 18 January to commemorate the victory of King Naresuan the Great in battle against the Crown Prince of Burma in 1593.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Thailand



View of the Luang Prabang Range straddling the Thai/Lao border in northern Thailand.

Totalling 513,120 square kilometres (198,120 sq mi),[1] Thailand is the world's 51st-largest country by total area. It is slightly smaller than Yemen and slightly larger than Spain.

Thailand is home to several distinct geographic regions, partly corresponding to the provincial groups. The north of the country is the mountainous area of the Thai highlands, with the highest point being Doi Inthanon in the Thanon Thong Chai Range at 2,565 metres (8,415 ft) above sea level. The northeast, Isan, consists of the Khorat Plateau, bordered to the east by the Mekong River. The centre of the country is dominated by the predominantly flat Chao Phraya river valley, which runs into the Gulf of Thailand.



Satellite image of flooding in Thailand in October 2011.

Southern Thailand consists of the narrow Kra Isthmus that widens into the Malay Peninsula. Politically, there are six geographical regions which differ from the others in population, basic resources, natural features, and level of social and economic development. The diversity of the regions is the most pronounced attribute of Thailand's physical setting.

The Chao Phraya and the Mekong River are the sustainable resource of rural Thailand. Industrial scale production of crops use both rivers and their tributaries. The Gulf of Thailand covers 320,000 square kilometres (124,000 sq mi) and is fed by the Chao Phraya, Mae Klong, Bang Pakong and Tapi Rivers. It contributes to the tourism sector owing to its clear shallow waters along the coasts in the Southern Region and the Kra Isthmus. The Gulf of Thailand is also an industrial centre of Thailand with the kingdom's main port in Sattahip along with being the entry gates for Bangkok's Inland Seaport.

The Andaman Sea is regarded as Thailand's most precious natural resource as it hosts the most popular and luxurious resorts in Asia. Phuket, Krabi, Ranong, Phang Nga and Trang and their lush islands all lay along the coasts of the Andaman Sea and despite the 2004 Tsunami, they continue to be and ever more so, the playground of the rich and elite of Asia and the world.

Plans have resurfaced of a logistical connection of the two bodies of water which would be coined the Thai Canal, analogous to the Suez and the Panama Canal. Such an idea has been greeted with positive accounts by Thai politicians as it would cut fees charged by the Ports of Singapore, improve ties with China and India, lower shipping times and increase ship safety owing to pirate fears in the Strait of Melaka and, support the Thai government's policy of being the logistical hub for Southeast Asia.

The ports would improve economic conditions in the south of Thailand, which relies heavily on tourism income, and it would also change the structure of the Thai economy moving it closer to a services centre of Asia. The canal would be a major engineering project and has expected costs of 20–30 billion dollars.

The local climate is tropical and characterized by monsoons. There is a rainy, warm, and cloudy southwest monsoon from mid-May to September, as well as a dry, cool northeast monsoon from November to mid-March. The southern isthmus is always hot and humid.

Education

Main article: Education in Thailand

Thailand enjoys a high level of literacy, and education is provided by a well-organized school system of kindergartens, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools, numerous vocational colleges, and universities. The private sector of education is well developed and significantly contributes to the overall provision of education which the government would not be able to meet through the public establishments. Education is compulsory up to and including age group 14, and the government provides free education through to age group 17.



Primary school students in Thailand

Thailand has never been colonized, and its teaching relies heavily on rote rather than on student-centred methodology.

The establishment of reliable and coherent curricula for its primary and secondary schools


Chulalongkorn University, established in 1917 is the oldest university in Thailand.

is subject to such rapid changes that schools and their teachers are not always sure what they are supposed to be teaching, and authors and publishers of textbooks are unable to write and print new editions quickly enough to keep up with the volatile situation. The issue concerning university entrance has therefore also been in constant upheaval for a number of years. Nevertheless, education has seen its greatest progress in the years since 2001. Most of the present generation of students are computer literate, and knowledge of English is on the increase at least in quantity if not in quality.

Extensive nationwide IQ tests were carried out in December 2010 to January 2011 on 72,780 Thai students. The average IQ was found to be at 98.59, which is higher than previous studies have found. The IQ levels are not consistent throughout the country though, with the lowest average of 88.07 found in the southern region of Narathiwat and the highest average of 108.91 reported in Nonthaburi province. The Thai Ministry of Public Health blames the discrepancies on iodine deficiency and steps are being taken to require that iodine be added to table salt, a practice common in many Western countries.[51]

Science and technology

Main article: Science and technology in Thailand


14" telescope Astronomical Seeing Test project by the Ministry of Science & Technology.

The National Science and Technology Development Agency is an agency of the government of Thailand which supports research in science and technology and their application in the Thai economy.

From the agency's website:

The National Science and Technology Development Agency (NSTDA) reflects the Thai government's deep commitment to apply scientific and technological capabilities to promote and sustain the nation's economic, social development and growth through the promotion of linkage and collaboration between the public and private sectors. Since its inception in 1991, NSTDA has grown into an active organization with a diverse program focusing on cutting-edge S&T research, design, development and engineering. NSTDA offers a full potential and opportunity for cooperative challenges and investment. Through such a convergence, the organization brings a layered, multi-faceted approach to the scholarly and most practical description of scientific and technological discoveries and advancement to serve national needs and maintain a sustained linkage with the international community.


Eastern Water Public Company Limited headquarters in Bangkok.

The Synchrotron Light Research Institute (SLRI) is a Thai research institution on physics, chemistry, material science and life sciences. It is located on the Suranaree University of Technology Campus (SUT), in Nakhorn Ratchaseema, about 300 km north east of Bangkok. The Institute, financed by the Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST), houses the only large scale synchrotron in South East Asia. It was originally built as the SORTEC synchrotron in Japan and later moved to Thailand and modified for 1.2 GeV operation. It provides users with regularly scheduled light.

Economy

Main article: Economy of Thailand

Thailand is an emerging economy and considered as a newly industrialized country. After enjoying the world's highest growth rate from 1985 to 1996 – averaging 12.4% annually – increased pressure on Thailand's currency, the baht, in 1997, the year in which the economy contracted by 1.9% led to a crisis that uncovered financial sector weaknesses and forced the Chavalit Yongchaiyudh administration to float the currency, however, Prime Minister Chavalit Yongchaiyudh was forced to resign after his cabinet came under fire for its slow response to the crisis. The baht was pegged at 25 to the US dollar from 1978 to 1997, however, the baht reached its lowest point of 56 to the US dollar in January 1998 and the economy contracted by 10.8% that year. This collapse prompted the Asian financial crisis.


Bangkok, the largest city, business and industrial centre of the country

Thailand's economy started to recover in 1999, expanding 4.2% and 4.4% in 2000, thanks

largely to strong exports. Growth (2.2%) was dampened by the softening of the global economy in 2001, but picked up in the subsequent years owing to strong growth in Asia, a relatively weak baht encouraging exports and increasing domestic spending as a result of several mega projects and incentives of Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra, known as Thaksinomics. Growth in 2002, 2003 and 2004 was 5–7% annually. Growth in 2005, 2006 and 2007 hovered around 4–5%. Due both to the weakening of the US dollar and an increasingly strong Thai currency, by March 2008, the dollar was hovering around the 33 baht mark.

Thailand exports an increasing value of over $105 billion worth of goods and services annually.[1] Major exports include Thai rice, textiles and footwear, fishery products, rubber, jewellery, cars, computers and electrical appliances. Thailand is the world's no.1 exporter of rice, exporting more than 6.5 million tons of milled rice annually. Rice is the most important crop in the country. Thailand has the highest percentage of arable land, 27.25%, of any nation in the Greater Mekong Subregion.[52] About 55% of the arable land area is used for rice production.[53]

Substantial industries include electric appliances, components, computer parts and cars, while tourism in Thailand makes up about 6% of the economy. Prostitution in Thailand and sex tourism also form a de facto part of the economy. Cultural milieu combined with poverty and the lure of money have caused prostitution and sex tourism in particular to flourish in Thailand. One estimate published in 2003 placed the trade at US$4.3 billion per year or about three percent of the Thai economy.[54] According to research by Chulalongkorn University on the Thai illegal economy, prostitution in Thailand in the period between 1993 and 1995, made up around 2.7% of the GDP.[55] It is believed that *at least* 10% of tourist dollars are spent on the sex trade.[56]


Thailand is the largest rice exporter in the world

The economy of Thailand is an emerging economy which is heavily export-dependent, with exports accounting for more than two thirds of gross domestic product (GDP) The exchange rate is Baht 33.00/USD.

Thailand has a GDP worth 8.5 trillion Baht (on a purchasing power parity (PPP) basis), or US$627 billion (PPP). This classifies Thailand as the 2nd largest economy in Southeast Asia after Indonesia. Despite this, Thailand ranks midway in the wealth spread in Southeast Asia as it is the 4th richest nation according to GDP per capita, after Singapore, Brunei and Malaysia.

It functions as an anchor economy for the neighboring developing economies of Laos, Burma, and Cambodia. Thailand's recovery from the 1997–1998 Asian financial crisis depended mainly on exports, among various other factors. Thailand ranks high among the world's automotive export industries along with manufacturing of electronic goods.

Between 1997 and 2010, 4'306 mergers & acquisitions with a total known value of USD$81 billion with the involvement of Thai firms have been announced.[57] The year 2010 was a new record in terms of value with USD$12 billion of transactions. The largest transaction with involvement of Thai companies has been: PTT Chemical PCL merged with PTT Aromatics and Refining PCL valued at USD$3.8 billion in 2011.[58]

49% of Thailand's labor force is employed in agriculture, however this is less than the 70% employed in 1980.[59] Agriculture has been experiencing a transition from labour intensive and transitional methods into a more industrialised and competitive sector.[59] Between 1962 and 1983, the agricultural sector grew by 4.1% on average a year and continued to grow at 2.2% between 1983 and 2007.[59] However, the relative contribution of agriculture to GDP has declined while exports of goods and services have increased.

Tourism revenues are on the rise. With the instability surrounding the recent coup and the military rule, however, the GDP growth of Thailand has settled at around 4–5% from previous highs of 5–7% under the previous civilian administration, as investor and consumer confidence has been degraded somewhat due to political uncertainty.


Sites like The Sanctuary of Truth help the tourist economy.

The incumbent elected civilian administration under Samak Sundaravej in power from 29 January to 9 September 2008 stated that the economy will have grown by 5.5% to 6% by the end of 2008. Due to rising oil and food prices, the annual inflation rate for 2008 shot up to 9.2% in July; a 10-year high.

Thailand generally uses the metric system but traditional units of measurement for land area are used, and imperial measure (feet, inches etc.) are occasionally used with building materials such as wood and plumbing sizes. Years are numbered as B.E. (Buddhist Era) in

education, the civil service, government, and on contracts and newspaper datelines; in banking, however, and increasingly in industry and commerce, standard Western year (Christian or Common Era) counting prevails.[60]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Thailand


Bangkok


Nonthaburi

Largest cities of Thailand
[*citation needed*]

Rank	City name	Province	Pop.	Rank	City name	Province	Pop.
1	**Bangkok**	Krung Thep Maha Nakhon	5,658,953 (2005)[61]	11	**Pattaya**	Chonburi	104,318 (2007)[62]
2	**Nonthaburi**	Nonthaburi	260,555 (2011)[63]	12	**Nakhon Sawan**	Nakhon Sawan	90,412
3	**Pak Kret**	Nonthaburi	168,763 (2008)[64]	13	**Ubon Ratchathani**	Ubon Ratchathani	84,509
4	**Hat Yai**	Songkhla	157,682 (2008)[65]	14	**Nakhon Pathom**	Nakhon Pathom	83,007
5	**Udon Thani**	Udon Thani	141,953 (2010)[66]	15	**Phitsanulok**	Phitsanulok	79,535
6	**Chiang Mai**	Chiang Mai	141,361 (2011)[67]	16	**Phuket**	Phuket	74,218
7	**Nakhon Ratchasima**	Nakhon Ratchasima	138,303 (2011)[68]	17	**Songkhla**	Songkhla	73,170
8	**Surat Thani**	Surat Thani	127,496 (2008)[69]	18	**Chiang Rai**	Chiang Rai	67,176
9	**Khon Kaen**	Khon Kaen	113,754	19	**Laem Chabang**	Chonburi	64,607
10	**Nakhon Si Thammarat**	Nakhon Si Thammarat	109,353	20	**Yala**	Yala	62,896


Pak Kret


Hat Yai

Language



Ethnic map of Thailand

The official language of Thailand is Thai, a Tai–Kadai language closely related to Lao, Shan in Burma, and numerous smaller languages spoken in an arc from Hainan and Yunnan south to the Chinese border. It is the principal language of education and government and spoken throughout the country. The standard is based on the dialect of the central Thai people, and it is written in the Thai alphabet, an abugida script that evolved from the Khmer script. Several other dialects exist, and coincide with the regional designations. Southern Thai is spoken in the southern provinces, and Northern Thai is spoken in the provinces that were formally part of the independent kingdom of Lannathai.

Thailand is also host to several other minority languages, the largest of which is the Lao dialect of Isan spoken in the northeastern provinces. Although sometimes considered a Thai dialect, it is a Lao dialect, and the region in where it is traditionally spoken was historically part of the Lao kingdom of Lan Xang. In the far south,

Historical populations

Year	Pop.	±%
1910	8,131,247	—
1919	9,207,355	+13.2%
1929	11,506,207	+25.0%
1937	14,464,105	+25.7%
1947	17,442,689	+20.6%
1960	26,257,916	+50.5%
1970	34,397,371	+31.0%
1980	44,824,540	+30.3%
1990	54,548,530	+21.7%
2000	60,916,441	+11.7%
2010	65,926,261	+8.2%

Source: [5] (http://popcensus.nso.go.th/table_stat.php?t=t1&yr=2543) National Statistical Office of Thailand (http://web.nso.go.th/eng/en/stat/poph/popt1.htm)

Yawi, a dialect of Malay, is the primary language of the Malay Muslims. Varieties of Chinese are also spoken by the large Chinese population, with Teochew being best represented.

Numerous tribal languages are also spoken, including those belonging to the Mon–Khmer family, such as Mon, Khmer, Viet, Mlabri and Orang Asli; Austronesian family, such as Cham and Moken; Sino-Tibetan family such as Lawa, Akhan, and Karen; and other Tai languages such as Nyaw, Phu Thai, and Saek. Hmong is a member of the Hmong–Mien languages, which is now regarded as a language family of its own.

English is a mandatory school subject, but the number of fluent speakers remains very low, especially outside the cities.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Thailand

Religion Composition[1]

religion	percent
Buddhism	94.6%
Islam	4.6%
Christianity	0.7%
Others	0.1%

The national religion is Theravada Buddhism. Thai Buddhism ranks amongst the highest in the world. According to the last census (2000) 94.6% of the total population are Buddhists of the Theravada tradition. Muslims are the second largest religious group in Thailand at 4.6%.[1][70] Thailand's southernmost provinces – Pattani, Yala, Narathiwat and part of Songkhla Chumphon have dominant Muslim populations, consisting of both ethnic Thai and Malay. The southern tip of Thailand is mostly ethnically Malay, and most Malays are Sunni Muslims. Christians represent 0.7% of the population. A small community of Sikhs in Thailand and some Hindus also live in the country's cities. There is also a small Jewish community in Thailand, dating back to the 17th century.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Thailand

See also: Music of Thailand, Isan, and Cinema of Thailand

Thai culture has been shaped by many influences, including Indian, Lao, Burmese, Cambodian, and Chinese.



Theravada Buddhism is highly respected in Thailand.

Its traditions incorporate a great deal of influence from India, China, Cambodia, and the rest of Southeast Asia. Thailand's national religion Theravada Buddhism is important to modern Thai identity. Thai Buddhism has evolved over time to include many regional beliefs originating from Hinduism, animism as well as ancestor worship. The official calendar in Thailand is based on the Eastern version of the Buddhist Era, which is 543 years ahead of the Gregorian (western) calendar. For example, the year AD 2011 is 2554 BE in Thailand.

Several different ethnic groups, many of which are marginalized, populate Thailand. Some of these groups overlap into Burma, Laos, Cambodia, and Malaysia and have mediated change between their traditional local culture, national Thai and global cultural influences. Overseas Chinese also form a significant part of Thai society, particularly in and around Bangkok. Their successful integration into Thai society has allowed for this group to hold positions of economic and political power.



Khon Show is the most stylised form of Thai performance.

The traditional Thai greeting, the *wai*, is generally offered first by the younger of the two people meeting, with their hands pressed together, fingertips pointing upwards as the head is bowed to touch their face to the hands, usually coinciding with the spoken word "Sawasdee khrap" for male speakers, and "Sawasdee ka" for females. The elder then is to respond afterwards in the same way. Social status and position, such as in government, will also have an influence on who performs the *wai* first. For example, although one may be considerably older than a provincial governor, when meeting it is usually the visitor who pays respect first. When children leave to go to school, they are taught to *wai* to their parents to represent their respect for them. They do the same when they come back. The wai is a sign of respect and reverence for another, similar to the namaste greeting of India and Nepal.

Muay Thai, or Thai boxing, is the national sport in Thailand and its native martial art call "Muay". In the past "Muay" was taught to royal soldiers for combat on battlefield if unarmed. After they retired from the army,

these soldiers often became Buddhist monks and stayed at the temples. Most of the Thai people's lives are closely tied to Buddhism and temples; they often send their sons to be educated with the monks. "Muay" is also one of the subjects taught in the temples.[71] Muay Thai achieved popularity all over the world in the 1990s. Although similar martial arts styles exist in other Southeast Asian countries, few enjoy the recognition that Muay Thai has received with its full-contact rules allowing strikes including elbows, throws and knees.

Association football, however, has possibly overtaken Muay Thai's position as most widely viewed and liked sport in contemporary Thai society and it is not uncommon to see Thais cheering their favourite English Premier League teams on television and walking around in replica kits. Another widely enjoyed pastime, and once a competitive sport, is kite flying.



Thousands of Khom Fai in Mae Cho, Loi Krathong festivals Chiang Mai



Thai seafood curry, an example of Thai cuisine.

Thai cuisine blends five fundamental tastes: sweet, spicy, sour, bitter and salty. Some common ingredients used in Thai cuisine include garlic, chillies, lime juice, lemon grass, and fish sauce. The staple food in Thailand is rice, particularly jasmine variety rice (also known as Hom Mali rice) which is included in almost every meal. Thailand is the world's largest exporter of rice, and Thais domestically consume over 100 kg of milled rice per person per year.[53] Over 5000 varieties of rice from Thailand are preserved in the rice gene bank of the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI), based in the Philippines. The king of Thailand is the official patron of IRRI.[72]

Like most Asian cultures, respect towards ancestors is an essential part of Thai spiritual practice. Thais have a strong sense of hospitality and generosity, but also a strong sense of social hierarchy. Seniority is an important concept in Thai culture. Elders have by tradition ruled in family decisions or ceremonies. Older siblings have duties to younger ones.

Taboos in Thailand include touching someone's head or pointing with the feet, as the head is considered the most sacred and the foot the dirtiest part of the body. Thai society has been influenced in recent years by its widely available multi-language press and media. There are some English and numerous Thai and Chinese newspapers in circulation; most Thai popular magazines use English headlines as a chic glamor factor. Many large businesses in Bangkok operate in English as well as other languages.

Thailand is the largest newspaper market in Southeast Asia with an estimated circulation of at least 13 million copies daily in 2003. Even upcountry, out of Bangkok, media flourishes. For example, according to Thailand's Public Relations Department Media Directory 2003–2004, the nineteen provinces of Isan, Thailand's northeastern region, hosted 116 newspapers along with radio, TV and cable.

Sports

See also: Thailand at the Olympics, Rugby union in Thailand, Golf in Thailand, and Football in Thailand

Muay Thai (Thai: มวยไทย, RTGS: Muai Thai, [muɛj tʰaj], lit. "Thai Boxing") is a form of hard martial art practiced in large parts of the world, including Thailand and other Southeast Asian countries. The art is similar to others in Southeast Asia such as: Pradal Serey in Cambodia, Lethwei in Burma, Tomoi in Malaysia, and Muay Lao in Laos. Muay Thai has a long history in Thailand and is the country's national sport.



Muay Thai is Thailand's national sport

Pone Kingpetch was a Thai boxer, from Hua Hin, who defeated Pascal Perez, an Argentinean boxer to become the first Thai WBC Flyweight Champion on 16 April 1960 and later a 3 time WBC Flyweight Champion. Pone Kingpetch originally known as Mana Sidokbuab, assumed this name from his training camp; Kingpetch. Thai fighters traditionally take on the name of the camps they train for. That owner of the gym and head coach's, Thongtos Intratat is present in these pictures. Thongtos Intratat is also known for being the first person to officially formulate and bottle Namman Muay (Thai Liniment) which is desired for his fighter, Pone Kingpetch. Namman Muay (Thai Liniment) is still only produced by his direct descendants in Thailand.

Traditional Muay Thai practiced today varies significantly from the ancient art Muay Boran and uses kicks, punches and knee and elbow strikes in a ring with gloves similar to those used in Western boxing and this has led to Thailand gaining medals at the

Olympic Games in Boxing.

Takraw (Thai: ตะกร้อ) is a sport native to Thailand, which the players hit a rattan ball and only be allowed to use their feet, knees, chest and head to touch the ball. Sepak Takraw is a form of this sport which appears in volley ball style, the players must volley a ball over a net and force it to hit the ground on oppnent's side. It is a popular in other countries in Southeast Asia also. A rather similar game but played only with the feet is Buka ball.


Rajamangala National Stadium

Rugby is also a growing sport in Thailand with the Thailand national rugby union team rising to be ranked 61st in the world.[73] Thailand became the first country in the world to host an international 80 kg welterweight rugby tournament in 2005.[74] The national domestic Thailand Rugby Union (TRU) competition includes several universities and services teams such as Chulalongkorn University, Mahasarakham University, Kasetsart University, Prince of Songkla University, Thammasat University, Rangsit University, the Thai Police, the Thai Army, the Thai Navy and the Royal Thai Air Force. Local sports clubs which also compete in the TRU include the British Club of Bangkok, the Southerners Sports Club (Bangkok) and the Royal Bangkok Sports Club.

Thailand has been called the Golf Capital of Asia[75] as it is a popular destination for golf. The country attracts a large number of golfers from Japan, Korea, Singapore, South Africa and Western countries who come to play golf in Thailand every year.[76] The growing popularity of golf, especially among the middle classes and expats, is evident since there are more than 200 world-class golf courses nationwide,[77] and some of them are chosen to host PGA and LPGA tournaments, such as Amata Spring Country Club, Alpine Golf & Sports Club, Thai Country Club and Black Mountain Golf Club.

Thammasat Stadium is a multi-purpose stadium in Bangkok, Thailand. It is currently used mostly for football matches. The stadium holds 25,000. It is located in Thammasat University's Rangsit campus.

It was built for the 1998 Asian Games by construction firm Christiani and Nielsen, the same company that constructed the Democracy Monument in Bangkok.

Its appearance is that of a scaled down version of the Rajamangala Stadium. The tribunes form a continuous ring which are quite low behind each goal but rise up on each side. Unlike the Rajamangala though, Thammasat has a roof covering both side tribunes. Most striking about this stadium are the floodlights. Thai architects usually favour concrete pylons but these are the steel variety. As viewed from the exterior of the stadium the base of each pylon seems to grip the outside of the stadium and they dramatically lean over the tribunes so as to better illuminate the playing area.

Thammasat was going to be used for PEA FC's match against Singapore Armed Forces FC in an Asian Champions League qualifier in February 2009 but the pitch was deemed unplayable and the match was switched to the Rajamangala.


Muay Thai Pone Kingpetch, 1960s Muay Thai champion.

Rajamangala National Stadium is the biggest sporting arena in Thailand. It currently has a capacity of 65,000. It is located in Bang Kapi, Bangkok. The stadium was built in 1998 for the 1998 Asian Games and is the home stadium of Thailand national football team up to present.

Other sports in Thailand are slowly growing as the country develops its sporting infrastructure. The success in sports like weightlifting and Taekwondo at the last two Summer Olympic Games has demonstrated that boxing is no longer the only medal chance for Thailand.

International rankings

Main article: International rankings of Thailand

Organization	Survey	Ranking
Heritage Foundation	Indices of Economic Freedom	50 out of 157

A.T. Kearney/Foreign Policy Magazine	Global Services Location Index 2009 (http://www.atkearney.com/index.php/News-media/geography-of-offshoring-is-shifting.html)	4 out of 50
Reporters Without Borders	Worldwide Press Freedom Index	134 out of 169
Transparency International	Corruption Perceptions Index	84 out of 179
United Nations Development Programme	Human Development Index	78 out of 177
World Economic Forum	Global Competitiveness Report(2008)	34 out of 134[78]
World Gold Council	Gold reserve(2010)	33 out of 110

See also

- Outline of Thailand
- Index of Thailand-related articles
- Royal Thai Police
- Telecommunications in Thailand
- Thai ceramics
- Thai temple art and architecture
- Tourism in Thailand
- Transportation in Thailand

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History of Thailand

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Tai peoples who originally lived in southwestern China, migrated into mainland Southeast Asia over a period of many centuries. The oldest known mention of their existence in the region by the exonym *Siamese* is in a 12th century A.D. inscription at the Khmer temple complex of Angkor Wat in Cambodia, which refers to *syam,* or "dark brown" people.[1] It was believed that *Siam* derived from the Malay word *sagûm*, or brown race, with a contemptuous signification.[2] During the reign of Rama III (1824–1851,) a Scottish trader had experimental coins struck in England at the king's behest, Though not adopted for use, the name of the country put on these first coins was *Muang Thai*, not Siam.[3] Also spelled *Siem, Syâm* or *Syâma*, it has been identified with the Sanskrit *Śyâma* (श्याम, meaning "dark" or "brown"). The names Shan and A-hom seem to be variants of the same word, and Śyâma is possibly not its origin but a learned and artificial distortion.[4]

The country's designation as Siam by Westerners likely came from Portuguese, the first Europeans to give a coherent account of the country. Portuguese chronicles noted that the king of Sukhothai had sent an expedition to Malacca at the southern tip of the Malay Peninsula in 1455. Following their conquest of Malacca in 1511, the Portuguese sent a diplomatic mission to Ayutthaya. A century later, on August 15, 1612, *The Globe*, an East India Company merchantman bearing a letter from King James I, arrived in "the Road of Syam" .[5] "By the end of the 19th century, *Siam* had become so enshrined in geographical nomenclature that it was believed that by this name and no other would it continue to be known and styled."[6]

Indianized kingdoms such as the Mon, Khmer and Malay kingdoms had ruled the region. Thai people established their own states starting with Sukhothai, Chiang Saen and Chiang Mai and Lanna Kingdom and then Ayutthaya kingdom. These states fought each other and were under constant threat from the Khmers, Burma and Vietnam. Much later, the European colonial powers threatened in the 19th and early 20th centuries, but Thailand survived as the only Southeast Asian state to avoid European colonial rule. After the end of the absolute monarchy in 1932, Thailand endured sixty years of almost permanent military rule before the establishment of a democratic elected-government system.

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- 2 Ancient civilizations
  - 2.1 Dvaravati
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  - 3.1 Hariphunchai
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  - 3.3 Chao Phraya Basin under the Tai
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- 4 Sukhothai and Lanna
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- 7 End of absolute monarchy, and military rule
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Initial states of Thailand

Prior to the southwards migration of the Tai people from Yunnan in the 10th century, the Indochina peninsula had been a home to various indigenous animistic communities for as far back as 500,000 years ago. The recent discovery of Homo erectus fossils such as Lampang man is but one example. The remains were first discovered during excavations in Lampang province, Thailand. The finds have been dated from roughly 1,000,000-500,000 years ago in the Pleistocene. There are myriad sites in Thailand dating to the Bronze (1500 BC-500 BC) and Iron Ages (500 BC-AD 500). The most thoroughly researched of these sites are located in the country's Northeast, especially in the Mun and Chi River valleys. The Mun River in particular is home to many 'moated' sites which comprise mounds surrounded by ditches and ramparts. The mounds contain evidence of prehistoric occupation.

Around the 1st century AD, according to Funan epigraphy and the records of Chinese historians (Coedes), a number of trading settlements of the South appear to have been organized into several Malay states, among the earliest of which are believed to be Langkasuka and Tambralinga.

Ancient civilizations

Prior to the arrival of the Tai people and culture into what is now Thailand, the region hosted a number of indigenous Mon-Khmer and Malay civilizations. Yet little is known about Thailand before the 13th century as the literary and concrete sources are scarce and most of the knowledge about this period is gleaned from archeological evidence.

Dvaravati

Main article: Dvaravati



A 13 meter long reclining Buddha, Nakhon Ratchasima

The Chao Phraya valley in what is now Central Thailand had once been the home of Mon Dvaravati culture, which prevailed from the 7th century to the 10th century.[7] The existence of the civilizations had long been forgotten by the Thai when Samuel Beal discovered the polity among the Chinese writings on Southeast Asia as “Tou-lo-po-ti”. During the early 20th century the archeologists led by George Coedès made grand excavations on what is now Nakorn Pathom and found it to be a center of Dvaravati culture. The constructed name Dvaravati was confirmed by a Sanskrit plate inscription containing the name “Dvaravati”.

Later on, many more Dvaravati sites were discovered throughout the Chao Phraya valley. The two most important sites were Nakorn Pathom and Uthong (in the present Suphanburi Province). The inscriptions of Dvaravati were in Sanskrit and Mon using the script derived from the Pallava script of the Pallava dynasty. The religion of Dvaravati is thought to be Theravada through contacts with Sri Lanka, with the ruling class also participating in Hindu rites. The Dvaravati art, including the Buddha sculptures and stupas, showed strong similarities to those of the Gupta dynasty. The most prominent production of Dvaravati art are the *Thammachakra*s or the Stone Wheels signifying Buddhist principles. The eastern parts of the Chao Phraya valley

were subjected to a more Khmer and Hindu influence as the inscriptions are found in Khmer and Sanskrit.[8]



Khmer period Thai sculpture of Vishnu, ~10th century

Dvaravati was not a kingdom but a network of city-states paying tributes to more powerful ones according to the *mandala* model. Dvaravati culture expanded into Isan as well as southwards as far as the Isthmus of Kra. Dvaravati was a part of ancient international trade as Roman artifacts were also found and Dvaravati tributes to the Tang court are recorded. The culture came to an end around the 10th century when it was replaced by a more unified Lavo-Khmer polity.

Si Kottaboon

In what is considered as present day Isan another Indianized kingdom of Si Kottaboon rose with the capital of Nakhon Phanom. The territory of Si Khottaboon covered mostly in northern Isan and central Laos.

Southern Thailand

Below the Isthmus of Kra was the place of Malay civilizations. Primordial Malay kingdoms are described as tributaries to Funan by 2nd century Chinese sources – though most of them proved to be tribal organizations instead of full-fledged kingdoms.[9] From the 6th century onwards, two major mandalas ruled Southern Thailand – the Kanduli and the Langkasuka. Kanduli centered on what is now Surat Thani Province and Langasuka on Pattani. Southern Thailand was the center of Hinduism and Mahayana. The Tang dynasty monk I Ching stopped at Langkasuka to study Pali grammar and Mahayana during his journey to India around 800 AD. At that time, the kingdoms of Southern Thailand quickly fell under the influences of the Malay kingdom of Srivijaya from Sumatra.

Classical era

From about the 10th century to the 14th century Thailand was known through archeological findings and a number of local legends. The period saw the Khmer domination over a large portion of Chao Phraya basin and the Isan. The expansion of Tai people and culture southwards also happened during the classical era.

Hariphunchai

Main article: Hariphunchai

According to the Jamadevivamsa, the city of Hariphunchai (modern Lamphun) was founded by the hermits; Jamadevi, a Lavo princess, was invited to rule the city in around 700 AD. However, the date is considered too early for the foundation of Hariphunchai as Jamadevi brought no Thammachakras to the north. Hariphunchai may be a later (about the 10th century) offshoot of the Lavo kingdom or instead related to the Thaton kingdom.

Hariphunchai was the center of Theravada in the north. The kingdom flourished during the reign of King Attayawong who built the Dhatu of Hariphunchai in 1108. The kingdom had strong relations to another Mon kingdom of Thaton. During the 11th century, Hariphunchai waged lengthy wars with the Tai Ngoenyang kingdom of Chiang Saen. Weakened by Tai invasions, Hariphunchai eventually fell in 1293 to Mangrai the Great, king of Lanna, the successor state of the Ngoenyang kingdom.

Arrival of the Tais

The most recent and accurate theory about the origin of the Tai people stipulates that Guangxi province in China is really the Tai motherland instead of Yunnan province. A large number of Tai people, known as the Zhuang, still live in Guangxi today. Around 700 AD, Tai people who did not come under Chinese influence settled in what is now Dien Bien Phu in modern Vietnam according to the Khun Borom legend. From there, the Tais began to radiate into northern highlands and founded the cities of Luang Prabang and Chiang Saen.


A Buddha from Wat Kukkut, Lamphun

The *Simhanavati legend* tells us that a Tai chief named Simhanavati drove out the native Wa people and founded the city of Chiang Saen around 800 AD. For the first time, the Tai people made contact with the Indianized civilizations of Southeast Asia. Through Hariphunchai, the Tais of Chiang Saen adopted Theravada Buddhism and Sanskrit royal names. The Dhatu of Doi Tung, constructed around 850 AD, signified the piety of Tai people on the Theravada religion. Around 900 AD, major wars were fought between Chiang Saen and Hariphunchai. The Mon forces captured Chiang Saen and its king fled. In 937, Prince Prom the Great took Chiang Saen back from the Mon and inflicted severe defeats on Hariphunchai.

Around 1000 AD, Chiang Saen was destroyed by an earthquake with all the inhabitants killed. A council was established to govern the kingdom for a while, and then a local Wa man known as Lavachakkaraj was elected the King of the new city of Chiang Saen or Ngoenyang. The Lavachakkaraj dynasty would rule over the region for about 500 years.

The overpopulation might have encouraged the Tais to seek their fortune further southwards. By 1100 AD, the Tai had established themselves as *Po Khun*s (ruling fathers) at Nan, Phrae, Songkwae, Sawankhalok, Chakangrao, etc. on the upper Chao Phraya valley. These southern Tai princes faced Khmer influence from Lavo. Some of them became subordinates to the Lavo-Khmer polity.

Chao Phraya Basin under the Tai

There are several legends about the Tai coming to rule mandalas of Central Thailand including Lavo and Suphannabhum. The Suphannabhum mandala had been independent from Khmer influence and composed originally the Western Provinces of modern Thailand including Suphanburi, Ratchaburi, and Phetchaburi.

In the 12th century, the Tai *Po Khun*s of the upper Chao Phraya coalesced around the *Po Khun* of Sukhothai - an important Khmer outpost. With the weakened Khmer authority, *Po Khun* Si Nau Namthom of Sukhothai gained the autonomy of upper Chao Phraya valley. However, during the reign of Jayavarman VII, the Khmer power was strengthened and the Tai *Po Khun*s were subdued and brought under Khmer suzerainty. Suphannabhum was also weakened by Khmer invasions and only the city of Suphanburi itself was left.

Lavo

Main article: Lavo kingdom

Around the 10th century, the city-states of Dvaravati merged into two mandalas – the Lavo (modern Lopburi) and the Supannabhum (modern Suphanburi). According to a legend in the Northern Chronicles, in 903, a king of Tambralinga invaded and took Lavo and installed a Malay prince to the Lavo throne. The Malay prince was

married to a Khmer princess who had fled an Angkorian dynastic bloodbath. The son of the couple contested for the Khmer throne and became Suryavarman I, thus bringing Lavo under Khmer domination through personal union. Suryavarman I also expanded into Isan, constructing many temples.



The Khmer temple of Wat Phra Prang Sam Yod in Lopburi

Suryavarman, however, had no male heirs and again Lavo was independent. King Anawratha of Bagan invaded Lavo in 1057 and took a Lavo princess as his wife. The power of the Lavo kingdom reached the zenith in the reign of Narai (1072–1076). Lavo faced Burmese invasions under Kyanzittha, whose mother was the Lavo princess, in 1080 but was able to repel. After the death of Narai, however, Lavo was plunged into bloody civil war and the Khmer under Suryavarman II took advantage by invading Lavo and installing his son as the King of Lavo.

The repeated but discontinued Khmer domination eventually "Khmerized" Lavo. Lavo was transformed from a Theravadic Monic Dvaravati city into a Hindu Khmer one. Lavo became the entrepôt of Khmer culture and power of the Chao Phraya river basin. The bas-relief at Angkor Wat showed a Lavo army as one of the subordinates to Angkor. However, one interesting note is that a Tai army was shown as a part of Lavo army, a century before the establishment of the Sukhothai kingdom.

Sukhothai and Lanna

Main article: Sukhothai kingdom

Main article: Lanna



Southeast Asia c.1300 CE, showing Khmer Empire in red, Lavo kingdom in light blue, Sukhothai empire in orange, Champa in yellow, Dai Viet in blue and Kingdom of Lanna in purple.



The ruins of Wat Mahathat, Sukhothai Historical Park

Thai city-states gradually became independent from the weakened Khmer Empire. It is said that Sukhothai was established as a sovereign, strong kingdom by Pho Khun Si Indrathit in 1238 AD. A political feature which "classic" Thai historians call "father governs children" existed at this time. Everybody could bring their problems to the king directly, as there was a bell in front of the palace for this purpose. The city briefly dominated the area under King Ramkhamhaeng, who established the Thai alphabet, but after his death in 1365, Sukothai fell into decline and became subject to another emerging Thai state: the Ayutthaya Kingdom in the lower Chao Phraya area.

Another Thai state that coexisted with Sukhothai was the eastern state of Lanna, centred in Chiang Mai. King Phya Mangrai was its founder. This city-state emerged in the same period as Sukhothai. Evidently Lanna became closely allied with Sukhothai. After the Ayutthaya kingdom had emerged and expanded its influence from the Chao Phraya valley, Sukhothai was finally subdued. Fierce battles between Lanna and Ayutthaya also constantly took place and Chiang Mai was eventually subjugated, becoming Ayutthaya's 'vassal'.

Lanna's independent history ended in 1558, when it finally fell to the Burmese; thereafter it was dominated by Burma until the late 18th century. Local leaders then rose up against the Burmese with the help of the rising Thai kingdom of Thonburi of king Taksin. The 'Northern City-States' then became vassals of the lower Thai kingdoms of Thonburi and Bangkok. In the early 20th century they were annexed and became part of modern Siam, the country now called Thailand.

Ayutthaya

Main article: Ayutthaya kingdom



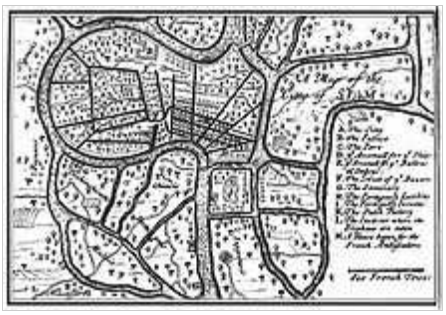
Southeast Asia c.1400 CE, showing Khmer Empire in red, Ayutthaya Kingdom in violet, Lan Xang kingdom in teal, Sukhothai Kingdom in orange, Champa in yellow, Kingdom of Lanna in purple, Dai Viet in blue.

The city of Ayutthaya was located on a small island, encircled by three rivers. Due to its superior location, Ayutthaya quickly became powerful, politically and economically. Ayutthaya had different, various names ranging from 'Ayothaya', derived from Ayodhya, an Indian holy city,'Krung Thep', 'Phra Nakorn' and 'Dvaravati'.

The first ruler of the Kingdom of Ayutthaya, King Ramathibodi I (ruled 1351 to 1369), made two important contributions to Thai history: the establishment and promotion of Theravada Buddhism as the official religion – to differentiate his kingdom from the neighbouring Hindu kingdom of Angkor – and the compilation of the Dharmashastra, a legal code based on Hindu sources and traditional Thai custom. The Dharmashastra remained a tool of Thai law until late in the 19th century. In the 417 years of existence, the Ayutthaya kingdom was frequently plagued by internal fighting but this did not prevent its rise as a major power on mainland Southeast Asia.



Kosa Pan to Louis XIV in 1686, by Jacques Vigouroux Duplessis



Ayutthaya in the 17th century

Ayutthaya's culture and traditions became the model for the next period in Thai history, the Bangkok based Rattanakosin Kingdom of the Chakri Dynasty.

Beginning with arrival of Portuguese ambassador Duarte Fernandes in 1511, Ayutthaya, known to the Europeans as 'Kingdom of Siam', came into contact with the West during the 16th century. It became one of the most prosperous cities in East Asia. According to George Modelski, Ayutthaya is estimated to have been the largest city in the world in 1700 CE, with a population of around 1 million.[10] Trade flourished with the Dutch and French among the most active foreigners in the kingdom together with the Chinese and Japanese.

The Ayutthaya period is known as "Golden age of medicine in Thailand" due to progress in the field of medicine at that time.[11]

Ayutthaya expanded its sphere of influence over a considerable area, ranging from the Islamic states on the

Malay Peninsula, the Andaman ports of present day Myanmar, the Angkor kingdom of Cambodia, to states in northern Thailand. In the 18th century, the power of the Ayutthaya Kingdom gradually declined as fighting between princes and officials plagued its political arena. Outlying principalities became more and more independent, ignoring the capital's orders and decrees.

In the 18th century, the last phase of the kingdom arrived. The Burmese, who had taken control of Lanna and had also unified their kingdom under the powerful Konbaung Dynasty, launched several blows against Ayutthaya in the 1750s and 1760s. Finally, in 1767, after several months of siege, the Burmese broke through Ayutthaya's walls, sacked the city and burned it down. The royal family fled the city and Ayutthaya's last king Ekkathat died of starvation ten days later while in hiding. The Ayutthaya royal line had been extinguished. Overall there had been 33 kings in this period, including an unofficial king.

In the Year 1563 a.d., 15 years after Suriyothai passed away,Prince Bayinnong Ascended to the throne as the King of Hongsawadee, the heir of the King Tabengchaweti.he led his army past Maelamao border taking over the Northern cities on his way to the Kingdom of Ayodhya. Once King Bayinnong had control over Kampaenphet, Sukhothai and Sawankhalok, he led his forces to the northern kingdom of Phitisanulok. King Bayinnong Defeated Phitisanulok taken the eldest son of the King of Phitisanulok,Prince Ong Dam. (or Prince Naresuan)Prince Ekkathat is Prince Naresuan Younger Brother that trained Military skills and tradition of Burma and in 1581 King Bayinnong passed away of a illness from his coming of a conflict battle against the Kingdom of Yakkai.The son of King Bayinnong became King afterwards. Some of the Northern states revolted against Hongsadee including Phitsanulok Ayodhya, and Mon. To gain their Independence.

Five dynasties ruled the Ayutthaya Kingdom:

1. U-Thong Dynasty which consisting of 3 kings
2. Suphanabhumi Dynasty consisting of 13 kings
3. Sukhothai Dynasty consisting of 7 kings
4. Prasart Thong (Golden Palace) Dynasty consisting of 4 kings
5. Bann Plu Dynasty consisting of 6 kings

Thonburi and Bangkok period

Main article: History of Thailand (1768–1932)

After more than 400 years of power, in 1767, the Kingdom of Ayutthaya was brought down by invading Burmese armies, its capital burned, and the territory split. General Taksin (now known as King Taksin the Great) managed to reunite the Thai kingdom from his new capital of Thonburi and declared himself king in 1769. However, later due to stress and many factors, King Taksin went mad. General Chakri (later becoming Rama I) helped run the empire instead. The King Taksin ordained as a monk and ventured into the forest and never to be seen again. General Chakri succeeded him in 1782 as Rama I, the first king of the Chakri dynasty. In the same year he founded the new capital city at Bangkok, across the Chao Phraya river from Thonburi, Taksin's capital. In the 1790s Burma was defeated and driven out of Siam, as it was then called. Lanna also became free of Burmese occupation, but the king of a new dynasty who was installed in the 1790s was effectively a tributary ruler of the Chakri monarch.

The heirs of Rama I became increasingly concerned with the threat of European colonialism after British victories in neighboring Burma in 1826. The first Thai recognition of Western power in the region was the Treaty of Amity and Commerce with the United Kingdom in 1826. In 1833, the United States began diplomatic exchanges with Siam, as Thailand was called until 1939, and again between 1945 and 1949. However, it was during the later reigns of King Mongkut (1804–1868), and his son King Chulalongkorn (1853–1910), that

Thailand established firm rapprochement with Western powers. It is a widely held view in Thailand that the diplomatic skills of these monarchs, combined with the modernising reforms of the Thai government, made Siam the only country in Southeast Asia to avoid European colonisation. This is reflected in the country's modern name, *Prathet Thai* or *Thai-land*, used since 1939 (although the name was reverted to Siam during 1945–49), in which *prathet* means "nation".

The Anglo-Siamese Treaty of 1909 defined the modern border between Siam and British Malaya by securing Thai authority over the provinces of Pattani, Yala, Narathiwat and Satun, which were previously part of the semi-independent Malay sultanates of Pattani and Kedah. A series of treaties with France fixed the country's current eastern border with Laos and Cambodia.

End of absolute monarchy, and military rule

Main article: History of Thailand (1932–1973)

The Siamese revolution of 1932 was led by a group of young military officers and civil servants. The group held key figures, ministers who were of the royal blood as hostages while the king, Rama VII, was at the summer palace in Hua Hin. The coup, usually called 'The Revolution of 1932', transformed the Government of Thailand from an absolute to a constitutional monarchy. The cabinet was presided by the prime minister. Military men always played a significant role in the politics even before 1932. Already in 1912, during the Rama VI reign, young soldiers had been arrested who had plotted a coup urging a constitution and a change of the king's status.

King Rama VII, Prajadhipok initially accepted this change, granting the Constitution but later abdicated from his position due to conflicts with the government. The revolutionary government decided to install his ten year old nephew, Ananda Mahidol as the new monarch. Upon his abdication, King Prajadhipok said that the duty of a ruler was to reign for the good of the whole people, not for a selected few. Within a decade Thai politics ran into turmoil as the revolutionary government plunged into factions; military and civilian figures. Fear of communism, extreme revolutionary ideas and ultranationalism caused the sharp fighting among the new ruling elites. Eventually the military faction emerged. The regime became authoritarian under the prime minister Plaek Phibunsongkhram, one of the members of the Revolutionary military wing. His regime was also famous in promoting the 'Pan - Thaism', the ultra - nationalist policy aiming at unifying Tai, Thai - speaking people nearby into the kingdom. Moreover, in 1941, Phibun regime decided to ally with Japan.

The young King Ananda Mahidol (Rama VIII) died in 1946 under somewhat mysterious circumstances, the official explanation being that he shot himself by accident while cleaning his gun. He was succeeded by his brother Bhumibol Adulyadej, the longest reigning king of Thailand, and very popular with the Thais. Although nominally a constitutional monarchy, Thailand was ruled by a series of military governments, most prominently led by Plaek Phibunsongkhram and Sarit Dhanarajata, interspersed with brief periods of democracy.

In early January 1941, Thailand invaded French Indochina, beginning the French-Thai War. The Thais, well equipped and slightly outnumbering the French forces, easily reclaimed Laos. The French, outnumbering the Thai navy force, decisively won the naval Battle of Koh Chang.

The Japanese mediated the conflict, and a general armistice was declared on January 28. On May 9 a peace treaty was signed in Tokyo, with the French being coerced by the Japanese into relinquishing their hold on the disputed territories.

On December 8, 1941, a few hours after the attack on Pearl Harbor, Japan demanded the right to move troops across Thailand to the Malayan frontier. Japan invaded Thailand and engaged the Thai army for six to eight hours before Phibunsongkhram ordered an armistice. Shortly thereafter Japan was granted free passage, and on

December 21, 1941, Thailand and Japan signed a military alliance with a secret protocol wherein Tokyo agreed to help Thailand regain territories lost to the British and French (i.e. the Shan States of Burma, Malaya, Singapore, & part of Yunnan, plus Laos & Cambodia) Subsequently, Thailand undertook to 'assist' Japan in its war against the Allies. NOTE: Japan's distrust of Thailand extended to the point of rearming their 'ally' with controlled munitions, including the famous Siamese Mauser, which was manufactured in an unusual caliber. The Seri Thai (Free Thai Movement) was an underground resistance movement against Japan founded by Seni Pramoj, the Thai ambassador in Washington, with the assistance of the United States Office of Strategic Services (OSS.) Led from within Thailand from the office of the regent Pridi, it operated freely, often with support from members of the Royal family such as Prince Chula Chakrabongse, and members of the government.

After Japan's defeat in 1945, due to the help of Seri Thai, American support mitigated Allied terms, although the British demanded repatriations in the form of rice sent to Malaya, and the French, return of territories lost in the Franco-Thai War. In exchange for supporting Thailand's admission to the United Nations, the Soviet Union demanded repeal of anticommunist legislation. It should also be noted that some former British POW's erected a monument expressing gratitude to the citizens of Ubon Ratchathani. In the postwar period, Thailand had close relations with the United States, which it saw as a protector from communist revolutions in neighboring countries. See United States Air Force in Thailand.

Communist guerrillas existed in the country from early '60s up to 1987, counting almost 12,000 full-time fighters at the peak of movement, but never posed a serious threat to the state.

Recently, Thailand also has been an active member in the regional Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), especially after democratic rule was restored in 1992.

Democracy

Main article: History of Thailand since 1973

Main article: 2008–2010 Thai political crisis

Post-1973 has been marked by a struggle to define the political contours of the state. It was won by the King and General Prem Tinsulanonda, who favored a monarchy constitutional order.

The post-1973 years have seen a difficult and sometimes bloody transition from military to civilian rule, with several reversals along the way. The revolution of 1973 inaugurated a brief, unstable period of democracy, with military rule being reimposed after the 6 October 1976 Massacre. For most of the 1980s, Thailand was ruled by Prem Tinsulanonda, a democratically inclined strongman who restored parliamentary politics. Thereafter the country remained a democracy apart from a brief period of military rule from 1991 to 1992. The populist Thai Rak Thai party, led by prime minister Thaksin Shinawatra, came to power in 2001. He was popular with the subaltern and rural and urban poor for his populist social programs, his rule came under attack from the elites who saw danger of his parliamentary dictatorship. Also in mid-2005, Sondhi Limthongkul, a well-known media tycoon, became the foremost Thaksin critic. Eventually Sondhi and his alliances developed the movement into a mass protest and later unified under the name of People's Alliance for Democracy (PAD).

On September 19, 2006, after the dissolution of the parliament, Thaksin then became the provisional government. While he was in New York for a meeting of the UN, Army Commander-in-Chief Lieutenant General Sonthi Boonyaratglin launched the bloodless September 2006 Thailand military coup d'état supported by anti-Thaksin elements in civil society and among the Democrat Party. A general election on 23 December 2007 restored a civilian government, led by Samak Sundaravej of the People's Power Party, as a successor to Thai Rak Thai.

In mid-2008, the People's Alliance for Democracy (PAD) led large protests against the government of Prime Minister Samak Sundaravej, whom they criticized for his ties to former Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra. On 26 August 2008, the protesters illegally occupied several government ministries, including the Government House which they sacked, to force the government to give in to demands.[12] Beginning August 29, protesters disrupted air and rail infrastructure, including Suvarnabhumi airport. They have never been prosecuted.[13] The chaos ended in December when three of the parties that formed the government were dissolved by the Constitutional Court for election fraud.[14] After this decision, many previous coalition partners of the government then defected and joined the main opposition party, the Democrat party, and refusing elections to immediately form a new government in the favour of the old guard elites.[15] On July 3, 2011, opposition Pheu Thai Party won general elections in a landslide.

See also

- History of Asia
- History of Southeast Asia
- History of Isan
- List of Kings of Thailand
- List of Prime Ministers of Thailand
- Peopling of Thailand
- Politics of Thailand

Notes

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Monarchy of Thailand

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Monarchy of Thailand** (also referred to as the **King of Thailand** or historically as **King of Siam**) (Thai: พระมหากษัตริย์ไทย) refers to the constitutional monarchy and monarch of the Kingdom of Thailand (formerly Siam). The King of Thailand is the head of state and head of the ruling Royal House of Chakri. The king's power is limited to being a symbolic figurehead, but the institution commands the respect and reverence of the Thai people.[1]

The current monarch of Thailand is His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej. The king has reigned since 9 June 1946, making him the world's longest reigning current monarch and the world's longest serving head of state. Most of the king's powers are exercised by his elected government in accordance with the current post-coup constitution. The king still retains many powers such as: being head of the Royal Thai Armed Forces, the prerogative of royal assent and the power of pardon. He is also the defender of the Buddhist faith in Thailand.

Since the end of the absolute monarchy in 1932, each constitution has maintained the king as *"enthroned in a position of revered worship and shall not be violated."* His Majesty, however, in his 2005 national birthday broadcast, specifically indicated he was unhappy with the provision and wanted to be violated and criticized. Despite this royal wish, Thai state authorities have steadfastly refused to permit not just criticism but what they deem to be inappropriate discussion. The constitution exempts the king and the royal family from legal actions, but confers no other legal rights. Therefore, the monarchy is protected against any physical or defamatory threats. This provision against defaming the monarchy is known in the West as the *lèse majesté* law.[2] Violations of this law have led to arrests of travelers to Thailand who have been alleged to have made disparaging comments or been linked to deemed-to-be disparaging information on the internet.[3] To date legal scholars and law firms in Thailand have been totally reluctant to challenge the constitutional nature of the lese majeste law, which is in part linked closely with another often abused criminal code provision - that dealing with criminal defamation.

King (Rama) of Thailand
พระมหากษัตริย์ไทย

MONARCHY



Emblem of Thailand



Incumbent:
Bhumibol Adulyadej (Rama IX)

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	Maha Vajiralongkorn
First monarch:	Sri Indraditya of Sukhothai
Formation:	1238

The king is assisted in his work and duties by the Private Secretary to the King of Thailand and the Privy Council of Thailand, in consultation with the head of the cabinet, the Prime Minister. In accordance with the constitution the king is no longer the originator of all laws in the kingdom; that prerogative is entrusted to the National Assembly of Thailand. All bills passed by the legislature, however, require his royal assent to become law. The monarchy's household and finances are managed by the Bureau of the Royal Household and the Crown Property Bureau respectively, these agencies are not considered part of the Thai government and all personnel are appointed by the king.[4]

The heir apparent to the Thai monarchy is the Crown Prince of Thailand, Prince Maha Vajiralongkorn. The succession to the throne is governed by the 1924 Palace Law of Succession, promulgated by King Vajiravudh. The rule of succession is male agnatic primogeniture, where only males are accepted and inheritance is between male lines, from father to son. However, the last two Constitutions of Thailand included provisions to permit for the amendment of the Palace Law to allow females to succeed. This seems unlikely with the birth of Prince Dipangkorn Rasmijoti in 2005, yet scholars continue to debate the subject.

The Thai monarchy has been in continuous existence since the founding of the Kingdom of Sukhothai in 1238. The institution reached its current constitutional form in 1932 after a coup revolution, which ended the absolute monarchy. The monarchy's official residence is the Grand Palace in Bangkok, Thailand. However the present king spends most of his time at the Chitralada Palace (also in Bangkok) and the Klai Kangwon Villa in Hua Hin.

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History



Pho Khun Ramkhamhaeng the Great

Origin

The current concept of Thai kingship has evolved through 800 years of absolute rule, and in contemporary times, especially after the 2006 coup, has become the subject of generally secret debate and watchful state spying. The first king of a unified Thailand was the founder of the Kingdom of Sukhothai: King Sri Indraditya in 1238. The idea of this early kingship is said to be based on two concepts derived from Hinduism (which the Thais inherited from its previous rulers the Khmers) and Theravada Buddhist beliefs. The first concept is based on the Vedic-Hindu caste of "Kshatriya" (Thai: กษัตริย์), or warrior-ruler, in which the king derives his powers from military might. The second is based on the Theravada Buddhist concept of "Dhammaraja" (Thai: ธรรมราชา), Buddhism having been introduced to Thailand somewhere around the sixth century A.D. The idea of the Dhammaraja (or kingship under Dharma), is that the king should rule his people in accordance with Dharma and the teachings of the Buddha.

These ideas were briefly replaced in 1279, when King Ramkhamhaeng came to the throne. Ramkhamhaeng departed from the Khmer tradition and created instead a concept of "paternal rule" (Thai: พ่อปกครองลูก), in which the King governs his people as a father would govern his children.[5] This idea is reinforced in the title and name of the King, as he is still known today, *Pho Khun Ramkhamhaeng* (Thai: พ่อขุนรามคำแหง) ("Pho" is Thai for Father). However this lasted only briefly, by the end of the kingdom the two old concepts had returned as symbolized by the change in the style of the kings; "Pho" was changed to "Phya" or Lord.

Kings of Ayutthaya

The Kingdom of Sukhothai was eventually supplanted by the Kingdom of Ayutthaya, which was founded in 1351 by King Ramathibodhi I. During the Ayutthayan period the idea of kingship changed. Due to ancient Khmer tradition in the region, Hindu concept of kingship was applied for the status of the leader. Brahmins took charge in the royal coronation. The king was believed to be the reincarnation of Hindu gods. Ayutthaya historical documents show the official titles of the kings in great variation; Indra, Shiva and Vishnu, or Rama. Seemingly, Rama was the most popular, as in 'Ramathibodhi'. However, Buddhist influence was also evident as many times the king's title and 'unofficial' name related to Bodhisattava, Dhammaraja, or King of Dharma, and the 'sprout of Buddha'. The two former concepts were re-established, with a new third concept taking a more serious hold. This new concept was called "Dhevaraja" (Thai: เทวราชา) (or Divine-King), which was an ideal borrowed from Hinduism and especially the Brahmins. This concept centered on the idea that the king was an incarnation (Avatar) of the god Vishnu and that he was a Bodhisattva (enlightened one), therefore basing his power on his religious power, moral power and purity of blood.

The king, portrayed by state interests as a semi-divine figure, then became - through a rigid cultural implementation - an object of worship and veneration to his people. From then on the monarchy was largely removed from the people and continued under a system of absolute rule. Living in palaces designed after Mount Meru (Home of the gods in Hinduism), the kings turned themselves into a "Chakravartin" or literally from Sanskrit "whose wheels are moving", where the King became an absolute and universal lord of his realm. Kings demanded that the universe be envisioned as resolving around them, and expressed their powers through elaborate rituals and ceremonies. For four centuries these kings ruled Ayutthaya, presiding over some of the greatest period of cultural, economic and military growth in Thai History.

Sakdina and Rachasap

The kings of Ayutthaya; especially King Trailokanat created many institutions to support their rule such as the bureaucracy and a system of *Sakna* or *Sakdina,* (ศักดินา: literally, *power over fields* but usually translated as feudalism; and the creation of "Rachasap" ({{lang-th|ราชาศัพท์} Royal Thai) reserved exclusively for addressing the king or talking about royalty. The king's power was absolute and sovereign: as the "Lord of the Land" ({{lang|th|พระเจ้าแผ่ดิน} *Phra Chao Phaendin*) and Lord of Life (เจ้าชีวิต *Chao Chevit*). The king was also the chief administrator, chief legislator and chief judge. Therefore all laws, orders, verdict and punishments theoretically originated from his person. All of this came to an end in 1767 when a Burmese army under the Alaungpaya Dynasty invaded, sacked and burned the city of Ayutthaya.

Chakri Kings

After a brief interlude filled first by civil war then the short-lived Thonburi Kingdom under King Taksin. In 1782 a new kingdom was established by King Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke (or Rama I) and moved the capital from Thonburi to Bangkok. King Rama I also founded the House of Chakri, the current ruling house of Thailand.



King Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke or Rama I, founder of the Chakri Dynasty.

During the Rattanakosin Period the Chakri kings tried to continue the concepts of Ayutthayan kingship once again emphasizing the connection between the sovereign and his subjects. On the other hand they continued to not relinquish any authority of the throne. During this period (King Rama II, Rama III and Rama IV) tried to create the first semblance of a modern government, creating ministries and appointing chief ministers to help with the running of the government. Most notable of these was Somdet Chao Phraya Prayurawongse and Si Suriyawongse, who both acted as Chief Ministers for King Mongkut and (as regent until 1873) to King Chulalongkorn, respectively.

King Chulalongkorn (or Rama V) ascended the throne as king of Siam in 1868. King Chulalongkorn; himself educated by westerners, was intent on reforming the monarchy along western lines. First he abolished the practice of kneeling and crawling in front of the monarch [a practice reinstated under the 9th Dynasty] and repealed many laws concerning the relationship between the monarch and his people. Instead he created a monarchy based on western lines of an 'enlightened ruler'; absolute but enlightened. However he continued to preserve many ancient aspects and rituals of the old kingship, including his religious and feudal powers. In 1874 the King created a privy council, copied from the European tradition to help him rule his Kingdom. During his reign Siam was pressured to relinquished control of it old tributaries of Laos and northern Malaya to Western powers, Siam itself narrowly avoided being colonized. His son King Vajiravudh (or Rama VI) (succeeded in 1910) continued his father's zeal for reform and brought the monarchy into the 20th century. He was succeeded by his brother King Prajadhipok (or Rama VII) in 1925.

Change



King Prajadhipok signing the Constitution of Siam on December 10, 1932.

In June 1932, a group of foreign educated students and military men called "the Promoters" carried out a bloodless Revolution, seizing power and demanded that King Prajadhipok, grant the people of Siam a constitution. The king agreed and in December 1932 the people were granted a constitution, ending 150 years of absolute Chakri rule. From then on the role of the monarch was relegated to that of a symbolic head of state. His powers from then on was exercised by the Prime Minister and the National Assembly

In 1935 King Pradhipok abdicated the throne, following disagreements with the increasingly authoritarian government. Rama VII lived in exile in the United Kingdom until his death. The king was replaced by his young nephew Ananda Mahidol (or Rama VIII). The new king was 10 years old and was living abroad in Switzerland; a council of regents was appointed in his place. During this period the roles and powers of the King was entirely usurped by the fascist government of Plaek Phibunsongkhram, who aligned Siam on the side of the Axis powers during the Second World War. By the end of the war Phibunsongkhram was removed and the young King returned. During the War many of the King's relatives were part of the Free Thai movement, which provided resistance to foreign occupation during the war and helped rehabilitate Thailand after the war.

After the Rama VIII's mysterious death in 1946 his brother, Prince Bhumibol Adulyadej (or Rama IX), aged 19 years old, became the new monarch, Rama IX. To date he is the world's longest still-serving Head of State and longest reigning monarch (of current monarchs still serving).

Beginning approximately in 2000, the role of the Thai monarchy was increasingly addressed by scholars, media, observers and traditionalists as the current king's health deteriorated with advancing age, and as more educated pro-democracy interests began to express their rights to speech. In reaction to these academic and political inquiries, the Thai state enacted a series of laws and measures claimed - without demonstrated to relate to protection of national security. Almost without exception international scholars, and those daring to speak within the kingdom, have protested against what they view as inappropriate state censorship. This in turn led to dozens of arrests, hundreds of criminal investigations, multiple imprisonments and explanations to the foreign diplomatic community that national security was under threat. To date, no real legal challenges have been introduced into Thai courts to test the legitimacy of these laws and other emergency measures. n

List of Kings

- Main Page: List of Kings of Thailand
- See also: List of Thai royal consorts

Royal Regalia

The present set of Royal Regalia of Thailand (Thai: **เบญจราชกกุธภัณฑ์**) and the Royal Utensils was created mostly during the reign of King

Rama I and Rama IV, after the previous set was lost during the sack of Ayutthaya by the Burmese in 1767. The Regalia is used mainly during the coronation ceremony of the king at the beginning of every reign. The Regalia is presently on display in the Museum of the Grand Palace in Bangkok.[6][7]

- Royal Nine-Tiered Umbrella (**พระมหาเศวตฉัตร**)- the most important regalia; currently there are seven, distributed at various palaces.
- Great Crown of Victory (**พระมหาพิชัยมงกุฎ**)- official headgear and the main symbol of kingship.
- Sword of Victory (**พระแสงขรรค์ชัยศรี**)- found in Tonlé Sap in 1784, the sword represents military power.
- Royal Staff (**ธารพระกร**)- symbol of justice
- Royal Fan and Flywhisk (**วาลวีชนี**)- Royal Fan made of gold and the Royal Flywhisk made from the tail of a white elephant.
- Royal Slippers (**ฉลองพระบาท**)- official footwear made of gold



Coronation of King Bhumibol at the Grand Palace, 5 May 1950.

The Thai Royal Utensils (Phra Khattiya Rajuprapoke) are also for the personal use of the monarch,[7] comprising:

- the Betel Nut Set
- the Water Urn
- the Libation Vessel
- the Receptacle.

These unique objects are always placed on either side of the king's throne or his seat during royal ceremonies.

Other Symbols of Kingship

- Royal Thrones of Thailand- currently there are six, distributed at various Throne Halls in the Grand Palace.[8]
- Royal White Elephant- usually one to represent each reign, the current one resides at Dusit zoo, the king also has 10 others.
- The Royal Garuda- Emblem of the king and of Thailand
- Royal Standard of Thailand- Official standard of the king
- Royal Flags- Personal flags of the king and royal family
- Sansoen Phra Barami- The Royal Anthem

Royal Ceremonies

His Majesty the King and other members of the royal family carry-out many royal ceremonies per year, some dating from the 13th century.

- Royal Coronation Ceremony
- Royal Barge Procession
- Royal Ploughing Ceremony
- The Changing of the Robes of the Emerald Buddha[9]
- Trooping of the Colours
- Oath of Allegiance Ceremony
- Speech from the Throne to the National Assembly of Thailand



The Royal Barge Procession in 2005.

Royal Orders and Decorations

The king is sovereign of several Royal Orders and Decorations, the prerogative to appoint and remove any persons from these orders are at the king's discretion. However sometimes recommendations are made by the Cabinet of Thailand and the Prime Minister.

See also: Thai Honours Order of Precedence

- The Most Auspicious Order of the Rajamitrabhorn
- The Most Illustrious Order of the Royal House of Chakri
- The Ancient and Auspicious Order of the Nine Gems
- The Most Illustrious Order of Chula Chom Klao
- The Ratana Varabhorn Order of Merit
- The Honourable Order of Rama
- The Most Exalted Order of the White Elephant
- The Most Noble Order of the Crown of Thailand
- The Most Admirable Order of the Direkgunabhorn

- The Vallabhabhorn Order
- The Order of Ramkeerati
- The Vajira Mala Order



The Standard of the King of Thailand, see more at Royal Standard of Thailand.

See also

- Bhumibol Adulyadej
- Rama (King of Thailand)
- Chakri Dynasty
- Constitution of Thailand
- Privy Council of Thailand
- Government of Thailand
- 1924 Palace Law of Succession
- Grand Palace

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Monarchs of the Chakri Dynasty


Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke (King Rama I)


Buddha Loetla Nabhalai (King Rama II)


Jessadabodindra (King Rama III)


Mongkut (King Rama IV)


Chulalongkorn (King Rama V)


Vajiravudh (King Rama VI)


Prajadhipok (King Rama VII)


Ananda Mahidol (King Rama VIII)


Bhumibol Adulyadej (King Rama IX)

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8. ^ http://sunsite.au.ac.th/thailand/thai_monarchy/residence.html
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External links

- King of Thailand.net (http://www.kingofthailand.net/)
- Website of the King's 50 Anniversary Celebration (http://www.kanchanapisek.or.th/)
- The illustrious Chakri family (http://www.mahidol.ac.th/thailand/chakri.html)
- The Royal Family, History and Information (http://www.soravij.com/rama9.html)
- Website on the Thai Monarchy (http://sunsite.au.ac.th/thailand/thai_monarchy/background.html)

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Bhumibol Adulyadej

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Bhumibol Adulyadej (RTGS: **Phumiphon Adunyadet**; Thai: ภูมิพลอดุลยเดช, pronounced [pʰūː.míˑ.pʰōn ʔà.dūn.jā.dèːt] (listen); see full title below; born 5 December 1927) is the current Monarch of Thailand. He is known as **Rama IX**. Having reigned since 9 June 1946, he is the world's longest-serving current head of state and the longest-reigning monarch in Thai history.[1]

Although Bhumibol is legally a constitutional monarch, he has made several decisive interventions in the Thai political sphere. He was credited with facilitating Thailand's transition to democracy in the 1990s, although he has supported numerous military regimes, including Sarit Dhanarajata's during the 1960s and the Council for National Security in 2006–8. During his long reign, he has authorized over 15 coups, 16 constitutions, and 27 changes of prime ministers.[2] He has also used his influence to stop military coups, including attempts in 1981 and 1985. Bhumibol is advised by a hand-picked Privy Council.

Bhumibol is respected[3][4] and revered by many Thais.[5] He is, by law passed by the Thai parliament, considered "inviolable" and lèse majesté, i.e. offence against the dignity of the monarch, may be punished.[5] In 1957, the overthrow of the government was justified with allegations of lese majeste.[6][7] Bhumibol however invited public criticism in a 2005 speech.[8]

Bhumibol is credited with a social-economic theory of self-sufficiency. His personal wealth is tremendous: Forbes estimated Bhumibol's personal fortune, including property managed by the Crown Property Bureau which is considered national property,[9] to be US$30 billion in 2010, and he has been consistently placed at number one of the magazine's list of "The World's Richest Royals".[10][11] The Crown Property Bureau spends money on public welfare such as youth development, however it does not pay taxes and its finances are reported only to Bhumibol.[12] Bhumibol himself has made donations to numerous development projects in Thailand, in areas including agriculture, environment, public health, occupational promotion, water resources, communications and public welfare.[13] Commemoration of Bhumibol's contributions to Thailand are ubiquitous in the Thai media.[14]

Bhumibol Adulyadej



King Bhumibol Adulyadej in 2010

King of Thailand

Reign	9 June 1946 – present
Coronation	5 May 1950
Predecessor	Ananda Mahidol (Rama VIII)
Heir apparent	Maha Vajiralongkorn
Prime Ministers	***See list***
Consort	Sirikit Kitiyakara (Since 28 April 1950)
Issue	
	Princess Ubolratana Rajakanya *HRH* The Crown Prince Maha Vajiralongkorn *HRH* The Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn *HRH* The Princess Chulabhorn Walailak
House	House of Mahidol Chakri Dynasty
Father	Mahidol Adulyadej, Prince of Songkla
Mother	Srinagarindra
Born	5 December 1927 Cambridge, Massachusetts, US
Signature	

Religion	Theravada Buddhism

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Early life



Bhumibol (center) with his mother and siblings Ananda Mahidol (left) and Galyani Vadhana (right).

He was born at the Mount Auburn Hospital in Cambridge, Massachusetts, in the United States on 5 December 1927.[15] He was the younger son of HRH Prince Mahidol Adulyadej and Mom Sangwan (later HRH Princess Srinagarindra, the Princess Mother: Somdet Phra Si Nakharinthra Boromaratchachonnani). His name, Bhumibol Adulyadej, means "Strength of the Land, Incomparable Power".[16] His father was enrolled in the Public Health program at Harvard University, hence his unusual place of birth for a monarch.

He came to Thailand in 1928, after Prince Mahidol obtained a certificate from Harvard. He briefly attended Mater Dei school in Bangkok but in 1933 his mother took the family to Switzerland, where he continued his education at the Ecole Nouvelle de la Suisse Romande in Lausanne. He received the *baccalauréat des lettres* (high-school diploma with major in French literature, Latin, and Greek) from the Gymnase Classique Cantonal of Lausanne, and by 1945 had begun studying science at the University of Lausanne, when World War II ended and the family returned to Thailand.[17]

Succession and marriage



Bhumibol and Sirikit after their wedding.

Bhumibol ascended the throne following the death by gunshot wound of his brother, King Ananda Mahidol, on 9 June 1946, in mysterious circumstances.[18] Bhumibol returned to Switzerland in order to complete his education, and his uncle, Rangsit, Prince of Chainat, was appointed Prince Regent. Bhumibol then switched over his field of study to law and political science.

While finishing his degree in Switzerland, Bhumibol visited Paris frequently. It was in Paris that he first met Mom Rajawongse Sirikit Kitiyakara, daughter of the Thai ambassador to France.[19]

On 4 October 1948, while Bhumibol was driving a Fiat Topolino on the Geneva-Lausanne road, he collided with the rear of a braking truck 10 km outside of Lausanne. He hurt

Thai Royal Family



HM The King
HM The Queen

- HRH The Crown Prince
  HRH Princess Srirasmi
  - HRH Princess Bajrakitiyabha
  - HRH Princess Sirivannavari Nariratana
  - HRH Prince Dipangkorn Rasmijoti
- HRH The Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn
- HRH The Princess Chulabhorn Walailak
  - HRH Princess Siribhachudhabhorn
  - HRH Princess Adityadhornkitikhun
- Princess Ubolratana Rajakanya
  - Lady Ploypailin Jensen

his back and incurred cuts on his face that cost him the sight of his right eye.[20][21] While he was hospitalised in Lausanne, Sirikit visited him frequently. She met his mother, who asked her to continue her studies nearby so that Bhumibol could get to know her better. Bhumibol selected for her a boarding school in Lausanne, Riante Rive. A quiet engagement in Lausanne followed on 19 July 1949, and the couple were married on 28 April 1950, just a week before his coronation.

- Lady Sirikitiya Jensen
- HRH Princess Soamsawali
- Lady Dasanavalaya Sorasongkram

Bhumibol and his wife Queen Sirikit have four children:

- (Formerly HRH) Princess Ubol Ratana, born 5 April 1951 in Lausanne, Switzerland;
- HRH The Crown Prince Maha Vajiralongkorn, born 28 July 1952;
- HRH The Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn, born 2 April 1955;
- HRH The Princess Chulabhorn Walailak, born 4 July 1957.

One of Bhumibol's grandchildren, Bhumi Jensen, was killed in the tsunami caused by the 2004 Indian Ocean earthquake. He was the autistic son of Princess Ubol Ratana.[22]

Coronation and titles



Bhumibol at his coronation at the Grand Palace.

Bhumibol was crowned King of Thailand on 5 May 1950 at the Royal Palace in Bangkok where he pledged that he would "reign with righteousness for the benefit and happiness of the Siamese people" ("**เราจะครองแผ่นดินโดยธรรม เพื่อประโยชน์สุขแห่งมหาชนชาวสยาม**").[23] Notable elements associated with the coronation included the Bahadrabith Throne beneath the Great White Umbrella of State; and he was presented with the royal regalia and utensils.[24]



Bhumibol addresses a joint session of the United States Congress in 1960

In 1950 on Coronation Day, Bhumibol's consort was made Queen (Somdej Phra Boromarajini). The date of his coronation is celebrated each 5 May in Thailand as Coronation Day, a public holiday. On 9 June 2006, Bhumibol celebrated his 60th anniversary as the King of Thailand, becoming the longest reigning monarch in Thai history.

Following the death of his grandmother Queen Savang Vadhana, Bhumibol entered a 15-day monkhood (22 October 1956 – 5 November 1956) at Wat Bowonniwet, as is customary for Buddhist males on the death of elder relatives.[25] During this time, Sirikit was appointed his regent. She was later appointed Queen Regent (Somdej Phra Boromarajininat) in recognition of this.

Although Bhumibol is sometimes referred to as King Rama IX in English, Thais refer to him as **Nai Luang** or **Phra Chao Yu Hua** (**ในหลวง** or **พระเจ้าอยู่หัว**: both mean "the King" or "Lord Upon our Heads"). He is also called **Chao Chiwit** ("Lord of Life").[26] Formally, he would be referred to as **Phrabat Somdej Phra Chao Yu Hua** (**พระบาทสมเด็จพระเจ้าอยู่หัว**) or, in legal documents, **Phrabat Somdej Phra Paramінthara Maha Bhumibol Adulyadej** (**พระบาทสมเด็จพระปรมินทรมหาภูมิพลอดุลยเดช**), and in English as His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej. He signs his name as **ภูมิพลอดุลยเดช ป.ร.** (Bhumibol Adulyadej Por Ror; this is the Thai equivalent of Bhumibol Adulyadej R[ex]).

Role in Thai politics

Plaek Pibulsonggram era



Marshal and Mrs. Pibulsonggram with Eleanor Roosevelt

In the early years of his reign, during the government of military dictator Plaek Pibulsonggram, Bhumibol had no real power and was little more than a ceremonial figure under the military-dominated government. In August 1957, 6 months after parliamentary elections, General Sarit Dhanarajata accused the government of Field Marshal Pibulsonggram of lèse majesté due to its conduct of the 2,500th anniversary celebration of Buddhism.[27][7] On 16 September 1957, Pibulsonggram went to Bhumibol to seek support for his government.[28] Bhumibol told the Field Marshal to resign to avoid a coup; Pibulsonggram refused. That evening, Sarit Dhanarajata seized power, and two hours later Bhumibol imposed martial law throughout the Kingdom.[29] Bhumibol issued a Proclamation appointing Sarit as "Military Defender of the Capital" without anyone countersigning this Proclamation. It included the following statements:[30]

> “ Whereas it appears that the public administration of the government under the premiership of Field Marshal P. Phibunsonggram is untrustworthy, and that it could not maintain the public order, the military, led by Field Marshal Sarit Dhanarajata, has successfully taken over the public administration and now acts as the Military Defender of the Capital. I, hereby, appoint Field Marshal Sarit Dhanarajata as the Military Defender of the Capital, and command that all the citizens shall remain calm while all the public servants shall serve the orders issued by Field Marshal Sarit Dhanarajat. This Proclamation shall come into force immediately. Done this 16th Day of September, Buddhist Era 2500 (1957). ”

Sarit Dhanarajata era

During Sarit's dictatorship, the monarchy was revitalised. Bhumibol attended public ceremonies, toured the provinces and patronised development projects. Under Sarit, the practice of crawling in front of royalty during audiences, banned by King Chulalongkorn, was revived in certain situations and the royal-sponsored Thammayut Nikaya order was revitalised. For the first time since the absolute monarchy was overthrown, a king was conveyed up the Chao Phraya River in a Royal Barge Procession to offer robes at temples.[31][32]

Other disused ceremonies from the classical period of the Chakri dynasty, such as the royally-patronised ploughing ceremony (Thai: **พิธีพืชมงคล**), were also revived.[33] Bhumibol's birthday (5 December) was declared the national day, replacing the previous national day, the anniversary of the Siamese Revolution of 1932 (24

June).[34] Upon Sarit's death in 8 December 1963, an unprecedented 21 days of mourning were declared in the palace. A royal five-tier umbrella shaded his body while it lay in state. Long-time royal adviser Phraya Srivisarn Vacha later noted that no Prime Minister ever had such an intimate relationship with Bhumibol as Sarit.[35]

Contemporary thinkers differ in their views about the relationship between Bhumibol and Sarit. Paul Handley, writer of *The King Never Smiles* views Sarit as Bhumibol's tool, whereas political scientist Thak Chaloemtiarana asserts that Sarit used Bhumibol in order to build his own credibility.[36][37]

Thanom Kittikachorn era and short democratic phase

Field Marshal Thanom Kittikachorn was appointed premier a day after Sarit's death in 1963. He continued most of Sarit's policies for a decade. In October 1973 after massive protests and the deaths of a large number of pro-democracy demonstrators, Bhumibol opened the gates of the Chitralada Palace to fleeing protesters, and held an audience with student leaders. Bhumibol subsequently appointed the Thammasat University Rector Sanya Dharmasakti as the new Prime Minister, replacing Thanom. Thanom subsequently moved to the United States and Singapore. A succession of civilian governments followed, but the return of Field Marshal Thanom and his ordination as a novice monk at Wat Bowonniwet in 1976 led to renewed conflict, culminating in the 6 October 1976 Massacre at Thammasat University by royalist paramilitary forces.

Prem Tinsulanond era

The ensuing chaos was used as a pretext for a military coup. The junta submitted three names to the king to choose from to become the next Premier: Deputy President of the king's Privy Council Prakob Hutasingh, right-wing Bangkok Governor Thamnoon Thien-ngern, and conservative Supreme Court judge Tanin Kraivixien.[38] Bhumibol chose Tanin as the most suitable. However, Tanin proved to be very right-wing himself, causing student protesters to flee to join the communists in the jungle. Tanin was himself overthrown in a military coup in October 1977 led by General Kriangsak Chomanan. Kriangsak was succeeded in 1980 by the popular Army Commander-in-Chief, General Prem Tinsulanond, later the Privy Council President.

Bhumibol's refusal to endorse military coups in 1981 (the April Fool's Day coup) and 1985 (the Share Rebellion) ultimately led to the victory of forces loyal to the government, despite some violence – including in 1981, the seizure of Bangkok by rebel forces. The coups led many to believe that Bhumibol had misjudged Thai society and that his credibility as an impartial mediator between various political and military factions had been compromised.[39][40][41]

Crisis of 1992



Royal intervention on the night of 20 May. Left to right: Chamlong Srimuang, Suchinda

Main article: Black May (1992)

In 1992, Bhumibol played a key role in Thailand's transition to a democratic system. A coup on 23 February 1991 returned Thailand back under military dictatorship. After a general election in 1992, the majority parties invited General Suchinda Kraprayoon, a leader of the coup group, to be the Prime Minister. This caused much dissent, which escalated into demonstrations that led to a large number of deaths when the military was brought in to control the protesters. The situation became increasingly critical as police and military forces clashed with the protesters. Violence and riot spread out in many areas of the capital with rumours of a rift among the

Kraprayoon and the King (seated).

armed forces.[42]

Amidst the fear of civil war, Bhumibol intervened. He summoned Suchinda and the leader of the pro-democracy movement, retired Major General Chamlong Srimuang, to a televised audience, urged them to find a peaceful resolution. At the height of the crisis, the sight of both men appearing together on their knees (in accordance with royal protocol) made a strong impression on the nation, and led to Suchinda's resignation soon afterwards.

It was one of the few occasions in which Bhumibol directly and publicly intervened in a political conflict. A general election was held shortly afterward, leading to a civilian government.[43]

2003 War on Drugs



With then President Vladimir Putin in Bangkok on 22 October 2003.

In his 4 December 2002 speech on the eve of his birthday, King Bhumibol spoke about the rise in drug use, the high social costs and deaths caused by drugs, and called for a "War on Drugs."[44] Privy Councillor General Phichit Kunlawanit called on the Thaksin Shinawatra government to use its majority in parliament to establish a special court to deal with drug dealers, stating that “if we execute 60,000 the land will rise and our descendants will escape bad karma”.[45]

On 14 January 2003, Thaksin launched a campaign to rid "every square inch of the country" of drugs.[46] His War on Drugs campaign consisted of setting provincial arrest and seizure targets including "blacklists", awarding government officials for achieving targets and threatening punishment for those who failed to make the quota, targeting dealers, and "ruthless" implementation. In the first three months, Human Rights Watch reported that 2,275 people were killed, almost double the number normally killed in drug-related violence.[47] Human rights critics claimed a large number were extrajudicially executed.[48][49] The War on Drugs was widely criticized by the international community.[50]

According to the Narcotics Control Board, the campaign was effective in reducing drug consumption, especially in schools.[51] The War on Drugs was one of the most popular policies of the Thaksin government. Bhumibol, in a 2003 birthday speech, praised Thaksin and criticized those who counted only dead drug dealers while ignoring deaths caused by drugs.[52]

> "ไอ้การชัยชนะของการปราบไอ้ยาเสพติดนี่ ดีที่ปราบ แล้วก็ที่เขาตำหนิบอกว่า เอ้ย คนตาย ตั้ง ๒,๕๐๐ คน อะไรนั่น เรื่องเล็ก ๒,๕๐๐ คน ถ้านายกฯ ไม่ได้ทำ นายกฯ ไม่ได้ทำ ทุกปี ๆ จดไว้นะ มีมากกว่า ๒,๕๐๐ คนที่ตาย" "Victory in the War on Drugs is good. They may blame the crackdown for more than 2,500 deaths, but this is a small price to pay. If the prime minister failed to curb [the drug trade], over the years the number of deaths would easily surpass this toll.[53] "

Bhumibol also asked the commander of the police to investigate the killings.[54] Police Commander Sant Sarutanond reopened investigations into the deaths, and again claimed that few of the deaths were at the hands of the police.

After the 2006 coup, the military junta appointed a committee led by former Attorney General Kanit Na Nakorn to investigate deaths in the War on Drugs.[55] The committee found no evidence linking Thaksin or members of his government to any extrajudicial killings. However, critics claimed that the true findings of the committee

were suppressed.[56]

While he was opposition leader, Abhisit Vejjajiva accused Thaksin of crimes against humanity for the War on Drugs. After he became Prime Minister, Abhisit opened an investigation led by former attorney-general Kampee Kaewcharoen, claiming that a successful probe could lead to prosecution by the International Criminal Court.[47][57][58] As of the August 2011 parliamentary elections, Abhisit's investigation failed to find or publicize any evidence linking Thaksin or members of his Government to any extrajudicial killings.

Crisis of 2005–2006 and the September 2006 coup

Main articles: Thailand political crisis 2005-2006, Finland Plot, and 2006 Thailand coup d'état

Background to the coup

See also: Thailand political crisis 2005-2006

Weeks before the April 2006 legislative election, the Democrat Party-led opposition and the People's Alliance for Democracy petitioned Bhumibol to appoint a replacement prime minister and cabinet. Demands for royal intervention met with much criticism from the public. Bhumibol, in a speech on 26 April 2006, responded, "Asking for a Royally-appointed prime minister is undemocratic. It is, pardon me, a mess. It is irrational".[59]

After publicly claiming victory in the boycotted April parliamentary elections, Thaksin Shinawatra had a private audience with the king. A few hours later, Thaksin appeared on national television to announce that he would be taking a break from politics.

In May 2006, the Sondhi Limthongkul-owned Manager Daily newspaper published a series of articles describing the "Finland Plot", alleging that Thaksin and former members of the Communist Party of Thailand planned to overthrow the king and seize control of the nation. No evidence was ever produced to verify the existence of such a plot, and Thaksin and his Thai Rak Thai party vehemently denied the accusations and sued the accusers.

In a rare, televised speech to senior judges, Bhumibol requested the judiciary to take action to resolve the political crisis.[59] On 8 May 2006, the Constitutional Court invalidated the results of the April elections and ordered new elections scheduled for 15 October 2006.[60] The Criminal Court later jailed the Election Commissioners.[61][62]

On 14 July 2006, Privy Council President Prem Tinsulanonda addressed graduating cadets of the Chulachomklao Royal Military Academy, telling them that the Thai military must serve the King – not the Government.[63]

On 20 July, Bhumibol signed a royal decree endorsing new House elections for 15 October 2006. In an unprecedented act, the King wrote a note on the royal decree calling for a clean and fair election. That very day, Bhumibol underwent spinal surgery.[64]

The coup

See also: 2006 Thailand coup

In the evening of 19 September, the Thai military overthrew the Thaksin government and seized control of Bangkok in a bloodless coup. The junta, led by the Sonthi Boonyaratglin, Commander of the Army, called itself

the Council for Democratic Reform under the Constitutional Monarchy, accused the deposed prime minister and his regime of many crimes, including lèse majesté, and pledged its loyalty to Bhumibol. Martial law was declared, the Constitution repealed and the October elections cancelled. Protests and political meetings were banned.[65] On 20 September, Bhumibol endorsed the coup, and ordered civil servants to take orders from Sonthi.

The King's role in the coup was the subject of much speculation among Thai analysts and the international media, although publication of such speculation was banned in Thailand. The King had an audience with Privy Council President Prem Tinsulanonda at the same time as the First Special Forces were ordered mobilised.[66] Anti-coup protesters claimed that Prem was a key mastermind of the coup, although the military claimed otherwise and banned any discussion of the topic. In a BBC interview, Thitinan Pongsudhirak of Chulalongkorn University noted, "This coup was nothing short of Thaksin versus the King... He is widely seen as having implicitly endorsed the coup." In the same interview, social critic Sulak Sivaraksa claimed, "Without his involvement, the coup would have been impossible." Sulak added that the King is "very skillful. He never becomes obviously involved. If this coup goes wrong, Sonthi will get the blame, but whatever happens, the King will only get praise."[67] On Saturday 23 September 2006, the junta warned they would "urgently retaliate against foreign reporters whose coverage has been deemed insulting to the monarchy."[68] The President of Bhumibol's Privy Council, General Prem Tinsulanonda, supported the coup. The junta later appointed Privy Council member General Surayud Chulanont as Prime Minister.

On 20 April 2009, Thaksin claimed in an interview with the Financial Times that Bhumibol had been briefed by Privy Councillors Prem Tinsulanonda and Surayud Chulanont about their plans to stage the 2006 coup. He claimed that General Panlop Pinmanee, a leader of the People's Alliance for Democracy, had told him of the briefing.[69][70] The Thai embassy in London denied Thaksin's claims.

After the coup

The junta appointed a Constitutional Tribunal to rule on the alleged poll fraud cases concerning the Thai Rak Thai and Democrat political parties. Guilty rulings would have dissolved both parties, Thailand's largest and oldest, respectively, and banned the parties' leadership from politics for five years. The weeks leading up to the verdicts saw rising political tensions. On 24 May 2007, about a week before the scheduled verdict, Bhumibol gave a rare speech to the Supreme Administrative Court (the President of which is also a member of the Constitutional Tribunal). "You have the responsibility to prevent the country from collapsing," he warned them in the speech, which was shown on all national television channels simultaneously during the evening. “The nation needs political parties.... In my mind, I have a judgment but I cannot say," he said. "Either way the ruling goes, it will be bad for the country, there will be mistakes."[71][72][73] The Tribunal later acquitted the Democrat Party but dissolved the Thai Rak Thai party and banned 111 of its executives from politics for five years.

The junta-appointed Constitution Drafting Assembly later tried to use the King in a propaganda campaign to increase public support for its widely criticised draft constitution. The CDA placed billboards saying, *"Love the King. Care about the King. Vote in the referendum.* throughout the Northeast of Thailand, where opposition to the junta was greatest.[74]

2008 crisis

Main article: 2008–2010 Thai political crisis

The military's constitution passed the referendum, and general election was held in December 2007. The People's Power Party, consisting of many former Thai Rak Thai Party MPs and supporters, won the majority and

formed a government.[75] The People's Alliance for Democracy (PAD) refused to accept the election results and started protests, eventually laying siege to Government House, Don Muang Airport, and Suvarnabhumi Airport. Although the PAD claimed they were defending the monarchy, Bhumibol remained silent. However, after a PAD supporter died in a clash with police, Queen Sirikit presided over her cremation. Princess Sirindhorn, when asked at a US press conference whether the PAD was acting on behalf of the monarchy, replied, "I don't think so. They do things for themselves."[76] Questioning and criticism over Bhumibol's role in the crisis increased, particularly from the international press.[77][78][79][80][81][82][83] "It is more and more difficult for them to hold the illusion that the monarchy is universally adored," says a Thai academic.[84]

In April 2008, Bhumibol appointed alleged coup plotter General Surayud Chulanont to Privy Council of Thailand. In the weeks leading up to 2011 general election, Bhumibol appointed Air Chief Marshal Chalit Pukbhasuk, a leader of the 2006 military coup, to his Privy Council.[85]

Bhumibol was admitted to Siriraj Hospital in September 2009 for flu and pneumonia.[86] Rumors about his ill-health caused Thai financial markets to tumble in October 2009.[87]

Royal powers

Constitutional powers

> *For a historical perspective on how Bhumibol's constitutional powers have changed over time, see the Constitutions of Thailand article*

Bhumibol retains enormous powers, partly because of his immense popularity and partly because his powers – although clearly defined in the Thai constitution – are often subject to conflicting interpretations. This was highlighted by the controversy surrounding the appointment of Jaruvan Maintaka as Auditor-General. Jaruvavn had been appointed by The State Audit Commission. However, the Constitutional Court ruled in July 2004 that her appointment was unconstitutional. Jaruvan refused to vacate her office without an explicit order from Bhumibol, on the grounds that she had previously been royally approved. When the Senate elected a replacement for Jaruvan, Bhumibol refused to approve him.[88] The Senate declined to vote to override Bhumibol's veto.[89] Finally in February 2006 the Audit Commission reinstated Jaruvan when it became clear from a memo from the Office of the King's Principal Private Secretary that King Bhumibol supported her appointment.

Bhumibol has vetoed legislation very rarely. In 1976, when the Parliament voted 149–19 to extend democratic elections down to district levels, Bhumibol refused to sign the law.[90] The Parliament refused to vote to overturn the King's veto. In 1954, Bhumibol vetoed parliamentary-approved land reform legislation twice before consenting to sign it.[91] The law limited the maximum land an individual could hold to 50 rai (80,000 square metres (860,000 sq ft)), at a time when the Crown Property Bureau was the Kingdom's largest land-owner. The law was not enforced as General Sarit soon overthrew the elected government in a coup and repealed the law.

Bhumibol has the constitutional prerogative to pardon criminals, although there are several criteria for receiving a pardon, including age and remaining sentence. The 2006 pardoning of several convicted paedophiles, including an Australian rapist and child pornographer, caused controversy.[92][93][94] However under the Thailand Constitution, the King has the prerogative to grant a pardon and all laws, Royal Prescripts and Royal Commands relating to State affairs must be countersigned by a Minister unless otherwise provided in this Constitution. The pardon list is created and proposed by the government official, which was under the Shinawatra's 2006 government.

Network monarchy and extraconstitutional powers

Several academics outside of Thailand, including Duncan McCargo and Federico Ferrara have noted the active political involvement of Bhumibol through a "network monarchy," whose most significant proxy is Privy Council President Prem Tinsulanond. McCargo claimed that Bhumibol's deeply conservative network worked behind the scenes to establish political influence in the 1990s, but was deeply threatened by the landslide election victories of Thaksin Shinawatra in 2001 and 2005.[95] Ferrara claimed, shortly before the Thai Supreme Court delivered its verdict to seize Thaksin Shinawatra's assets, that the judiciary was a well-established part of Bhumibol's network and represented his main avenue to exercise extra-constitutional prerogatives despite having the appearance of being constitutional. He also noted how, in comparison to the Constitutional Court's 2001 acquittal of Thaksin, the judiciary was a much more important part of the "network" than it was in the past.[96]



City decoration in observance of King Bhumibol's birthday in Phitsanulok, Thailand

The network's ability to exercise power is based partly on Bhumibol's popularity and strict control of Bhumibol's popular image. Bhumibol's popularity was demonstrated following the 2003 Phnom Penh riots in Cambodia, when hundreds of Thai protesters, enraged by rumors that Cambodian rioters had stomped on photographs of Bhumibol, gathered outside the Cambodian embassy in Bangkok. Photographs of the stomping were not published in Thailand, but were available on the internet. The situation was resolved peacefully only when Police General Sant Sarutanonda told the crowd that he had received a call from royal secretary Arsa Sarasin conveying Bhumibol's request for calm. The crowd dispersed.[97]

Royal projects

History

> The development of the country must be fostered in stages. It must start with the construction of infrastructure, that is, the provision of food and basic necessities for the people by methods which are economic, cautious and conforming with principles. Once the foundation is firmly established, progress can be continually, carefully and economically promoted. This approach will prevent incurring mistakes and failures, and lead to the certain and complete achievement of the objectives.
>
> —Bhumibol's speech at Kasetsart University Commencement Ceremony on 19 July 1974.[98]



Bhumibol Dam

Bhumibol has been involved in many social and economic development projects. The nature of his involvement has varied by political regime.[99]

The government of Plaek Pibulsonggram (1951–1957) limited Bhumibol to a ceremonial role. During that period Bhumibol produced some films and operated a radio station from Chitlada Palace using his own personal funds.

In the military governments of Sarit Dhanarajata and his successors (1958–1980), Bhumibol was re-portrayed as the "Development King" and the inspiration of the economic and political goals of the regime. Royally-ordered projects were implemented under the financial and political support of the government, including projects in rural areas and communities under the influence of the Communist Party of Thailand. Bhumibol's visits to these projects were heavily promoted by the Sarit government and broadcast on the state-controlled media.

During the governments of General Prem Tinsulanond (1981–1987), the relationship between the Thai state and the monarch was at its closest. Prem, later to become President of Bhumibol's Privy Council, officially allocated government budgets and manpower to support royal projects. Most activities in this period involved the development of large scale irrigation projects in rural areas.

During the modern period (post-1988), the structured development of the Royal Projects reached its apex. Bhumibol's Chaipattana Foundation was established, promoting his "sufficiency economy" theory, an alternative to the export-oriented policies adopted by the period's elected governments. Following the 2006 coup, establishment of a "sufficiency economy" was enshrined in the constitution as being a primary goal of the government, and government financial support for royal projects boomed.

Example projects

- Rama VIII Bridge. Suggested by Bhumibol, funded by the government
- Huai Ongkod land reform project, Kanchanaburi province. Suggested by Bhumibol, using government-owned land.
- Royal Medical Team. Bhumibol's private physicians accompanying him on village tours were encouraged to provide medical care for local residents. In addition, the Royal Household sends letters of support to physicians who volunteer to serve in hospitals in provinces where royal palaces are situated.[100]

Awards

Bhumibol has received numerous royal and state orders as befitting of his stature. In addition, the king was awarded the William J. Donovan Medal, Award of Friendship OSS, New York, U.S.A.presented by the Office of Strategic Services (soon to be CIA) on 29 October 1987.[101]



King Bhumibol Adulyadej, President Dwight D. Eisenhower, Queen Sirikit and Mamie Eisenhower at the White House in June 1960.

Bhumibol, who serves as head of The National Scout Organization of Thailand, was presented the Bronze Wolf award on 20 June 2006, the highest award of the World Organization of the Scout Movement, for his support and development of Scouting in Thailand by Carl XVI Gustaf, King of Sweden and Honorary President of the World Scout Foundation. The presentation took place at Chitralada Palace in Thailand and was witnessed by Chairman of the World Scout Committee Herman Hui.

In May 2006, UN Secretary-General, Kofi Annan, presented the United Nations' first and only Human Development Lifetime Achievement Award to Bhumibol.[102]

Bhumibol set a world record for receiving the greatest number of honorary university degrees (136) in 1997.[103] Most of his degrees came from Thai universities: for instance, Kasetsart University awarded him ten

honorary doctoral degrees at once.

60th Anniversary celebrations

Main article: 60th Anniversary Celebrations of Bhumibol Adulyadej's Accession

Also called the Diamond Jubilee, the 60th Anniversary Celebrations of His Majesty the King's Accession to the Throne were a series of events marking Bhumibol's reign. Events included the royal barge procession on the Chao Phraya River, fireworks displays, art exhibitions, pardoning 25,000 prisoners,[104] concerts and dance performances.

Tied in with the anniversary, United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan presented Bhumibol with the United Nations Development Programme's first Human Development Lifetime Achievement Award on 26 May 2006. National holidays were on 9 June and 12–13 June 2006. On 9 June, the King and Queen appeared on the balcony of Ananta Samakhom Throne Hall before hundreds of thousands of people. The official royal barge procession on 12 June was attended by the King and Queen and royal visitors from 26 other countries. On 13 June, a state banquet for the royal visitors was held in the newly constructed Rama IX Throne Hall at the Grand Palace, the first official function for the hall. The Chiang Mai Royal Flora Expo was also held to honour the anniversary.

On 16 January 2007, the CDRM officially declared the end of the 60th anniversary celebrations and commenced year-long celebrations of Bhumibol's 80th birthday.[105]

Private life

Bhumibol is a painter, musician, photographer, author and translator. His book *Phra Mahachanok* is based on a traditional *Jataka* story of Buddhist scripture. *The Story of Thong Daeng* is the story of his dog Thong Daeng.[106]

In his youth, Bhumibol was greatly interested in firearms. He kept a carbine, a Sten gun, and two automatic pistols in his bedroom, and he and his elder brother, King Ananda Mahidol, often used the gardens of the palace for target practice.[107]

There are two English language books that provide extensive detail – albeit not always verifiable – about Bhumibol's life, especially his early years and then throughout his entire reign. One is *The Revolutionary King* by William Stevenson, the other is *The King Never Smiles* by Paul M. Handley. A third and earlier work, *The Devil's Discus*, is also available in Thai and English. All three books are banned in Thailand.

Bhumibol's creativity in, among other things, music, art, and invention, was the focus of a 2 minute long documentary created by the government of Abhibisit Vejjajiva that was screened at all branches of the Major Cineplex Group and SF Cinema City, the two largest cinema chains in Thailand.[108]

Monarchs of the Chakri Dynasty


Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke (King Rama I)


Buddha Loetla Nabhalai (King Rama II)


Jessadabodindra (King Rama III)


Mongkut (King Rama IV)

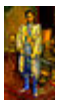

Chulalongkorn (King Rama V)


Vajiravudh (King Rama VI)


Prajadhipok (King Rama VII)

Health


Ananda Mahidol
(King Rama VIII)


Bhumibol Adulyadej
(King Rama IX)

Bhumibol suffers from lumbar spinal stenosis, a narrowing of the canal that contains the spinal cord and nerve roots, which results in back and leg pain and numbness in the legs. He received a microsurgical decompression in July 2006.[109][110]

Bhumibol was taken to Bangkok's Siriraj Hospital on 13 October 2007, complaining he felt weak down his right side; doctors later found out through scans that he had a blood shortage to his brain.[111] He was discharged on 7 November 2007.[112]

On 19 September 2009, he was once again admitted to Siriraj Hospital, apparently with the flu and pneumonia. US diplomatic cables from 2009, published by Wikileaks in 2011, reported that the king is suffering from Parkinson's disease and depression.[113] His youngest daughter HRH Princess Chulabhorn Walailak confirmed in an April 2011 television interview that the king remains in the hospital.[114]

On 17 November 2011, Bhumibol was diagnosed with diverticulitis while being confined in Siriraj Hospital. He is also forced to remain in fast until the disease is cured, the Bureau of the Royal Household announced.[115] He received further treatment for the condition in January 2012.

Music

Bhumibol is an accomplished jazz musician and composer, particularly for his works on the alto saxophone. He was the first Asian composer awarded honorary membership of the Academy of Music and Dramatic Arts in Vienna at the age of 32.[116] He used to play jazz music on air on the Or Sor radio station. In his travels, he has played with such jazz legends as Benny Goodman, Jack Teagarden, Lionel Hampton, Maynard Ferguson, and Preservation Hall Jazz Band. His songs can often be heard at social gatherings and concerts. In 2003, the University of North Texas College of Music awarded him an Honorary Doctorate in Music. The king's abilities as a jazz musician were mentioned by Aunt Jenny (Imogene Coca) in an episode of *The Brady Bunch* titled "Jan's Aunt Jenny", which originally aired on 21 January 1972.[117]

Sailing

Bhumibol is an accomplished sailor and sailboat designer.[118] He won a gold medal for sailing in the Fourth Southeast Asian Peninsular (SEAP) Games in 1967, together with HRH Princess Ubol Ratana whom he tied for points.[119] This accomplishment is all the more remarkable given Bhumibol's lack of binocular depth perception. Bhumibol has also sailed the Gulf of Thailand from Hua Hin to Toey Harbour in Sattahip, covering 60 nautical miles (110 km) in a 14-hour journey on the "Vega 1," an OK Class dinghy he built.[107]

Like his father, a former military naval engineer, Bhumibol was an avid boat designer and builder. He produced several small sail-boat designs in the International Enterprise, OK, and Moth Classes. His designs in the Moth class include the “Mod,” “Super Mod,” and “Micro Mod.”[120]

Patents

Bhumibol is the only Thai monarch to hold a patent.[121][122] He obtained one in 1993 for a waste water aerator named "Chai Pattana", and several patents on rainmaking since 1955: the "sandwich" rainmaking patent in 1999 and lately the "supersandwich" patent in 2003.[123][124][125]

Wealth

Estimates of the post-devaluation (circa 1997–1998) wealth of the royal household range from 10 billion to 20 billion USD.[126] In August 2008, Forbes came out with its 2008 version of *The World's Richest Royals*. King Bhumibol took first place on the list with an estimated wealth of $35 billion.[127] A few days later the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Thailand issued a statement that the Forbes report erred in attributing wealth owned by the Crown Property Bureau (CPB) solely to Bhumibol.[128] In the 2009 version of its list, Forbes acknowledged the government's objections, but justified the continued inclusion of the CPB's assets on the ground that Bhumibol was its trustee.[10] The 2009 estimate was down to $30 billion due to declines in real estate and stocks.[10]

The wealth and properties of Bhumibol and the royal family are managed by the Crown Property Bureau and the Privy Purse. The CPB was established by law but is managed independently of the Thai Government and reports only to Bhumibol.[107][129]

Through the CPB, Bhumibol and the royal family own land and equity in many companies and massive amounts of land, including 3,493 acres in Bangkok.[130] The CPB is the majority shareholder of Siam Cement (the largest Thai industrial conglomerate), Christiani & Nielsen (one of the largest Thai construction firms), Deves Insurance (which holds a monopoly on government property insurance and contract insurance), Siam Commercial Bank (one of the largest Thai banks), and Shin Corporation (a major Thai telecommunications firm, through the CPB's holdings in Siam Commercial Bank). The CPB also rents or leases about 36,000 properties to third parties, including the sites of the Four Seasons Hotel Bangkok, the Suan Lum Night Bazaar, Siam Paragon and the Central World Tower. The CPB spearheaded a plan to turn Bangkok's historical Rajadamnoen Avenue into a shopping street known as the "Champs-Élysées of Asia" and in 2007, shocked longtime residents of traditional marketplace districts by serving them with eviction notices.[131] Bhumibol's substantial income from the CPB, estimated to be at least five billion baht in 2004 alone, is exempt from taxes.[131][132] The CPB receives many state privileges. Although the Ministry of Finance technically runs the CPB, decisions are made solely by Bhumibol. The CPB's annual report is for the eye of Bhumibol alone; the annual report is not released to the public.[131]

In addition, Bhumibol has numerous personal investments independent of the CPB. He is personally the majority shareholder of the Thai Insurance Company and Sammakorn, as well as many other companies.[133] He currently holds 30% in Siam Cement,[134] and 20% in the Siam Commercial Bank.[135]

The CPB has a fleet of three aircraft for the use of the royal family, including a Boeing 737-800 and an Airbus A319. The newer Airbus had been purchased by the Thaksin Shinawatra government for government use, but after the 2006 coup, the junta offered it to the king. The other planes are used by members of the royal family.[136]

Among other vehicles, Bhumibol owns two custom-built stretch limousines from LCW Automotive Corp.[137] The Golden Jubilee Diamond, the largest faceted diamond in the world, was given to him by businessman Henry Ho.

Lèse majesté

Scope of the law

Although Bhumibol is held in great respect by many Thais[*citation needed*], he is also protected by *lèse majesté*

laws which allow critics to be jailed for three to fifteen years.[138] The laws were toughened during the dictatorship of royalist Premier Tanin Kraivixien, such that criticism of any member of the royal family, the royal development projects, the royal institution, the Chakri Dynasty, or any previous Thai King was also banned.[139] Jail terms for Thai citizens committing *lèse majesté* are usually harsher than for foreigners.

Politician Veera Musikapong was jailed and banned from politics for *lèse majesté*, despite the palace's opinion that the remarks were harmless. Frenchman Lech Tomacz Kisielwicz refused to switch off a reading light on a Thai Airways flight he shared with two Thai princesses and was jailed under *lèse majesté* for two weeks after his flight landed in Bangkok.[140] He was acquitted after apologizing to the King. Thossaporn Ruethaiprasertsung was arrested and charged with lèse majesté for making photocopies of leaflets with contents allegedly against the monarchy and the Privy Council.[141]

In 2009, Daranee "Da Torpedo" Chanchoengsilpakul was sentenced to 18 years in prison without suspension for "intending to insult" Bhumibol and Sirikit at a political protest.[142] She did not actually mention the monarchs in her speech (she criticized, among other things, the "ruling class"), however, the court ruled that the prosecution "brought evidence that makes it possible to interpret that the defendant meant the King and Queen Sirikit."[143] Social critic Sulak Sivaraksa has been charged several times with *lèse majesté*, but has always been acquitted.

Arrests have also occurred for sending text messages (SMSs) criticizing Bhumibol – although Bhumibol was not the recipient of the messages.[144]

During the government of Abhisit Vejjajiva, numerous people were charged with insulting Bhumibol using body language. [145]

There is controversy over whether criticism of members of Bhumibol's Privy Council also qualifies as criticism of Bhumibol.[146] Police Special Branch Commander Lt-General Theeradech Rodpho-thong refused to file charges of *lèse majesté* against activists who launched a petition to oust Privy Council President Prem Tinsulanonda, claiming that the law only applied to members of the royal family.[147] Two days later, he was demoted by Police Commander Seripisut Temivavej.[148] During the Songkran 2009 unrest, Thaksin Shinawatra accused the Privy Council President of masterminding the 2006 military coup. Royalists interpreted this as an attack on Bhumibol.

The website of Same Sky Books, publishers of Fah Diao Kan magazine, was shut down by the military government after comments on its bulletin board questioned claims made by the Thai media that the entire country was in mourning over the death of Princess Galyani Vadhana.[149]

During his 2005 birthday speech, Bhumibol invited criticism; a widespread barrage of criticisms resulted, followed by a sharp rise in lese majeste prosecutions. "Actually, I must also be criticised. I am not afraid if the criticism concerns what I do wrong, because then I know. Because if you say the king cannot be criticised, it means that the king is not human", he claimed. "If the king can do no wrong, it is akin to looking down upon him because the king is not being treated as a human being. But the king can do wrong."[8] Lese majeste cases rose from five or six a year pre-2005 to 478 in 2010.[150]

Calls to reform the lese majeste laws have themselves resulted in charges with lèse majesté.[151] Political scientist Giles Ungpakorn noted that "the *lèse majesté* laws are not really designed to protect the institution of the monarchy. In the past the laws have been used to protect governments, to protect military coups. This whole [royal] image is created to bolster a conservative elite well beyond the walls of the palace."[152]

In 2011 an American citizen, Joe Gordon (Lerpong Wichaikhammat), was arrested on charges he insulted the country's monarchy, in part by posting a link on his blog to a banned book about the ailing king. He is also suspected of translating, from English into Thai, portions of *The King Never Smiles* – and posting them online along with articles he wrote that allegedly defame the royal family.[153] "I want President Obama and Hillary Clinton to intervene on on my behalf," he is quoted as saying.[154] On 9 December 2011, a court in Thailand sentenced Joe Gordon to two and a half years in prison for defaming the country's royal family by translating excerpts of a locally banned biography of the king and posting them online[www.cbsnews.com/8301-202_162-57339098/thailand-jails-u.s-man-for-insulting-king/].

Political use of the lèse majesté law

Lèse majesté has often been used to silence discussion about Bhumibol's role in politics, particular after the 2006 coup. Dozens of radio stations have been shut down due to alleged insults.[155] As of December 2010, nearly 60,000 websites have been banned for alleged insults against Bhumibol. Chiranuch Premchaiporn, webmaster of news website Prachatai, has been jailed without bail for nearly a year for not removing an allegedly insulting comment from an article fast enough. Although the comments did not directly mention Bhumibol or members of his family, the court found that Chiranuch displayed insulting intent. Arrested in September 2010, she could face up to 50 years imprisonment if found guilty.[156][157]

Premier Thaksin Shinawatra and royalist activist Sondhi Limthongkul both filed charges of lèse majesté against each other during the 2005–2006 political crisis. Thaksin's alleged lèse majesté was one of the stated reasons for the Thai military's 2006 coup.[158][159][160][161]

In 2005, the Department of Special Investigation (DSI) issued arrest warrants for two Swedish citizens, Abdulrosa Jehngoh and Chipley Putra Jehngoh, claiming that their Manusaya.com website contained content insulting to Bhumibol.[162][163]

After the 2006 coup, there were an increasing number of claims that Bhumibol or his advisers knew of the 2006 coup before it actually occurred. Such lines of thought was suppressed with the lese majeste law: the number of people jailed for this alleged "insult" skyrocketed to an unprecedented number.[164]

In May 2008, Minister Jakrapob Penkair of the People's Power Party resigned due to a lese majeste charge against him for statements during the interview in Bangkok's Foreign Correspondents' Club of Thailand (FCCT) on 29 August 2007.[*citation needed*].

Academics have been investigated, imprisoned, and forced into exile for lèse majesté. In 2007, Assistant Professor Boonsong Chaisingkananon of Silpakorn University was the subject of a police investigation for asking students in an exam if the institution of the monarchy was necessary for Thai society and if it could be reformed to be consistent with the democratic system. The university handed in students' answer sheets and the professor's marks.[165] Prominent historian Somsak Jeamteerasakul was arrested for proposing an eight-point plan on the reform of the monarchy. Somsak claimed that he never proposed to overthrow the monarchy and never insulted Bhumibol personally.[166][167] Associate Professor Giles Ji Ungpakorn went into exile after his book, *A Coup for the Rich*, questioned Bhumibol's role in the 2006 coup.[168]

Australian Harry Nicolaides was arrested upon arriving in Thailand and sentenced for 3 years in jail for self-publishing the book *Verisimilitude*. The book, which sold a mere 7 copies, mentioned the "romantic entanglements and intrigues" of members of the royalty. Nicolaides was given a pardon after spending a month in jail and then deported.[169]

Jonathan Head, the head of the Bangkok bureau of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) was accused of lese majeste on numerous occasions, and eventually fled to Turkey. Among his alleged insults was authoring an article where he investigated whether Bhumibol or his advisers provided backing to People's Alliance for Democracy and allowing a picture of a politician to be placed above a picture of King Bhumibol on a BBC Web site.[170][171]

Australian foreign correspondent Eric Campbell and the entire Bangkok bureau of the Australian Broadcasting Corporation were banned from entering Thailand after they aired an investigation of Bhumibol's role in the military's violent 2010 crackdown on protesters. The report was broadcast only in Australia on the *Foreign Correspondent* series.

Amnesty International considers anyone jailed for insulting Bhumibol to be a political prisoner.[172]

Insults to Bhumibol's image

Acts deemed insulting to Bhumibol's image are also criminal offences in Thailand. In 2007, Oliver Jufer, a Swiss man, was sentenced to 10 years in jail for daubing black paint on portraits of Bhumibol while drunk.[173] The Thai press was requested not to publish any information about the case. "This is a delicate issue and we don't want the public to know much about it," noted chief prosecutor Manoon Moongpanchon.[174] The man originally pleaded innocent, but eventually pleaded guilty to five acts of lèse majesté. Foreign reporters were barred from the hearing.[175] Saprang Kalayanamitr publicly suspected that Jufer was hired to perform the vandalism and ordered a military investigation.[176] Jufer was pardoned by the king less than a month after his conviction and deported.

Suwicha Thakor was arrested and sentenced to 20 years in prison, later commuted to 10, for posting a picture on an internet web board that was deemed insulting to Bhumibol, in violating Article 112 of the Criminal Code and violating the Computer Crime Act of 2007. The CCA was passed by the military junta that followed 2006 coup; Suwicha's conviction was the first time that it had been successfully used to prosecute lèse majesté.[177][178]

Other insults to Bhumibol's image that have resulted in arrests for lèse majesté include placing photographs of anybody above photographs of the king on websites and not standing while the Royal Anthem is played at cinemas.[179][180]

Internet blocking measures

The government through the Office of Prevention and Suppression of Information Technology Crimes maintains a "war room" where about a dozen computer specialists monitor the content of the internet for pages which disparage the monarchy or pose a threat to national security. A web crawler is used to search widely. When an offending image or language is found the office obtains a court order blocking the site. As of 2011 70,000 pages had been blocked over a four-year period.[181] On 4 April 2007, the Thai government blocked Thai access to YouTube as a result of a video clip which it deemed insulting to the king.[182][183] Various leaders of the military junta claimed that the clip was an attempt to undermine the monarchy, attack Thailand as a country, and threaten national security.[184] On 28 October 2008, The Ministry of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) announced plans to spend about 100 million to 500 million baht to build a gateway to block websites with contents defaming the royal institution.[185] "More than 4,800 webpages have been blocked since March last year, an ICT official told AFP, notionally because they contain content deemed insulting to Thailand's deeply-revered royal family."[186]

On 29 April 2010, Wipas Raksakulthai was arrested following a post to his Facebook account allegedly insulting Bhumibol.[187] The arrest was reportedly the first lèse majesté charge against a Thai Facebook user.[188] In response, Amnesty International named Wipas Thailand's first prisoner of conscience in nearly three decades.[189]

Biographies

American journalist Paul Handley, who spent thirteen years in Thailand, wrote the biography *The King Never Smiles*. The Information and Communications Ministry banned the book and blocked the book's page on the Yale University Press website in January 2006. In a statement dated 19 January 2006, Thai National Police Chief General Kowit Wattana said the book has "contents which could affect national security and the good morality of the people."[190] The book provides a detailed discussion of Bhumibol's role in Thai political history and also analyzes the factors behind Bhumibol's popularity.

William Stevenson, who had access to the Royal Court and the Royal Family, wrote the biography *The Revolutionary King* in 2001.[191] An article in *Time* says the idea for the book was suggested by Bhumibol.[192] Critics noted that the book displays intimate knowledge about personal aspects of Bhumibol. However, the book has been unofficially banned in Thailand and the Bureau of the Royal Household warned the Thai media about even referring to it in print. An official ban was not possible as it was written with Bhumibol's blessing. The book has been criticised for factual inaccuracies, disrespecting Bhumibol (it refers to him by his personal nickname "Lek"), and proposing a controversial theory explaining the death of King Ananda. Stevenson said, "The king said from the beginning the book would be dangerous for him and for me."[192]

Succession to the throne

Bhumibol's only son, Prince Vajiralongkorn, was given the title "Somdej Phra Boroma Orasadhiraj Chao Fah Maha Vajiralongkorn Sayam Makutrajakuman" (Crown Prince of Siam) on 28 December 1972 and made heir apparent (**องค์รัชทายาท**) to the throne in accordance with the Palace Law on Succession of 1924.[193]



The King's royal cypher and personal flag.

On 5 December 1977, Princess Sirindhorn was given the title, "Siam Boromrajakumari" (Princess Royal of Siam). Her title is often translated by the English-language press as "Crown Princess", although her official English-language title is simply "Princess".[194]

Although the constitution was later amended to allow the Privy Council to appoint a princess as successor to the throne, this would only occur in the absence of an heir apparent. This amendment is retained in Section 23 of the 1997 "People's Constitution." This effectively allowed Princess Sirindhorn to potentially be second in line to the throne, but did not affect Prince Vajiralongkorn's status as heir apparent.

Recent constitutions of Thailand have made the amendment of the Palace Law of Succession the sole prerogative of the reigning king. According to Gothom Aryan, former election commissioner, this allows the reigning king, if he so chooses, to appoint his son or any of his daughters to the throne.[195]

Titles and styles

King Bhumibol Adulyadej's Thai full title is **"Phra Bat Somdet Phra Poramintharamaha Bhumibol Adulyadej Mahitalathibet Ramathibodi Chakkrinaruebodin Sayamminthrathirat Borommanatbophit"** (Thai: **พระบาทสมเด็จพระปรมินทรมหาภูมิพลอดุลยเดช มหิตลาธิเบศรรามาธิบดี จักรีนฤบดินทร สยามินทราธิราช บรมนาถบพิตร**; listen), which is referred to in the chief legal documents; and in general documents, the title is shorthened to *"Phra Bat Somdet Phra Poramintharamaha Bhumibol Adulyadej Sayamminthrathirat Borommanatbophit"* or just *"Phra Bat Somdet Phra Poramintharamaha Bhumibol Adulyadej."*

Monarchical styles of
King Bhumibol Adulyadej
Rama IX of Thailand



Reference style	His Royal Majesty
Spoken style	Your Royal Majesty
Alternative style	*Sir*

The literal translation of the title is as follows:[196]

- *Phra*—a third person pronoun referring to the person with much higher status than the speaker, meaning "excellent" in general. The word is from Sanskrit *vara* ("excellent").
- *Bat*—"foot," from Sanskrit *pāda.*
- *Somdet*—"lord," from Khmer "samdech" ("excellency").
- *Poraminthara*—"the great," from Sanskrit *parama* ("great") + *indra* ("leader")
- *Maha*—"great," from Sanskrit, "maha"
- *Bhumibol*—"Strength of the Land," from Sanskrit *bhumi* ("land") +*bala* ("strength")
- *Adulyadej*—"Incomparable power," from Sanskrit *atulya* ("incomparable") +*teja* ("power")
- *Mahitalathibet*—"Son of Mahidol"
- *Ramathibodi*—"Rama, the Avatar of God Vishnu to become the great ruler"; from Sanskrit *rama* + *adhi* ("great") + *patī* ("president")
- *Chakkrinaruebodin*—"Leader of the People who is from the House of Chakri", from Sanskrit *Cakrī* + *nari* ("men") + *patī* ("president")
- *Sayamminthrathirat*—"the Great King of Siam," from Sanskrit *Siam* (former name of Thailand) + *indra* + *ati* ("great") + *rāja* ("king)
- *Borommanatbophit*— "the Royalty who is the Great Shelter", from Sanskrit *parama* ("great") + *nādha* ("the one who others can depend on" or "Power/Right") + "pavitra" ("royalty")

Ancestors

See also

- Monarchy of Thailand
- Golden Jubilee Diamond, the largest faceted diamond in the world, was presented to Bhumibol Adulyadej on the 50th anniversary of his coronation.
- Constitutions of Thailand, describing the evolution of Bhumibol's constitutional rights and responsibilities.
- History of Thailand (1932-1973)
- History of Thailand since 1973
- Public Holidays in Thailand
- Thai royal and noble titles
- List of longest reigning monarchs of all time
- Royal Flags of Thailand

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External links

- The Sixtieth Anniversary Celebrations of His Majesty's Accession to the Throne (http://www.navy.mi.th/sctr/royal_barge_60/eng/) – official website for the Diamond Jubilee
- A Visionary Monarch (http://www.bangkokpost.com/king2000/) – provides a lot of insights on his visions and contributions to the country.
- Songs composed by Bhumibol (http://kanchanapisek.or.th/royal-music/index.en.html)
- The Golden Jubilee Network (http://kanchanapisek.or.th/index.en.html) – has many subjects on Bhumibol, including his projects, speeches, and his royal new year card.
- Supreme Artist (http://www.supremeartist.org) – see works of art created by Bhumibol.
- The King's Birthplace (http://www.thailink.com/king.htm)
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Bhumibol Adulyadej **House of Chakri** **Born:** 5 December 1927		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Ananda Mahidol**	**King of Thailand** 1946–present	**Incumbent** *Heir:* *Maha Vajiralongkorn*

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Chakri Dynasty

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Chakri Dynasty** (also known as the **House of Chakri**) (Thai: ราชวงศ์จักรี: Rajawongse Chakri) is the current ruling royal house of the Kingdom of Thailand, the Head of the house is the King of Thailand. The dynasty has ruled Thailand since the founding of the Ratthanakosin era and the city of Bangkok in 1782 following the end of King Taksin of Thonburi's reign, when the capital of Siam shifted to Bangkok. The Royal house was founded by King Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke an Ayutthayan military leader.

Prior to the founding of the dynasty, King Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke (Rama I), held the title of **Chao Pharaya Chakri** for over ten years. This title was held by the greatest warlords of Ayuthaya and was meant to reflect the prowess of the holder on the battlefield. In the founding of the dynasty King Rama I himself chose both name and emblem for the dynasty. The Chakri which provides both name and emblem to the house of Chakri, is composed of the discus (Chakra) and the trident (Trisula, sometimes shortened to "Tri" in Thai language), the celestial weapon of the God Narayana (an Avatar of Vishnu) of whom the Siamese king is seen as a personification. The coined name Chakri thus denotes the transcending force of divine strength and stability upon the physical realm. The current Head of the Dynasty is King Bhumibol Adulyadej since 1946, the Heir Apparent to the headship is Crown Prince Maha Vajiralongkorn. The House's dynastic seat is the Grand Palace in Bangkok.

Chakri Dynasty



Country	Kingdom of Thailand
Titles	King of Siam (1782-1949) King of Thailand (1949-Present)
Founder	Rama I
Current head	Rama IX
Founding	1782

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Royal Family of Thailand

The present Royal Family of Thailand is descended from HRH Prince Mahidol Adulyadej of Songkla (1898–1929) and Srinagarindra (later Princess Mother) (1900–1995) forming the **House of Mahidol** (ราชสกุลมหิดล) (a cadet branch of the Dynasty). The Prince was a son of King Chulalongkorn the Great and his wife Queen Consort Savang Vadhana. The Prince was also the half-brother of both King Vajiravudh and King Prajadhipok. After the death of King Ananda Mahidol (Prince Mahidol's elder son), the present monarch, King Bhumibol Adulyadej (the Prince's younger son) ascended the throne in 1946. In 1949 the King married his first cousin once removed, Mom Rajawongse Sirikit Kitiyakara (a daughter of Mom Chao Nakkhatra Mangkala Kitiyakara, a grandson of King Chulalongkorn).



Photograph of Prince Mahidol Adulyadej and Mom Sangwal (later the Princess Mother).



The Chakri Mahaprasat, inside the Grand Palace in Bangkok, the Dynastic seat and official residence of the Chakri Monarchs.

Members

This is a list of current members of the Royal Family:

- HM The King
- HM The Queen (his consort)

- Princess Ubolratana Rajakanya (the King's eldest daughter)
- TRH The Crown Prince Maha Vajiralongkorn and Princess Srirasmi (the King's eldest son and his consort)
  - HRH Princess Bajrakitiyabha (the Crown Prince's eldest daughter)
  - HRH Princess Siriwannawari Nariratana (the Crown Prince's younger daughter)
  - HRH Prince Dipangkorn Rasmijoti (the Crown Prince's youngest son)
- HRH Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn (the King's second eldest daughter)
- HRH Princess Chulabhorn Walailak (the King's youngest daughter)
  - HRH Princess Siribhachudhabhorn (Princess Chulabhorn's eldest daughter)
  - HRH Princess Adityadhornkitikhun (Princess Chulabhorn's younger daughter)

Other Members

- HRH Princess Soamsavali (the Crown Prince's former consort and mother of Princess Bajrakitiyabha)
- Khun Ploypailin Jensen (Princess Ubolratana's elder daughter)
- Khun Sirikitiya Jensen (Princess Ubolratana's younger daughter)
- Thanpuying Dhasanawalaya Sornsongkram (the King's niece, daughter of the late Princess Galyani Vadhana)

Recently deceased members

- HRH Princess Bejaratana Rajasuda, the King's cousin (the only daughter of King Vajiravudh) (2011)
- HRH Princess Galyani Vadhana, the Princess of Naradhiwas (the King's elder sister) (2008)
- Khun Bhumi Jensen (Princess Ubolratana's son) (2004)
- HRH Princess Srinagarindra, the Princess Mother (the King's mother, also mother of King Rama VIII) (1995)

List of Chakri Kings



King Buddha Yodfa Chulaloke, founder of the Chakri Dynasty.

Reign	Monarch	Reign Starts	Reign ends
First Reign	**Buddha Yodfa Chulalok the Great** (Rama I) พระบาทสมเด็จพระพุทธยอดฟ้าจุฬาโลกมหาราช	6 April 1782	7 September 1809
Second Reign	**Buddha Loetla Nabhalai** (Rama II) พระบาทสมเด็จพระพุทธเลิศหล้านภาลัย	7 September 1809	21 July 1824
Third Reign	**Jessadabodindra** (Rama III) พระบาทสมเด็จพระนั่งเกล้าเจ้าอยู่หัว	21 July 1824	2 April 1851
Fourth Reign	**Mongkut** (Rama IV) พระบาทสมเด็จพระจอมเกล้าเจ้าอยู่หัว	3 April 1851	1 October 1868

Fifth Reign	**Chulalongkorn the Great** (Rama V) **พระบาทสมเด็จพระจุลจอมเกล้าเจ้าอยู่หัว "พระปิยมหาราช"**	2 October 1868	23 October 1910
Sixth Reign	**Vajiravudh** (Rama VI) **พระบาทสมเด็จพระมงกุฎเกล้าเจ้าอยู่หัว**	23 October 1910	26 November 1925
Seventh Reign	**Prajadhipok** (Rama VII) **พระบาทสมเด็จพระปกเกล้าเจ้าอยู่หัว**	26 November 1925	2 March 1935
Eight Reign	**Ananda Mahidol** (Rama VIII) **พระบาทสมเด็จพระปรเมนทรมหาอานันทมหิดล พระอัฐมรามาธิบดินทร**	2 March 1935	9 June 1946
Ninth Reign	**Bhumibol Adulyadej the Great** (Rama IX) **พระบาทสมเด็จพระปรมินทรมหาภูมิพลอดุลยเดชมหาราช**	9 June 1946	*Present*

Vice-Kings

Main article: Front Palace

The **Vice-King of Siam** or the **Krom Phrarajawang Bavorn Sathan Mongkol** (**กรมพระราชวังบวรสถานมงคล**) was an office created during the Ayutthaya period. Until 1885 every Chakri king had a vice-king or (Maha Uparaja (**มหาอุปราช**), also often translated as *Second King*) who lived in the Front Palace (**วังหน้า**) (a palace complex to the north of the Grand Palace, now the site of the National Museum). Usually the younger brother of the monarch, the vice-king was designated heir to the throne, however only Prince Isarasundhorn was able to ascend the throne as King Buddha Loetla Nabhalai. The office was extremely prestigious and carried with it almost equal status to the king, this can be seen in Prince Chutamani (younger brother of King Mongkut), who was elevated to King Pinklao in 1851 (he carried with him the styles and titles of a King). The system was abolished by King Chulalongkorn when his vice-king and cousin Prince Bovorn Vichaicharn died. He then declared his oldest son the Crown Prince of Siam, but not vice-king.

List of Chakri Vice-Kings

Monarch	**Vice King**	**Reign Starts**	**Reign ends**
First Reign	Prince **Maha Sura Singhanat** **สมเด็จพระบวรราชเจ้ามหาสุรสิงหนาท**	1782	1802
First Reign	Prince **Isarasundhorn** (Rama II)	1806	1809
Second Reign	Prince **Maha Senanurak** **สมเด็จพระบวรราชเจ้ามหาเสนานุรักษ์**	1809	1817

Third Reign	Prince **Maha Sakdi Polsep** **สมเด็จพระบวรราชเจ้ามหาศักดิ์พลเสพ**	1824	1832
Fourth Reign	King **Pinklao** **พระบาทสมเด็จพระปิ่นเกล้าเจ้าอยู่หัว**	1851	1866
Fifth Reign	Prince **Bovorn Vichaichan** **กรมพระราชวังบวรวิไชยชาญ**	1868	1885

Deputy vice king

Krom Phrarajawang Boworn Sathan Phimuk (**กรมพระราชวังบวรสถานพิมุข**) or the **Rear Palace**, was another office inherited from the Kingdom of Ayutthaya. However since the founding of the dynasty there has only been one rear palace. Prince Anurak Devesh was the nephew of King Buddha Yodfa Chualoke (his mother Princess Thepsuthavadi was the king's elder sister) was appointed to the office in 1785.

Monarch	Deputy Vice King	Reign Starts	Reign ends
First Reign	Prince Anurak Devesh **สมเด็จเจ้าฟ้ากรมพระอนุรักษ์เทเวศร์ กรมพระราชวังบวรสถานพิมุข**	1785	1806

Crown Princes

Main article: Crown Prince of Thailand

The **Crown Prince of Thailand** or **Sayam Makutrajakuman** (**สยามมกุฎราชกุมาร**) is the designated and heir apparent to the throne and headship of the dynasty. The title was created in 1886 when King Chulalongkorn appointed his eldest son by Princess Consort Savang Vadhana, Prince Vajirunhis as Sayam Makutrajakuman. The title was copied directly from the Western tradition. Since then, there has only been three crown princes. The present crown prince is HRH Prince Maha Vajiralongkorn who was invested with the title in 1972. The succession is governed by the 1924 Palace Law of Succession passed by King Vajiravudh.

List of Crown Princes

Monarch	Crown Prince	Tenure Starts	Tenure ends
Fifth Reign	Crown Prince **Maha Vajirunhis** **สมเด็จพระบรมโอรสาธิราช เจ้าฟ้ามหาวชิรุณหิศ สยามมกุฎราชกุมาร**	1886	1895 (died before he could succeed)
Fifth Reign	Crown Prince **Maha Vajiravudh** (later King Rama VI) **สมเด็จพระบรมโอรสาธิราช เจ้าฟ้ามหาวชิราวุธ สยามมกุฎราชกุมาร (รัชกาลที่ 6)**	1895	1910

Ninth Reign	Crown Prince **Maha Vajiralongkorn สมเด็จพระบรมโอรสาธิราช เจ้าฟ้ามหาวชิราลงกรณ สยามมกุฎราชกุมาร**	1972	*Present*

Regents

The **Regent of Thailand** (ผู้สำเร็จราชการแทนพระองค์) as stated in the Constitution of Thailand is appointed either by the monarch himself or by the Privy Council of Thailand, the appointment must be countersigned by the President of the National Assembly of Thailand. The circumstances for appointment of a regent in the constitution is unclear it states that a regent can be appointed : *"Whenever the king is absent from the kingdom or unable to perform His functions for any reason whatsoever"* (Chapter 2, Section 18). So far a regent has only been appointed when the monarch has been in minority, when the monarch takes a foreign trip and when the monarch enters the Sangha as a monk. A regent can be both a commoner or a member of the royal family depending on the circumstances.

List of Regents

During the **Fifith Reign** (Chulalongkorn)

- Somdet Chao Phraya Si Suriyawongse (1868–1873): until King Chulalongkorn reached his majority (20 years old)
- Queen Regent Saovabha (1897): while King Chulalongkorn traveled to Europe in his First Grand Tour in 1897
- Crown Prince Maha Vajiravudh (1907): while King Chulalongkorn traveled to Europe in his Second Grand Tour in 1907

During the **Seventh Reign** (Prajadhipok)

- Prince Narisaranuwadtiwongse (1934–1935): When the king left Siam for medical treatment in Europe

During the **Eighth Reign** (Ananda Mahidol): While the king was a minor and in Switzerland, a Regency Council of three was established, it was composed of:

- Prince Oscar Anuvatana (1935)
- Prince Athitaya Dibhabha (1935–1944)
- Chao Phraya Yomarath (Pan Sukhum) (1935–1938)
  - General Chao Phraya Phit Yenthornyothin (Um Inthornyothin) (August 1935- 1942): appointed to replace Prince Oscar after his death, he himself later died in office (was then not replaced).
  - Dr. Pridi Banomyong (1941–1946): appointed to replace Chao Phraya Yomarath, after the resignation of Prince Athitaya became the sole regent, until the return of the king in 1946.

During the **Ninth Reign** (present):Before the King's coronation, a regency council composed entirely of the privy council was appointed as regent:

- Prince Rangsit Prayurasakdi, Prince of Chainat, President of the Council (1946)
  - Prince Dhanivat Bidyalabh Bridhyakon (1946)
  - Prince Alongkorn Adireksorn Udomsakdi (1946)
  - Phraya Manovaratsevi (Phlod na Songkhla) (1946)
  - Police General Adul Adulyadejchrat (1946)
- Prince Dhanivat Bidyalabh Bridhyakon (1946–1950): until King Bhumibol Adulyadej finished his studies

in Switzerland.
- Queen Regent Sirikit Kitiyakara (1956): while the king was a Buddhist monk.
- Princess Mother Srinagarindra (1960): while King Bhumibol Adulyadej and Queen Sirikit traveled on a world tour.

See also

- Monarchy of Thailand
- List of Kings of Thailand
- List of Thai consorts
- Rattanakosin era
- 1924 Palace Law on Succession
- Rama (King of Thailand)
- Order of the Royal House of Chakri
- Privy Council of Thailand

External links

- The illustrious Chakri family (http://www.mahidol.ac.th/thailand/chakri.html)
- History of the Vice-Kings (http://www.thaifolk.com/doc/wangnan_e.htm)
- The Royal Family Information (http://www.soravij.com/rama9.html)

— Royal house — **Chakri Dynasty** Founding year: 1782		
Preceded by **Thonburi Kingdom**	**Ruling Dynasty of the Kingdom of Thailand (Siam)** 6 April 1782 – present	Succeeded by **Incumbent**

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Categories: Chakri Dynasty | 1782 establishments

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Tonga

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Tonga, officially the **Kingdom of Tonga** (Tongan: *Pule'anga Fakatu'i 'o Tonga*), is a sovereign state and an archipelago in the South Pacific Ocean, comprising 176 islands scattered over 700,000 square kilometres (270,000 sq mi) of ocean in the South Pacific. Fifty-two of the islands are inhabited.[4]

The Kingdom stretches over a distance of about 800 kilometres (500 mi) in a north-south line located at about a third of the distance from New Zealand to Hawaii.

Tonga also became known as the **Friendly Islands** because of the friendly reception accorded to Captain James Cook on his first visit there in 1773. He happened to arrive at the time of the *'inasi* festival, the yearly donation of the first fruits to the Tu'i Tonga, the islands' paramount chief, and received an invitation to the festivities. According to the writer William Mariner, in reality the chiefs had wanted to kill Cook during the gathering, but could not agree on a plan.[5]

Tonga is also the only island nation in the region to have avoided formal colonisation.[6] In 2010, Tonga took a decisive step towards becoming a fully functioning constitutional monarchy after legislative reforms paved the way for its first ever fully representative elections which resulted in the election of Noble Siale'ataongo Tu'ivakanō as its first democratically elected Prime Minister.

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Etymology

In many Polynesian languages, Tongan included, the word *tonga* means

Kingdom of Tonga
Pule'anga Fakatu'i 'o Tonga



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: *Ko e 'Otua mo Tonga ko hoku tofi'a*
God and Tonga are my Inheritance

Anthem: *Ko e fasi 'o e tu'i 'o e 'Otu Tonga*
The Song of the King of the Tongan Islands



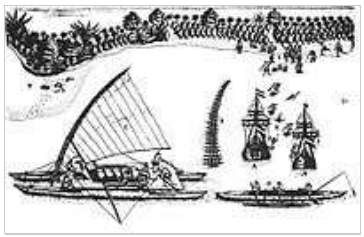
Capital (and largest city)	Nuku'alofa 21°08′S 175°12′W
Official language(s)	English Tongan
Demonym	Tongan
Government	Unitary parliamentary constitutional monarchy
- King	'Aho'eitu 'Unuaki'otonga Tuku'aho
- Prime Minister	Siale'ataongo Tu'ivakanō
Independence	
- from British protection	June 4, 1970
Area	
- Total	748 km^2 (186th) 289 sq mi
- Water (%)	4.0
Population	
- 2011 census	103,036[1]

"south", as the archipelago is the southernmost group of islands of central Polynesia. The name is pronounced as ['toŋa].[7] The pronunciation /'tɒŋgə/, popular in American English,[*citation needed*] is incorrect. The name of *Tonga* is cognate to the Hawaiian region of *Kona*.

History

Main article: History of Tonga

An Austronesian-speaking group linked to the archaeological construct known as the Lapita cultural complex reached and colonised Tonga around 1500–1000 BCE.[8] Scholars continue to debate the exact dates of the initial settlement of Tonga. Not much is known about Tonga before European contact because of the lack of a writing system. However, oral history has survived and been recorded after the arrival of the Europeans. The Tongan people first encountered Europeans in 1616 when the Dutch vessel *Eendracht* made a short visit to the islands to trade.



Arrival of Abel Tasman in Tongatapu, 1643, drawing by Isaack Gilsemans

By the 12th century Tongans, and the Tongan paramount chief, the Tuʻi Tonga, had a reputation across the central Pacific – from Niue, Samoa, Rotuma, Wallis & Futuna, New Caledonia to Tikopia – leading some historians to speak of a 'Tongan Empire'. In the 15th century and again in the 17th, civil war erupted. Into this situation the first European explorers arrived, beginning in 1616 with the Dutch explorers Willem Schouten and Jacob Le Maire (who called on the northern island of Niuatoputapu), and in 1643 with Abel Tasman (who visited Tongatapu and Haʻapai). Later noteworthy European visitors included James Cook (British Navy) in 1773, 1774, and 1777, Alessandro Malaspina (Spanish Navy) in 1793, the first London missionaries in 1797, and the Wesleyan Methodist Rev. Walter Lawry in 1822.

- Density	139/km^2 (76th[1]) 360/sq mi
GDP (PPP) - Total - Per capita	2008 estimate $728 million[2] (206th) $7,060[2] (133rd)
GDP (nominal) - Total - Per capita	2009 estimate $313 million[2] $3,032[2]
HDI (2010)	▲0.677[3] (high) (85th)
Currency	Paʻanga (TOP)
Time zone - Summer (DST)	(UTC+13) (UTC+13) *not observed*
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	TO
Internet TLD	.to
Calling code	676

1 Based on 2005 figures.

In 1845 the ambitious young warrior, strategist, and orator Tāufaʻāhau united Tonga into a kingdom. He held the chiefly title of Tuʻi Kanokupolu, but had been baptised with the name *Jiaoji* ("George") in 1831. In 1875, with the help of missionary Shirley Waldemar Baker, he declared Tonga a constitutional monarchy, formally adopted the western royal style, emancipated the "serfs", enshrined a code of law, land tenure, and freedom of the press, and limited the power of the chiefs.

Tonga became a British-protected state under a Treaty of Friendship on 18 May 1900, when European settlers and rival Tongan chiefs tried to oust the second king. Within the British Empire, which posted no higher permanent representative on Tonga than a British Consul (1901–1970), Tonga formed part of the British Western Pacific Territories (under a colonial High Commissioner, residing on Fiji) from 1901 until 1952. Although under the protection of Britain, Tonga remained the only Pacific nation never to have given up its monarchical government – as did Tahiti and Hawaiʻi. The Tongan monarchy follows an uninterrupted succession of hereditary rulers from one family. In 1918 the influenza epidemic that spread through the world caused the deaths of 1,800 people in Tonga, approximately 8% of the population.[9]

The Treaty of Friendship and Tonga's protectorate status ended in 1970 under arrangements established by Queen Salote Tupou III prior to her death in 1965. Tonga joined the Commonwealth of Nations in 1970 (atypically as an autochthonous monarchy, that is one with its own local monarch rather than that of the United Kingdom – compare Malaysia, Lesotho, and Swaziland), and became a member of the United Nations in September 1999. While exposed to colonial pressures, Tonga has never lost indigenous governance, a fact that makes Tonga unique in the Pacific and gives Tongans much pride, as well as confidence in their monarchical system. As part of cost cutting measures across the British Foreign Service, the British Government closed the British High Commission in Nukuʻalofa in March 2006, transferring representation of British interests in Tonga to the UK High Commissioner in Fiji. The last resident British High Commissioner was Paul Nessling.[10]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Tonga

Administratively Tonga sub-divides into five divisions: 'Eua, Ha'apai, Niuas, Tongatapu, and Vava'u.[11][12]



Nuku Island Vava'u

Climate

Tonga has a tropical climate with only two seasons, summer and winter. Most rain falls around February and April. The tropical cyclone season lasts from November to April.

Climate data for Nuku'alofa, Tonga													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Record high °C (°F)	32 (90)	32 (90)	31 (88)	30 (86)	30 (86)	28 (82)	28 (82)	28 (82)	28 (82)	29 (84)	30 (86)	31 (88)	32 (90)
Average high °C (°F)	28 (82)	29 (84)	28 (82)	27 (81)	26 (79)	25 (77)	25 (77)	24 (75)	25 (77)	25 (77)	27 (81)	27 (81)	26 (79)
Daily mean °C (°F)	25 (77)	25 (77)	25 (77)	24 (75)	23 (73)	21 (70)	21 (70)	21 (70)	21 (70)	22 (72)	23 (73)	23 (73)	23 (73)
Average low °C (°F)	22 (72)	22 (72)	22 (72)	21 (70)	20 (68)	18 (64)	17 (63)	18 (64)	17 (63)	19 (66)	20 (68)	20 (68)	20 (68)
Record low °C (°F)	16 (61)	17 (63)	15 (59)	15 (59)	13 (55)	11 (52)	10 (50)	11 (52)	11 (52)	12 (54)	13 (55)	16 (61)	10 (50)
Precipitation mm (inches)	130 (5.12)	190 (7.48)	210 (8.27)	120 (4.72)	130 (5.12)	100 (3.94)	100 (3.94)	130 (5.12)	110 (4.33)	90 (3.54)	100 (3.94)	120 (4.72)	1,610 (63.39)
Source: Weatherbase [13]													

Politics

Main article: Politics of Tonga

Tonga operates as a constitutional monarchy. Reverence for the monarch replaces that held in earlier centuries for the sacred paramount chief, the Tuʻi Tonga. Criticism of the monarch is held to be contrary to Tongan culture and etiquette. A direct descendant of the first monarch, King George Tupou VI, his family, some powerful nobles, and a growing non-royal elite caste live in much wealth, with the rest of the country living in relative poverty. The effects of this disparity are mitigated by three factors: education, medicine, and land tenure.

Tonga provides for its citizens:

- free and mandatory education for all
- secondary education with only nominal fees
- and foreign-funded scholarships for post-secondary education



Tāufaʻāhau, King of Tonga (1845–1893).

Tongans enjoy a relatively high level of education, with a 98.9% literacy rate,[14] and higher education up to and including medical and graduate degrees (pursued mostly overseas).

Tongans also have universal access to a national health care system. The Tongan constitution protects land ownership: land cannot be sold to foreigners (although it may be leased). While there is a land shortage on the urbanized main island of Tongatapu (where 70% of the population resides), there is farm land available in the outlying islands. The majority of the population engages in some form of subsistence production of food, with approximately half producing almost all of their basic food needs through farming, sea harvesting, and animal husbandry. Women and men have equal access to education and health care, and are fairly equal in employment, but women are discriminated against in land holding, electoral politics, and

government ministries. However, in Tongan tradition women enjoy a higher social status than men[*citation needed*], a cultural trait that is unique among the insular societies of the Pacific.

The pro-democracy movement in Tonga promotes reforms, including better representation in the Parliament for the majority commoners, and better accountability in matters of state. An overthrow of the monarchy itself is not part of the movement and the institution of monarchy continues to hold popular support, even while reforms are advocated. Until recently, the governance issue was generally ignored by the leaders of other countries, but major aid donors and neighbours New Zealand and Australia are now expressing concerns about some Tongan government actions.

Following the precedents of Queen Sālote and the counsel of numerous international advisors, the government of Tonga under King Tāufaʻāhau Tupou IV (reigned 1965–2006) monetized the economy, internationalized the medical and education system, and enabled access by commoners to increasing forms of material wealth (houses, cars, and other commodities), education, and overseas travel. The government has supported Olympic and other international sports competition.

The Tongan government supported the American "coalition of the willing" action in Iraq, and a small number of Tongan soldiers were deployed, as part of an American force, to Iraq in late 2004. However, the contingent of 40+ troops returned home on 17 December 2004.[15] In 2007, a second contingent was sent to Iraq while two more were sent during 2008 to be part of Tonga's continuous support for the coalition. This Tongan involvement was finally concluded at the end of 2008 with no loss of Tongan life reported.

In 2010, Tongan Brigadier General Tau'aika 'Uta'atu, Commander of the Tonga Defence Services, signed an agreement in London committing a minimum of 200 Tongan troops to cooperate with Britain's International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan.[16]

Tonga has also contributed troops and police to the Bougainville conflict and the Australian led RAMSI force in the Solomon Islands.

The previous king, Tāufaʻāhau Tupou IV and his government made some problematic economic decisions and were accused of wasting millions of dollars in poor investments.[17] The problems have mostly been driven by attempts to increase national revenue through a variety of schemes, considering making Tonga a nuclear waste disposal site (an idea floated in the mid-90s by the current crown prince);[18] selling Tongan Protected Persons Passports (which eventually forced Tonga to naturalize the purchasers, sparking ethnicity-based concerns within Tonga);[19] registering foreign ships (which proved to be engaged in illegal activities, including shipments for al-Qaeda);[20] claiming geo-orbital satellite slots (the revenue from which seems to belong to the Princess Royal, not the state);[21] holding a long-term charter on an unusable Boeing 757 that was sidelined in Auckland Airport, leading to the collapse of Royal Tongan Airlines;[22] building an airport hotel and potential casino with an Interpol-accused criminal;[*citation needed*] and approving a factory for exporting cigarettes to China (against the advice of Tongan medical officials, and decades of health promotion messaging).[23]

The king proved vulnerable to speculators with big promises and lost several million (reportedly 26 million USD) to Jesse Bogdonoff, a financial adviser who called himself the king's Court Jester.[17] The police have imprisoned pro-democracy leaders, and the government repeatedly confiscated the newspaper *The Tongan Times* (which was printed in New Zealand and sold in Tonga) because the editor had been vocally critical of the king's mistakes.[24] Notably, the *Keleʻa*, produced specifically to critique the government and printed in Tonga by pro-democracy leader ʻAkilisi Pōhiva, was not banned during that time. Pōhiva, however, had been subjected to harassment in the form of frequent lawsuits.[25]

In mid-2003 the government passed a radical constitutional amendment to "Tonganize" the press, by licensing and limiting freedom of the press, so as to protect the image of the monarchy. The amendment was defended by the government and by royalists on the basis of traditional cultural values. Licensure criteria include 80% ownership by Tongans living in the country. As of February 2004, those papers denied licenses under the new act included the *Taimi ʻo Tonga* (*Tongan Times*), the *Keleʻa* and the *Matangi Tonga*, while those which were permitted licenses were uniformly church-based or pro-government.

The bill was opposed in the form of a several-thousand-strong protest march in the capital, a call by the Tuʻi Pelehake (a prince, nephew of the king and elected member of parliament) for Australia and other nations to pressure the Tongan government to democratize the electoral system, and a legal writ calling for a judicial investigation of the bill. The latter was supported by some 160 signatures, including seven of the nine elected "People's Representatives".

The former Crown Prince and current monarch, Tupoutoʻa, and Pilolevu, the Princess Royal, remained generally silent on the issue. In total, the changes threatened to destabilize the polity, fragment support for the status quo, and place further pressure on the monarchy.


The Royal palace of Tonga.

In 2005 the government spent several weeks negotiating with striking civil-service workers before reaching a settlement. The civil unrest that ensued was not limited to just Tonga; protests outside the king's New Zealand residence made headlines, too. A constitutional commission is currently (2005–06) studying proposals to update the constitution.[26]

Prime Minister Prince ʻAhoʻeitu ʻUnuakiʻotonga Tukuʻaho (Lavaka Ata ʻUlukālala) resigned suddenly on February 11, 2006, and also gave up his other cabinet portfolios. The elected Minister of Labour, Dr Feleti Sevele, replaced him in the interim.

On July 5, 2006 a driver in Menlo Park, California caused the deaths of Prince Tu'ipelehake ʻUluvalu, his wife, and their driver. Tu'ipelehake, 55, was the co-chairman of the constitutional reform commission, and a nephew of the King.

The Tongan public expected some changes when Siaosi Tupou V (later King George Tupou V) succeeded his father in September 2006. On November 16, 2006, rioting broke out in the capital city of Nuku'alofa when it seemed that the parliament would adjourn for the year without having made any advances in increasing democracy in government. Pro-democracy activists burned and looted shops, offices, and government buildings. As a result, more than 60% of the downtown area was destroyed, and as many as 6 people died.[27]

On July 29, 2008 the Palace announced that King George Tupou V would relinquish much of his power and would surrender his role in day-to-day governmental affairs to the Prime Minister. The royal chamberlain said that this was being done to prepare the monarchy for 2010, when most of the first parliament will be elected, and added: "The Sovereign of the only Polynesian kingdom... is voluntarily surrendering his powers to meet the democratic aspirations of many of his people." The previous week, the government said the king had completed the sale of his ownership of state assets which had contributed to much of the royal family's wealth.[28]

On March 15, 2012, King George Tupou V contracted pneumonia and was hospitalized at Queen Mary Hospital in Hong Kong. He was later diagnosed with leukemia. His health deteriorated significantly sortly thereafter, and he died at 3:15 p.m. on March 18, 2012. [29]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Tonga

Tonga's economy is characterized by a large non-monetary sector and a heavy dependence on remittances from the half of the country's population which lives abroad (chiefly in Australia, New Zealand, and the United States). The royal family and the nobles dominate and largely own the monetary sector of the economy - particularly the telecommunications and satellite services. Tonga was named the sixth most corrupt country in the world by Forbes magazine in 2008.[30]



A Tongan one cent (seniti taha) coin

Tonga was ranked the 165th safest investment destination in the world in the March 2011 Euromoney Country Risk rankings.[31]

The manufacturing sector consists of handicrafts and a few other very small scale industries, all of which contribute only about 3% of GDP. Commercial business activities also are inconspicuous and, to a large extent, are dominated by the same large trading companies found throughout the South Pacific. In September 1974, the country's first commercial trading bank, the Bank of Tonga, opened. There are no patent laws in Tonga.[32]

Rural Tongans rely on plantation and subsistence agriculture. Coconuts, vanilla beans, bananas, coffee beans and root crops

such as yams, taro and cassava, are the major cash crops. The processing of coconuts into copra and desiccated (dried) coconut was once the only significant industry but deteriorating prices on the world market has brought this once vibrant industry, as everywhere throughout the island nations of the south Pacific, to a complete standstill. In addition, the feudal land ownership system meant that farmers had no incentive to invest in planting long-term tree crops on land they did not own. Pigs and poultry are the major types of livestock. Horses are kept for draft purposes, primarily by farmers working their 'api 'uta (a plot of bushland). More cattle are being raised, and beef imports are declining. The export of squash to Japan once brought relief to a struggling economy but recently local farmers are increasingly wary of this market due to price fluctuations, not to mention the huge financial risks involved.[33]

Tonga's development plans emphasize a growing private sector, upgrading agricultural productivity, revitalizing the squash and vanilla bean industries, developing tourism, and improving the island's communications and transportation systems. Substantial progress has been made, but much work remains to be done. A small but growing construction sector is developing in response to the inflow of aid monies and remittances from Tongans abroad. In recognition of such a crucial contribution the present Tongan government has created a new department within the Prime Minister's Office with the sole purpose of catering for the needs of Tongans living abroad. Furthermore, in 2007 the Tongan Parliament amended citizenship laws to allow Tongans to hold dual citizenship.[34]

The tourist industry is relatively undeveloped; however, the government recognizes that tourism can play a major role in economic development, and efforts are being made to increase this source of revenue. Cruise ships often stop in Vavaʻu, a place that has a reputation for its whale watching, game fishing, surfing, beaches and is increasingly becoming a major player in the South Pacific tourism market.[35]

Tonga's postage stamps, which feature colorful and often unusual designs (including heart-shaped and banana-shaped stamps) are popular with philatelists around the world.[36]

In 2005 the country became eligible to become a member of the World Trade Organization. After an initial voluntary delay, Tonga became a full member of the WTO on July 27, 2007.

The Tonga Chamber of Commerce and Industry (TCCI), incorporated in 1996, endeavours to represent the interests of its members, private sector businesses, and to promote economic growth in the Kingdom.

Energy

Tonga has begun implementing tailor-made policies to power its remote islands in a sustainable way – without turning to expensive grid-extensions. A number of islands within the Kingdom of Tonga lack a basic electricity supply. A supply entirely coming from imported diesel. Also, in 2009, 19% of Tonga's GDP and 25% of its imports consisted of diesel purchases.

In view of the decreasing reliability of fossil-fuel electricity generation, its increasing costs and negative environmental side-effects, renewable energy solutions have attracted the government’s attention. Together with IRENA, Tonga has charted out a renewable energy based strategy to power the main and outer islands alike. The strategy focuses on Solar Home Systems that turn individual households into small power plants. In addition, it calls for the involvement of local operators, finance institutions and technicians to provide sustainable business models as well as strategies to ensure the effective operation, management and maintenance once the systems are installed.[37]

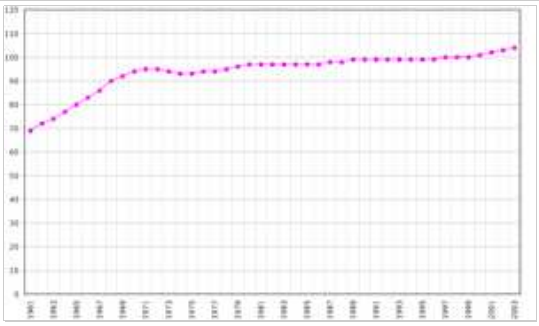
With the assistance of IRENA, Tonga has developed the 2010–2020 Tonga Energy Road Map (TERM), which aims for a 50% reduction of diesel importation. This will be accomplished through a range of appropriate renewable technologies, including wind and solar, as well as innovative efficiencies.[38]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Tonga

Over 70% of the 101,991 inhabitants of the Kingdom of Tonga live on its main island, Tongatapu. Although an increasing number of Tongans have moved into the only urban and commercial centre, Nukuʻalofa, where European and indigenous cultural and living patterns have blended, village life and kinship ties remain influential throughout the country. Despite emigration, the Tonga grew in population from about 32,000 in the 1930s to more than 90,000 by 1976.[39]

According to the government portal, Tongans, Polynesian by ethnicity with a very small mixture of Melanesian, represent more than 98% of the inhabitants. 1.5% are mixed Tongans and the rest are European (the majority are British), mixed European, and other Pacific Islanders. According to a New Zealand paper in 2001 there were approximately 3,000 or 4,000 Chinese in Tonga, thus comprising 3 or 4% of the total Tongan population.[40] In 2006, Nukuʻalofa riots mainly targeted Chinese-owned businesses, leading to the emigration of several hundred Chinese.[41] so that only about 300 remain.



Demographics of Tonga, data of FAO, year 2005; number of inhabitants in thousands

Primary education between ages 6 and 14 is compulsory and free in state schools. Mission schools provide about 8% of the primary and 90% of the secondary level of education. State schools make up for the rest. Higher education includes teacher training, nursing and medical training, a small private university, a woman's business college, and a number of private agricultural schools. Most higher education is pursued overseas.

The Tongan language is the official language of the islands, along with English. Tongan, a Polynesian language is closely related to Wallisian (Uvean), Niuean, Hawaiian, and Samoan.

Ninety percent of the nation's population are considered overweight, with more than 60% of those obese.[42] 70% of Tongan women aged 15–85 are obese. Tonga and nearby Nauru have the world's highest overweight and obese populations.[43]

Religion

Everyday life is heavily influenced by Polynesian traditions and especially by the Christian faith; for example, all commerce and entertainment activities cease from midnight Saturday until midnight Sunday, and the constitution declares the Sabbath to be sacred, forever. As of 2006 somewhat more than a third of Tongans adhered to the Methodist tradition[44] [see figures below] with Catholics and Mormon populations equalling another third of the adherents. A minority of worshippers are part of the Free Church of Tonga. The official figures from the latest government census of 2006 (http://www.spc.int/prism/Country/TO/stats/Census06/social/religion.htm) show that about 98% of the population are affiliated with a Christian church or sect with the four major church affiliations in the kingdom as follows:



The Free Wesleyan Church

- Free Wesleyans/Methodists (38,052 or 37%)
- LDS Church (Mormons) (17,109 or 17%)
- Roman Catholics (15,992 or 16%)
- Free Church of Tonga (11,599 or 11%)

Culture and diaspora

Main article: Culture of Tonga

Humans have lived in Tonga for perhaps 3,000 years, since settlement in late Lapita times. Before the arrival of European explorers in the late 17th and early 18th centuries, the Tongans had frequent contacts with their nearest oceanic neighbours, Fiji and Niue. In the 19th century, with the arrival of Western traders and missionaries, Tongan culture changed especially in religion so that today almost 98% of residents are Christian. The people discarded some old beliefs and habits, and adopted others.



Kava culture

Contemporary Tongans often have strong ties to overseas lands. Many Tongans have emigrated to Australia, New Zealand, or the United States to seek employment and a higher standard of living. U.S. cities with significant Tongan American populations include Seattle, Washington; Portland, Oregon; Anchorage, Alaska; Inland Empire, California; San Mateo, California; East


The start of a Tongan tau'olunga dance

Palo Alto, California; San Bruno, California; Oakland, California; San Jose, California; Inglewood, California; Los Angeles, California; Salt Lake City, Utah; Kona, Hawaii; Lahaina, Hawaii; Reno, Nevada, St. Petersburg, Florida; and Euless, Texas (in the Dallas/Fort Worth metroplex). Large Tongan communities also live in Tutuila (American Samoa), in Auckland (New Zealand) and in Melbourne and Sydney (Australia). It is estimated that as many as 100,000 Tongans live overseas. In New Zealand alone there are approximately 50,000 Tongan people.[45] The Tongan diaspora retains close ties to relatives at home, and a significant portion of Tonga's income derives from remittances to family members (often aged) who prefer to remain in Tonga.

Sport

See also: Sport in Tonga

Rugby union is the national sport in Tonga,[*citation needed*] and the national team ('Ikale Tahi, or Sea Eagles) has performed quite well on the international stage. Tonga has competed in five Rugby World Cups since 1987. The 2007 Rugby World Cup was its most successful to date, with Tonga winning both of its first two matches, against the USA, 25–15, and Samoa, 19–15; and came very close to upsetting the eventual winners of the 2007 tournament, the South African Springboks, losing 30–25 in the end. A loss to England, 36–20 in their last pool game ended their hopes of making the knockout stages, but they were by no means disgraced. In fact, by picking up third place in their pool games behind South Africa and England, Tonga earned automatic qualification for the 2011 Rugby World Cup in New Zealand. At this competition, they beat the 5th ranked national team and eventual losing finalists,[46] France, 19-14.[47]

Tonga's best result prior to 2007 came in 1995, when they beat Ivory Coast 29–11, and 1999 when they beat Italy 28–25 (although with only 14 men they lost heavily to England, 10–101). Tonga perform the Ikale Tahi (war dance) before their matches. Tonga used to compete in the Pacific Tri-Nations against Samoa and Fiji, now replaced by the IRB Pacific 6 Nations involving Japan, the second string All Blacks (Junior All Blacks) and Wallabies (Australia A) although from 2008 the Junior All Blacks would be replaced by the Maori All Blacks. At club level, there are the Datec Cup Provincial Championship and the Pacific Rugby Cup. Rugby union is governed by the Tonga Rugby Football Union, which is also a member of the Pacific Islands Rugby Alliance. Tonga contributes to the Pacific Islanders rugby union team. Jonah Lomu, Viliami (William) 'Ofahengaue and George Smith, Wycliff Palu, Doug Howlett, Tatafu Polota-Nau are all of Tongan descent. Rugby is popular in the nation's schools and students from schools such as Tonga College, Tupou College are regularly offered scholarships from New Zealand, Australia and Japan.

Rugby league has also gained some success in Tonga. In the 2008 Rugby League World Cup Tonga recorded wins against Ireland and Scotland. In addition to the success of the national team, many players of Tongan descent make it big in the Australian National Rugby League competition. These include Willie Mason, Manu Vatuvei, Brent Kite, Willie Tonga, Anthony Tupou, Antonio Kaufusi, Israel Folau, Taniela Tuiaki, Michael Jennings, Tony Williams, Feleti Mateo, Fetuli Talanoa, to name but a few. Subsequently, some Tongan Rugby League players have established successful careers in the British Super League.[48]

Tongan Boxer Paea Wolfgram won the silver medal in the Super Heavyweight division (>91 kg) at the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympics. Thus far, he remains the only athlete to have won an Olympic medal from the island nations of the South Pacific outside Australia and New Zealand.[*citation needed*]

Tongan women have a reputation as skilful jugglers.[49]

Media

Regional distribution

- *Taimi o Tonga* — Tonga, New Zealand, Australia, United States of America

Domestic distribution

- *Kele'a* — newspaper
- *Talaki* — newspaper
- *Kalonikali* — newspaper
- *Tau'ataina* — newspaper
- Tonga Broadcasting Commission (Television Tonga, Television Tonga 2, Radio Tonga 1, Radio Tonga 2 – Kool 90FM, 103FM

See also

- Outline of Tonga

- 2006 Tonga earthquake
- 2006 Nuku'alofa riots
- 2007 Tonga earthquake
- 2009 Samoa earthquake
- 2009 Tonga earthquake
- Commonwealth of Nations
- Telecommunications in Tonga
- Culture of Tonga
- Foreign relations of Tonga
- Geography of Tonga
- Kava culture
- Music of Tonga
- Postage stamps and postal history of Tonga
- Sioeli Nau - a Methodist Minister
- Tonga branch of The Scout Association
- Tonga Defence Services
- Tongan mythology
- Tongan Nobles
- Transport in Tonga
- Tu'i Tonga Empire
- Tupenu
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History of Tonga

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Seafarers associated with the Lapita diaspora first settled the islands making up the Kingdom of Tonga about 1500 BC.[1] The area served (along with Fiji and Samoa) as a gateway into the rest of the Pacific region known as Polynesia.[2] Ancient Tongan mythologies recorded by early European explorers report the islands of 'Ata and Tongatapu as the first islands being hauled to the surface from the deep ocean by Maui. [3] .[4]

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- 1 Pre-contact
- 2 Early culture
- 3 Tongan Maritime empire
- 4 European arrival and Christianisation
- 5 Unification
- 6 See also
- 7 Further reading
- 8 External links

Pre-contact

The dates of the initial settlement of Tonga are still subject to debate, nonetheless one of the oldest occupied sites is found in the village of Pea on Tongatapu. Based on radiocarbon dating of a shell found at the site dates the occupation at 3180 ± 100 BP (Before Present).[5] Some of the oldest sites pertaining to the first occupants of the Tongan Islands are found on Tongatapu which is also where the first Lapita ceramics were found by WC McKern in 1921.[6] Nonetheless, reaching the Tongan islands (without Western navigational tools and techniques) was a remarkable feat accomplished by the Lapita peoples. Not much is known about Tonga before European contact because of the lack of a writing system during prehistoric times other than the oral history told to the early European explorers. The first time the Tongan people encountered Europeans was in 1616 when the Dutch vessel Eendracht made a short visit to the islands to trade.

Early culture

Main article: Early history of Tonga

Centuries before Westerners arrived, Tongans created large monumental stoneworks, most notably, the Haʻamonga ʻa Maui and the Langi (terraced tombs). The Haʻamonga is 5 meters high and made of three coral-lime stones that weigh more than 40 tons each. The Langi are low, very flat, two or three tier pyramids that mark the graves of former kings.

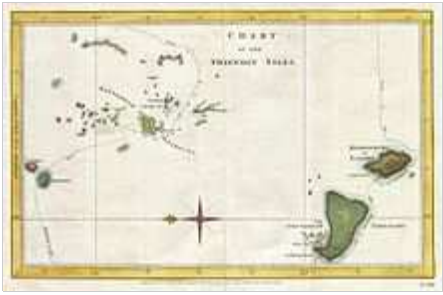
Tongan Maritime empire

Main article: Tu'i Tonga Empire

By the 12th century, Tongans, and the Tongan kings, the Tu'i Tonga, were known across the Pacific, from Niuē, Samoa to Tikopia they ruled these nations for over 400 years, sparking some historians to refer to a "Tongan Empire," although it was more so a network of interacting navigators, chiefs, and adventurers. It is unclear whether chiefs of the other islands actually came to Tonga regularly to acknowledge their sovereign. Distinctive pottery and Tapa cloth designs also show that the Tongans have travelled from the far reaches of Micronesia, all the way to Fiji and even Hawaii.[*citation needed*]

European arrival and Christianisation

In the 15th century and again in the 17th, civil war erupted. It was in this context that the first Europeans arrived, beginning with Dutch explorers Willem Schouten and Jacob Le Maire. Between April 21 to 23 1616 they moored at the Northern Tongan islands "Cocos Island" (Tafahi) and "Traitors Island" (Niuatoputapu), respectively. The kings of both of these islands boarded the ships and Le Maire drew up a list of Niuatoputapu words, a language now extinct. On 24 April 1616 they tried to moor at the "Island of Good Hope" (Niuafo'ou), but a less welcoming reception there made them decide to sail on.



Cook's map of 1777

On 21 January 1643, the Dutch explorer Abel Tasman was the first European to visit the main island (Tongatapu) and Haʻapai after rounding Australia and New Zealand. The most significant impact had the visits of Captain Cook visits in 1773, 1774, and 1777, followed by the first London missionaries in 1797, and the Wesleyan Methodist Walter Lawry in 1822. Around that time most Tongans converted en masse to the Wesleyan (Methodist) or Catholic faiths. Later other denominations followed like Pentecostals, Mormons, Seventh-day Adventists and most recently the Bahá'í faith.



Tāufaʻāhau Tupou I

Unification

In 1799 the 14th q Tuʻi Kanokupolu, Tukuʻaho was murdered, which sent Tonga into a civil war for fifty years. Finally the islands were united into a Polynesian kingdom in 1845 by the ambitious young warrior, strategist, and orator Tāufaʻāhau. He held the chiefly title of Tu'i Kanokupolu, but was baptised with the name King George Tupou I. In 1875, with the help of missionary Shirley Baker, he declared Tonga a constitutional monarchy, at which time he emancipated the 'serfs', enshrined a code of law, land tenure, and freedom of the press, and limited the power of the chiefs. Tonga became a British protected state under a Treaty of Friendship on 18 May 1900, when European settlers and rival Tongan chiefs tried to oust the second king. The Treaty of Friendship and protected state status ended in 1970 under arrangements established prior to her death by the third monarch, Queen Sālote. Tonga joined the Commonwealth of Nations in 1970, and the United Nations in 1999. While exposed to colonial forces, Tonga has never lost indigenous governance, a fact that makes Tonga unique in the Pacific and gives Tongans much pride, as well as confidence in the monarchical system. The British High Commission in Tonga closed in March 2006.

Tonga's current king, George Tupou V, traces his line directly back through five generations of monarchs. The king, born in 1948, continued to have ultimate control of the government until July 2008. At that point, concerns over financial irregularities and calls for democracy led to his relinquishing most of his day-to-day powers over

the government.[7]

See also

- History of Oceania
- List of kings of Tonga
- List of Prime Ministers of Tonga
- Politics of Tonga
- Timeline of Tongan history

Further reading

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External links

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- Photo of Haʻamonga Trilithon (http://www.sydhav.no/Tonga/haamonga.htm)
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List of monarchs of Tonga

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This is a **list of monarchs of Tonga** since 1875, after the constitutional role of the monarch was put forth. Tonga is the only kingdom in Oceania that is not a Commonwealth realm. The first monarch was George Tupou I.

In July 2008, three days before his coronation, King George Tupou V announced that he would relinquish most of his power and be guided by his Prime Minister's recommendations on most matters.[1]

King of Tonga

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Tonga



Incumbent:
Tupou VI

Style:	His Majesty
First monarch:	George Tupou I of Tonga
Formation:	1875

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- 1 Lists of earlier monarchs of Tonga
- 2 List of monarchs of Tonga (1875–present)
- 3 Royal Standard
- 4 Family tree
- 5 See also
- 6 External links
- 7 References

Lists of earlier monarchs of Tonga

- Tuʻi Tonga, rulers of Tonga from c.950 to c.1470.
- Tuʻi Haʻatakalaua, rulers of Tonga from c.1470 to c.1600.
- Tuʻi Kanokupolu, rulers of Tonga from c.1600 to the present day. George Tupou I, the first king of Tonga, was the 19th Tu'i Kanokupolu.

List of monarchs of Tonga (1875–present)

The following monarchs have reigned since the constitutional role of the Tongan monarchy was set forth in 1875 (see Line of succession to the Tongan Throne):

Name	Portrait	Birth	Reign	Death	Events[2]
George Tupou I 1875–1893		1797	17 years, 2 months, 14 days	18 February 1893 (aged 95–96)	Foundation of the Kingdom of Tonga as a constitutional monarchy.

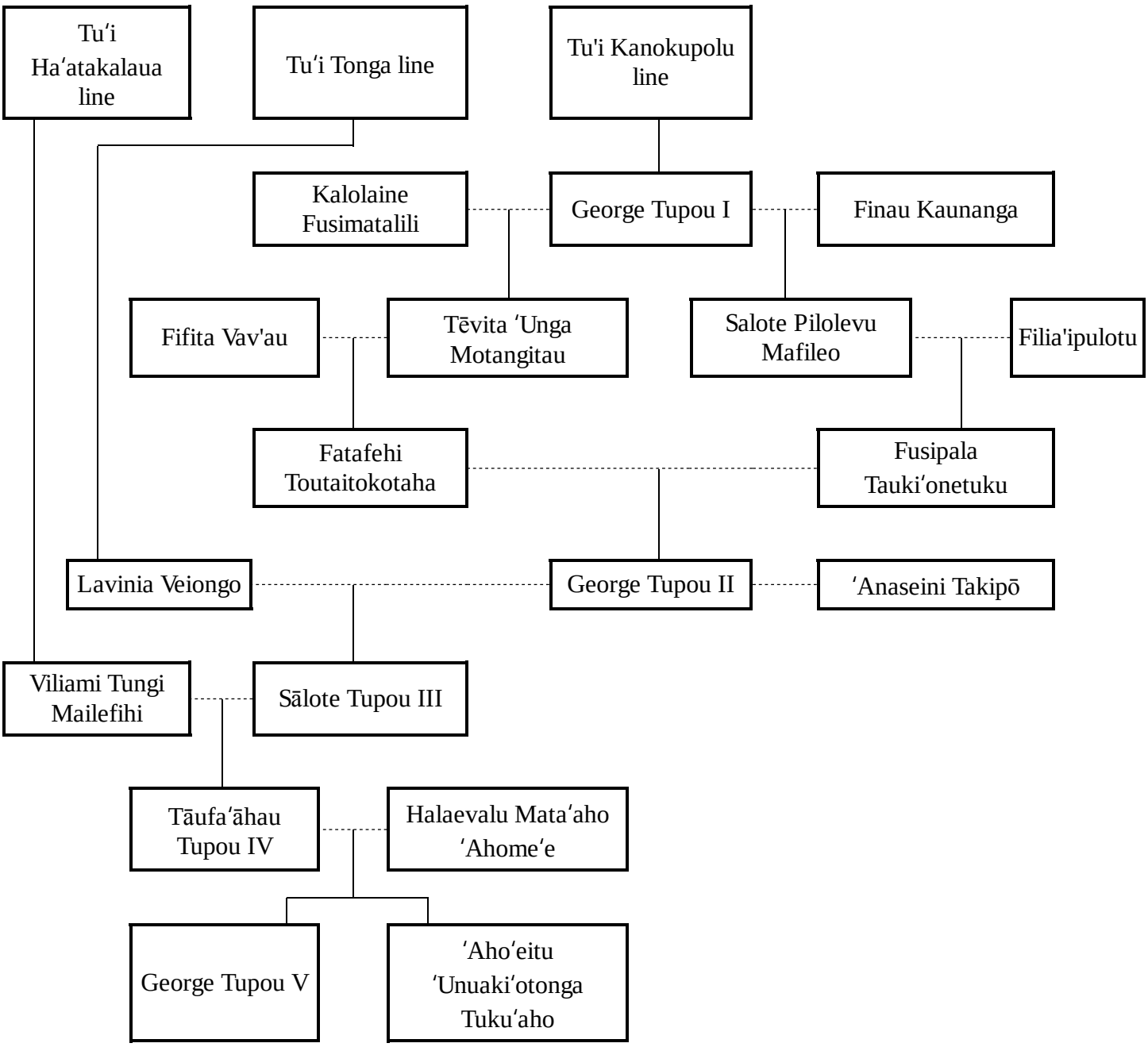
George Tupou II 1893–1918		18 June 1874	25 years, 1 month, 18 days	5 April 1918 (aged 43)	Tonga becomes a British protectorate under the 1900 Treaty of Friendship
Sālote Tupou III 1918–1965		13 March 1900	47 years, 8 months, 11 days	16 December 1965 (aged 65)	Women's suffrage
Tāufaʻāhau Tupou IV 1965–2006		4 July 1918	40 years, 8 months, 23 days	10 September 2006 (aged 88)	Tonga regains full sovereignty and joins the Commonwealth of Nations; foundation of the pro-democracy movement; joins the United Nations; 2005 mass march for democracy; Feleti Sevele becomes the first commoner Prime Minister
George Tupou V 2006–2012		4 May 1948	5 years, 6 months, 7 days	18 March 2012 (aged 63)	2006 Nuku'alofa riots; political reforms lead to the 2010 general election
Tupou VI 2012–Present		12 July 1959			

Royal Standard



Royal Standard of Tonga

Family tree



See also

- Prime Minister of Tonga
- List of Tongan consorts

External links

- Tonga (http://www.royalark.net/Tonga/tonga.htm) - history of Tonga-monarchy and royal genealogy

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Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=List_of_monarchs_of_Tonga&oldid=482946554"
Categories: Tongan monarchs | Lists of monarchs | Tonga-related lists

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ʻAhoʻeitu ʻUnuakiʻotonga Tukuʻaho

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ʻAhoʻeitu ʻUnuakiʻotonga Tukuʻaho Tupou VI (born 12 July 1959) is the King of Tonga. He is the younger brother and successor of the late King George Tupou V. He was officially confirmed by his brother on 27 September 2006 as the heir presumptive to the Tongan throne, as his brother (a bachelor) had no legitimate children.[1] He also served as Tonga's High Commissioner to Australia, and resided in Canberra[2][3] until the death of King George Tupou V on 18 March 2012, when ʻAhoʻeitu ʻUnuakiʻotonga Tukuʻaho became King of Tonga, with the regnal name Tupou VI.[4]

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- 1 Life
- 2 Ancestry
- 3 Name and titles
- 4 See also
- 5 References
- 6 External links

Life

He was born the third son and youngest child of King Tāufaʻāhau Tupou IV. He started his career in the military, joining the naval arm of the Tonga Defence Services in 1982 and becoming a Lieutenant-Commander in 1987. From 1990 to 1995 he commanded the Pacific-class patrol boat VOEA *Pangai* and his time in charge included peacekeeping operations in Bougainville.

In 1998 he ended his military career to become part of the government, first as the defence minister and the foreign minister at the same time, from October 1998 until August 2004. He took over these posts from his elder brother Siaosi Tupou V, at that time still the crown prince and as such known as Tupoutoʻa (see below). Soon he was appointed as Prime Minister on 3 January 2000, a function he kept until his sudden resignation on 11 February 2006, for which the reason has never become clear, but was most likely due to the unrest in the country since mid-2005, a series of pro-democracy protests calling for a lesser role for the royal family in government. His appointed successor, Feleti Sevele, was

ʻAhoʻeitu ʻUnuakiʻotonga Tukuʻaho Tupou VI



King of Tonga

Reign	18 March 2012 – present
Predecessor	George Tupou V
Heir apparent	Siaosi Manumataongo
Prime Ministers	***See list***

Prime Minister of Tonga

Reign	3 January 2000 – 11 February 2006
Predecessor	Baron Vaea
Successor	Feleti Sevele
Monarch	***See list***
Spouse	Nanasipauʻu Tukuʻaho
Issue	ʻAngelika Lātūfuipeka Halaʻevalu Mataʻaho Napuaʻokalani Tukuʻaho Siaosi Manumataongo Viliami ʻUnuaki-ʻo-Tonga Mumui Lalaka-Mo-e-ʻEiki Tukuʻaho
House	House of Tupou
Father	Tāufaʻāhau Tupou IV
Mother	Halaevalu Mataʻaho ʻAhomeʻe

Born	12 July 1959

Tonga's first prime minister who was not a hereditary estate holder or a member of the aristocracy (made of 33 noble titles). In 2008 ʻAhoʻeitu was appointed Tonga's first High Commissioner to Australia, a post he held until his succession to the Tongan throne in 2012.[5]

ʻAhoʻeitu is married to a daughter of the high chief Vaea, Nanasipauʻu and the couple has 3 children:

- ʻAngelika Lātūfuipeka Halaʻevalu Mataʻaho Napuaʻokalani Tukuʻaho
- Siaosi Manumataongo ʻAlaivahamamaʻo ʻAhoʻeitu Konstantin Tukuʻaho
- Viliami ʻUnuaki-ʻo-Tonga Mumui Lalaka-Mo-e-ʻEiki Tukuʻaho

In January 2012, Prince Siaosi, known as Prince ʻUlukalala, announced his engagement to the Sinaitakala Fakafanua.[6]

Ancestry

Name and titles

It is customary in Tongan culture that princes get a traditional chiefly title, by which they then are commonly known (and no longer by their baptised name). As such for many years, until his confirmation as heir presumptive, ʻAhoʻeitu was known by either one or all three of the titles which were bestowed on him over the time: **Lavaka** from Pea, **Ata** from Kolovai and ʻAtatā, and **ʻUlukālala** from Vavaʻu. These titles may be used in any order, (the one belonging to the area from which the speaker is coming usually first). Nevertheless the sequences **Lavaka Ata ʻUlukālala** and **ʻUlukālala Lavaka Ata** were most common.



Tupoutoʻa-Lavaka (centre) uncombed, unshaven and in mourning dress for his recently deceased father, king Tāufaʻāhau Tupou IV, flanked by his two sons, the new chiefs ʻUlukālala (left) and Ata (right)

Since his confirmation as heir presumptive, he got the traditional title of Tupoutoʻa, reserved for crown princes, which his older brother (the second) had to give up because he married a commoner, while two of his previous titles went to his sons. As such he is currently known as **Tupoutoʻa Lavaka**. His oldest son, Siaosi, is to be addressed by the prestigious title of **ʻUlukālala**, while his second son, Viliami, was bestowed with **Ata**.

See also

- Line of succession to the Tongan Throne
- List of national leaders

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External links

- Prince Ulukalala Lavaka Ata (http://www.imdb.com/name/nm1761179/) at the Internet Movie Database
- Government Biography (http://www.pmo.gov.to/index.php/articles/c_32/)

ʻAhoʻeitu ʻUnuakiʻotonga Tukuʻaho **House of Tupou** **Born:** 12 July 1959		
Regnal titles		
Preceded by **George Tupou V**	**King of Tonga** 2012–present	**Incumbent**
Diplomatic posts		
First	**Tongan High Commissioner to Australia** 2008–2012	**Vacant**
Political offices		
Preceded by **Baron Vaea**	**Prime Minister of Tonga** 2000–2006	Succeeded by **Feleti Sevele**

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Categories: 1959 births | Living people | Tongan monarchs | Reigning monarchs | Current national leaders | Prime Ministers of Tonga | Government ministers of Tonga | High Commissioners of Tonga to Australia | People educated at The Leys School | Bond University alumni

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Samoa

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Samoa (/səˈmoʊ.ə/; Samoan: *Sāmoa*, IPA: [ˌsaːˈmoa]), officially the **Independent State of Samoa** (Samoan: *Malo Sa'oloto Tuto'atasi o Sāmoa*), formerly known as **Western Samoa**, is a country encompassing the western part of the Samoan Islands in the South Pacific Ocean. It became independent from New Zealand in 1962. The two main islands of Samoa are Upolu and one of the biggest islands in Polynesia, Savai'i. The capital city, Apia, and Faleolo International Airport are situated on the island of Upolu.

Samoa was admitted to the United Nations on 15 December 1976.[6] The entire island group, inclusive of American Samoa, was called *Navigators Islands* by European explorers before the 20th century because of the Samoans' seafaring skills.[7]

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History

Main article: History of Samoa

The oldest date so far from pre-historic remains in Samoa has been calculated by New Zealand scientists to a likely true age of circa 3,000 years ago from a Lapita site at Mulifanua

Independent State of Samoa ***Malo Sa'oloto Tuto'atasi o Sāmoa***	
 Flag	 Coat of arms
Motto: *Fa'avae i le Atua Sāmoa* (English: Samoa is founded on God)	
Anthem: *The Banner of Freedom*	
	
Capital (and largest city)	Apia 13°50′S 171°45′W
Official language(s)	Samoan, English
Ethnic groups (2001)	Samoan 92.6% Euronesians (persons of European and Polynesian blood) 7% Europeans 0.4%
Demonym	Samoan
Government	Unitary Parliamentary republic
- O le Ao o le Malo (Head of State)	Tufuga Efi
- Prime Minister	Tuilaepa Aiono Sailele Malielegaoi

during the 1970s.[8]

The origins of the Samoans is closely linked to modern research about Polynesia in various scientific disciplines such as genetics, linguistics and anthropology. Scientific research is ongoing although a number of different theories exist; including one proposing that the Samoans originated from Austronesian predecessors during the terminal eastward Lapita expansion period from Southeast Asia and Melanesia between 2,500 and 1,500 BCE.[9] The Samoan origins are currently being reassessed due to new scientific evidence and carbon dating findings from 2003 and onwards.

Intimate sociocultural and genetic ties were maintained between the eastern Lapita colonies and the archaeological record supports oral tradition and native genealogies that indicate inter-island voyaging and intermarriage between prehistoric Samoans, Fijians, and Tongans.

Contact with Europeans began in the early 18th century. Jacob Roggeveen (1659–1729), a Dutchman, was the first known European to sight the Samoan islands in 1722. This visit was followed by a French explorer by the name of Louis-Antoine de Bougainville (1729–1811), the man who named them the *Navigator Islands* in 1768. Contact was limited before the 1830s which is when English missionaries and traders began arriving.

Mission work in Samoa had begun in late 1830 by John Williams, of the London Missionary Society arriving in Sapapali'i from The Cook Islands and Tahiti.[10] By that time, the Samoans had gained a reputation of being savage and warlike, as violent altercations had occurred between natives and French, British, German and American forces, who, by the late nineteenth century, valued Samoa as a refueling station for coal-fired shipping and whaling. According to Barbara A. West, "The Samoans were also known to engage in “headhunting,” a ritual of war in which a warrior took the head of his slain opponent to give to his leader, thus proving his bravery."[11]

Independence	
- from New Zealand	1 January 1962[1]
Area	
- Total	2,831 km^2 (174th) 1,093 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.3%
Population	
- 2009 estimate	179,000[2] (166th)
- 2006 census	179,186
- Density	63.2/km^2 (144th) 163.7/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2009 estimate
- Total	$1.049 billion[3]
- Per capita	$5,782[3]
GDP (nominal)	2009 estimate
- Total	$558 million[3]
- Per capita	$3,077[3]
HDI (2007)	▲0.785 (medium) (94th)
Currency	Tala (WST)
Time zone	(UTC+13[1]) (UTC+14)
- Summer (DST)	
Drives on the	left[2]
ISO 3166 code	WS
Internet TLD	.ws
Calling code	685

1 Since 31 December 2011.[4]

2 Since 7 September 2009.[5]



Studio photo depicting preparation of the Samoa 'ava ceremony c. 1911.

The Germans in particular began to show great commercial interest in the Samoan Islands, especially on the island of 'Upolu where German firms monopolized copra and cocoa bean processing; the United States laid its own claim and formed alliances with local native chieftains, most conspicuously on the islands of Tutuila and Manu'a (which were later formally annexed to the USA as American Samoa).

Britain also sent troops to protect British business enterprise, harbour rights, and consulate office. There followed an eight-year civil war, where each of the three powers supplied arms, training, and in some cases, combat troops to the warring Samoan parties. The

Samoan crisis came to a critical juncture in March 1889 when all three colonial contenders sent warships into Apia harbour, and a larger-scale war seemed imminent, until a massive storm on the 15th March 1889 damaged or destroyed the warships, ending the military conflict.[12]



Interior of Samoan house, Apia, Urville 1842.

The Second Samoan Civil War was a conflict that reached a head in 1898 when Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States were locked in dispute over who should have control over the Samoa Islands. The Siege of Apia occurred during the Second Samoan Civil War in March 1899 at Apia. Samoan forces loyal to Prince Tanu were besieged by a larger force of Samoan rebels loyal to Mata'afa Iosefo. Supporting Prince Tanu were landing parties from four British and American warships. Over the course of several days of fighting, the Samoan rebels were defeated.[13] American and British warships shelled Apia on March 15, 1899; including the USS *Philadelphia*. Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States quickly resolved to end the hostilities; with the partitioning of the island chain at the Tripartite Convention of 1899.[14]



Wilhelm Solf, German governor of Samoa 1900-1910

20th century

The Tripartite Convention of 1899 partitioned the Samoan Islands into two parts:[14] the eastern island group became a territory of the United States (the Tutuila Islands in 1900 and officially Manu'a in 1904) and is today known as American Samoa; the western islands, by far the greater landmass, became known as German Samoa after Britain vacated all claims to Samoa and accepted termination of German rights in Tonga and certain areas in the Solomon Islands and West Africa.[15]



Mata'afa Iosefo (1832-1912) paramount chief & rival for the kingship of Samoa

By 1912 the German administration had apparently achieved its long-term objective of understanding the traditional forces in Samoa politics while maintaining a semblance of local participation in government. There was no more *Tupu* (King), nor even *alii sili* (similar to a governor), but the two *Fautua* (Advisors) were appointed. *Tumua* and *Pule* (traditional governments of Upolu and Savaii) were for a time silent; all decisions on matters affecting lands and titles were under the control of the Governor. To complete the process, the *Fa'alupega* for all Samoa was revised. In a culture based on oratory, the *Fa'alupega* is a formal greeting which acknowledges those being greeted and their status. The *Fa'alupega*, which had been nationally accepted from at least the late 19th century (and probably for much longer than that), was as follows:

"*Tulouna a Tumua ma Pule,*
Tulouna a Itu'au ma Alataua,
Tulouna a Aiga-i-le-Tai,
Ma le Va'a-o-Fonoti,
Tulouna a Tama ma a latou aiga
Po'o aiga ma a latou tama".

This firstly recognized the authority and identity of principal districts of Samoa through their spokesmen – Tumua ma Pule, Itu'au ma Alataua, Aiga-i-le-Tai, and the Va'a-o-Fonoti – and the highest titles which were bestowed by these groups. It concludes with the recognition of the great maximal descent groups of Samoa and their "sons" who had been chosen to hold the highest titles.

The new *Fa'alupega* of German Samoa, which in its first line recognises the Kaiser (*Kaisa*), apparently required Malietoa Tanunafili and Tupua Tamasese to be sworn on oath to become advisors to the governing council:

"*Tulouna a lana Maiesitete le Kaisa o le tupu mamalu o lo tatou malo kasialika aoao.*
Tulouna a lana afioga le kovana kasialika o le sui o le kaisa I Samoa nei.
Susu mai Malietoa, Afio mai Tupua
Ua fa'amanatuiana ai aiga e lua I o oulua tofiga Kasialika o le Fautua.
Tulouna a le vasega a Faipule Kasialika o e lagolago malosi I le Malo.
Afifio mai le nofo a vasega o tofiga Kasialika o e usu fita I le tautua I le malo".

The first German Governor, Wilhelm Solf, later went on to become Secretary for the Colonies of Imperial Germany. New Zealand troops landed on 'Upolu unopposed on 29 August 1914 and seized control from the German authorities, following a request by Britain for New Zealand to perform their "great and urgent imperial service."[16]


Exiled orator Lauaki Namulauulu Mamoe

From the end of World War I until 1962, New Zealand controlled Samoa as a Class C Mandate under trusteeship through the League of Nations.[17] There followed a series of New Zealand administrators who were responsible for two major incidents. In the first incident, approximately one fifth of the Samoan population died in the influenza epidemic of 1918-1919.[18] In 1919 The Royal Commission of Inquiry into the Epidemic concluded that there had been no epidemic of pneumonic influenza in Western Samoa before the arrival of the 'SS Talune' from Auckland on the 7 November 1918. The NZ administration allowed the ship to berth in breach of quarantine; within seven days of this ship's arrival influenza became epidemic in Upolu and then spread rapidly throughout the rest of the territory.[19]

The second major incident arose out of an initially peaceful protest by the Mau (which literally translates as "strongly held opinion"), a non-violent popular movement which had its beginnings in the early 1900s on Savai'i, led by Lauaki Namulauulu Mamoe, an orator chief deposed by Solf. In 1909, Lauaki was exiled to Saipan and died en route back to Samoa in 1915.


People in attendance at Tupua Tamesese's funeral.

By 1918, Samoa had population of some 38,000 Samoans and 1,500 Europeans.[20] By the late 1920s the resistance movement against colonial rule had gathered widespread support during the mistreatment of the Samoan people by the New Zealand administration. One of the Mau leaders was Olaf Frederick Nelson, a half Samoan and half Swedish merchant.[21] Nelson was eventually exiled during the late 1920s and early 1930s, but he continued to assist the organization financially and politically. In accordance with the Mau's non-violent philosophy, the newly elected leader, High Chief Tupua Tamasese Lealofi, led his fellow uniformed Mau in a peaceful demonstration in downtown Apia on 28 December 1929.[22]

The New Zealand police attempted to arrest one of the leaders in the demonstration. When he resisted, a struggle developed between the police and the Mau. The officers began to fire randomly into the crowd and a Lewis machine gun, mounted in preparation for this demonstration, was used to disperse the demonstrators.[23] Chief Tamasese was shot from behind and killed while trying to bring calm and order to the Mau demonstrators,

screaming "Peace, Samoa". Ten others died that day and approximately 50 were injured by gunshot wounds and police batons.[24]

That day would come to be known in Samoa as Black Saturday. The Mau grew, remaining steadfastly non-violent, and expanded to include a highly influential women's branch. After repeated efforts by the Samoan people, Western Samoa gained independence in 1962 and signed a Friendship Treaty with New Zealand. Samoa, the first small-island country in the Pacific to become independent, joined the Commonwealth of Nations on 28 August 1970. In 2002, New Zealand's prime minister Helen Clark, on a trip to Samoa, formally apologised for New Zealand's role in the events of 1918 and 1929.[25][26]

In July 1997 the government amended the constitution to change the country's name from *Western Samoa* to *Samoa*.[27] The U.S. territory of American Samoa protested the move, asserting that the change diminished its own identity. As of 2012 American Samoans still use the terms *Western Samoa* and *Western Samoans* to describe the independent State of Samoa and its inhabitants.

While the two Samoas share language and ethnicity, their cultures have recently followed different paths, with American Samoans often emigrating to Hawai'i and the U.S. mainland, and adopting many U.S. customs, such as the playing of American football and baseball. Western Samoans have tended to emigrate instead to New Zealand, whose influence has made the sports of rugby and cricket more popular in the western islands. Travel writer Paul Theroux noted marked differences between the societies in Samoa and American Samoa.[28]

21st century

Effective 7 September 2009, the government has changed the driving orientation for motorists and Samoans now drive on the left side of the road. This brings Samoa into line with many other countries in the region. Samoa is the first country in recent years, and the first country in the 21st century, to switch to driving on the left.[29]

At the end of 29 December 2011, Samoa jumped forward by one day, omitting 30 December from the local calendar, when the nation moved to the west of the International Date Line.[30] This is anticipated to help the nation boost its economy by doing business with Australia and New Zealand. Before this change, Samoa was 21 hours behind Sydney, but the change means they are now three hours ahead. The previous timezone was agreed on 4 July 1892, to work in line with American traders based in California.[31]

Politics

Main articles: Politics of Samoa and Fa'amatai



Government buildings in Apia

The 1960 Constitution, which formally came into force with independence from New Zealand in 1962, is based on the British pattern of parliamentary democracy, modified to take account of Samoan customs.[32] The national modern Government of Samoa is referred to as the 'Malo'. Samoa's first Prime Minister was Fiame Mata'afa Faumuina Mulinu'u II, one of the four highest ranking paramount chiefs in the country. Two other paramount chiefs at the time of independence were appointed joint heads of state for life. Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole, who died in 1963, leaving Malietoa Tanumafili II sole head of state until his death on 11 May 2007, upon which Samoa transitioned from a constitutional monarchy to a Parliamentary republic.[33] The next Head of State

Tuiatua Tupua Tamasese Efi was elected by the legislature on 17 June 2007 for a fixed 5 year term.[34]

The unicameral legislature (Fono) consists of 49 members serving 5-year terms. Forty-seven are *matai* title holders elected from territorial districts by Samoans; the other two are chosen by non-Samoans with no chiefly affiliation on separate electoral rolls.[35] Universal suffrage was extended in 1990, but only chiefs (matai) may stand for election to the Samoan seats. There are more than 25,000 matais in the country, about 5% of whom are women.[36] The prime minister is chosen by a majority in the Fono and is appointed by the head of state to form a government. The prime minister's choices for the 12 cabinet positions are appointed by the head of state, subject to the continuing confidence of the Fono.

Prominent women in Samoan politics include the late Laulu Fetauimalemau Mata'afa (1928–2007) from Lotofaga constituency, the wife of Samoa's first prime minister. Their daughter Fiame Naomi Mata'afa is a paramount chief and a long-serving senior member of cabinet. Other women in politics include Samoan scholar and eminent professor Aiono Fanaafi Le Tagaloa, orator-chief Matatumua Maimoana and Safuneitu'uga Pa'aga Neri, the current Minister of Communication and Technology.

The judicial system is based on English common law and local customs. The Supreme Court of Samoa is the court of highest jurisdiction. Its chief justice is appointed by the head of state upon the recommendation of the prime minister.

Districts

Main article: Districts of Samoa

Samoa is made up of eleven *itūmālō* (political districts). These are the traditional eleven districts that were established well before European arrival. Each district has its own constitutional foundation (faavae) based on the traditional order of title precedence found in each district's faalupega (traditional salutations).

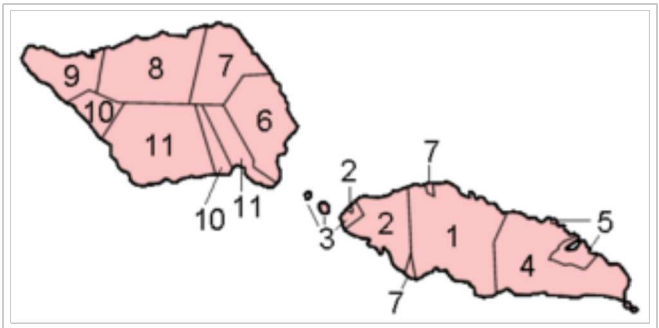
The capital village of each district administers and coordinates the affairs of the district and confers each districts' paramount title, amongst other responsibilities. For example, the District of A'ana has its capital at Leulumoega. The paramount title of A'ana is the TuiA'ana. The orator group which confers this title - the Faleiva (House of Nine) - is based at Leulumoega. This is also the same for the other districts. In the district of Tuamasaga, the paramount title of the district - The Malietoa title - is conferred by the FaleTuamasaga based in Afega.

Upolu
(including minor islands)

1. Tuamasaga (Afega)
2. A'ana (Leulumoega)
3. Aiga-i-le-Tai (Mulifanua)[1]
4. Atua (Lufilufi)[2]
5. Va'a-o-Fonoti (Samamea)

Savai'i

6. Fa'asaleleaga (Safotulafai)
7. Gaga'emauga (Saleaula)[3]
8. Gaga'ifomauga (Safotu)
9. Vaisigano (Asau)
10. Satupa'itea (Satupa'itea)
11. Palauli (Vailoa)



Political Districts of Samoa

[1] including islands Manono, Apolima and Nu'ulopa

[2] including the Aleipata Islands and Nu'usafe'e Island

[3] smaller parts also on Upolu (Salamumu (incl. Salamumu-Utu) and Leauvaa villages)

Geography

Main article: Geography of Samoa



Map of Samoa.

Samoa is located south of the equator, about halfway between Hawai'i and New Zealand in the Polynesian region of the Pacific Ocean. The total land area is 2,934 km² (1,133 sq mi) (slightly smaller than the U.S. state of Rhode Island), consisting of the two large islands of Upolu and Savai'i which account for 99% of the total land area, and eight small islets. The land area is about the size of the two Hawaii islands Oahu and Maui combined.

These are the three islets in the Apolima Strait (Manono Island, Apolima and Nu'ulopa), the four Aleipata Islands off the eastern end of Upolu (Nu'utele, Nu'ulua, Namua, and Fanuatapu), and Nu'usafe'e (less than 0.01 km² - 2½ acres - in area and about 1.4 km (0.9 mi) off the south coast of Upolu at the village of *Vaovai*).[37] The main island of Upolu is home to nearly three-quarters of Samoa's population, and its capital city is Apia.


View of Falefa Valley from Le Mafa Pass, east Upolu.

The Samoan islands have been produced by vulcanism, the source of which is the Samoa hotspot which is probably the result of a mantle plume.[38][39] While all of the islands have volcanic origins, only Savai'i, the western most island in Samoa, is volcanically active with the most recent eruptions in Mt Matavanu (1905–1911), Mata o le Afi (1902) and Mauga Afi (1725). The highest point in Samoa is Mt Silisili, at 1858 m (6,096 ft). The Saleaula lava fields situated on the central north coast of Savai'i are the result of the Mt Matavanu eruptions which left 50 km² (20 sq mi) of solidified lava.[40]

Samoa was previously located east of the international date line but in 2011, Samoan Prime Minister Tuilaepa Sailele announced his country would move the International Date Line to the east of the country, so that Samoa would lie to the west of the date line.[41] This change took effect on the night of 29 December, so that the Friday was skipped altogether and the following day was Saturday 31 December.[42]

The climate is equatorial/monsoonal, with an average annual temperature of 26.5°C (79.7°F), and a rainy season from November to April.[43] Savai'i is the largest of the Samoan islands and the sixth largest Polynesian island after New Zealand's North, South and Stewart Islands and the Hawaiian islands of Hawai'i and Maui. The population of Savai'i is 42,000 people.

Climate data for Apia													
Month	**Jan**	**Feb**	**Mar**	**Apr**	**May**	**Jun**	**Jul**	**Aug**	**Sep**	**Oct**	**Nov**	**Dec**	**Year**
Average high °C (°F)	30 (86)	30 (86)	30 (86)	30 (86)	30 (86)	29 (84)	29 (84)	29 (84)	29 (84)	30 (86)	30 (86)	30 (86)	30 (86)

Average low °C (°F)	24 (75)	24 (75)	24 (75)	24 (75)	24 (75)	24 (75)	23 (73)	23 (73)	23 (73)	24 (75)	24 (75)	24 (75)	24 (75)
Precipitation mm (inches)	419 (16.5)	322 (12.68)	332 (13.07)	261 (10.28)	205 (8.07)	165 (6.5)	133 (5.24)	155 (6.1)	180 (7.09)	257 (10.12)	270 (10.63)	372 (14.65)	3,071 (120.91)
Source: www.weather2travel.com"Apia climate guide" (http://www.weather2travel.com/climate-guides /index.php?destination=apia) . http://www.weather2travel.com/climate-guides/index.php?destination=apia.													

Environment

See also: List of birds of Samoa and List of protected areas of Samoa

Samoa is located within the Samoan tropical moist forests ecoregion. Since human habitation began, about 80% of the lowland rain forests has been lost. Within the ecoregion about 28% of plants and 84% of land birds are endemic.[44]

Economy

Main article: Economy of Samoa



View above the Falealupo Rainforest canopy walkway, Savaii.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in purchasing power parity (PPP) in 2006 was estimated at $1.218 billion USD.[*citation needed*] The industrial sector is the largest component of GDP at 58.4%, followed by the services sector at 30.2% (2004 est.). Agriculture represents only 11.4% of GDP (2004 est.). Samoan labor force is estimated at 90,000. [*citation needed*]

The country currency is the Samoan tālā, issued and regulated by the Central Bank of Samoa.[45] The economy of Samoa has traditionally been dependent on agriculture and fishing at the local level. In modern times, development aid, private family remittances from overseas, and agricultural exports have become key factors in the nation's economy. Agriculture employs two-thirds of the labour force, and furnishes 90% of exports, featuring coconut cream, coconut oil, noni (juice of the *nonu* fruit, as it is known in Samoan), and copra.[46]

Outside of a large automotive wire harness factory (Yazaki Corporation), the manufacturing sector mainly processes agricultural products. Tourism is an expanding sector which now accounts for 25% of GDP. Tourist arrivals have been increasing over the years with more than 100,000 tourists visiting the islands in 2005, up from 70,000 in 1996.

The Samoan government has called for deregulation of the financial sector, encouragement of investment, and continued fiscal discipline.[*citation needed*] Observers point to the flexibility of the labour market as a basic strength for future economic advances.[*citation needed*] The sector has been helped enormously by major capital investment in hotel infrastructure, political instability in neighboring Pacific countries, and the 2005 launch of Virgin Samoa a joint-venture between the government and Virgin Australia (then Virgin Blue).

In the period before German colonization, Samoa produced mostly copra. German merchants and settlers were active in introducing large scale plantation operations and developing new industries, notably cocoa bean and rubber, relying on imported labourers from China and Melanesia. When the value of natural rubber fell



Taro, a root crop, traditionally was Samoa's largest export, generating more than half of all export revenue in 1993. But a fungal blight decimated the plants, and in each year since 1994 taro exports have accounted for less than 1% of export revenue.

drastically, about the end of the Great War (World War I), the New Zealand government encouraged the production of bananas, for which there is a large market in New Zealand.[*citation needed*]

Because of variations in altitude, a large range of tropical and subtropical crops can be cultivated, but land is not generally available to outside interests. Of the total land area of 2,934 km² (725,000 acres), about 24.4% is in permanent crops and another 21.2% is arable. About 4.4% is Western Samoan Trust Estates Corporation (WSTEC).[*citation needed*]

The staple products of Samoa are copra (dried coconut meat), cocoa bean (for chocolate), and bananas. The annual production of both bananas and copra has been in the range of 13,000 to 15,000 metric tons (about 14,500 to 16,500 short tons). If the rhinoceros beetle in Samoa were eradicated, Samoa could produce in excess of 40,000 metric tons (44,000 short tons) of copra. Samoan cocoa beans are of very high quality and used in fine New Zealand chocolates. Most are Criollo-Forastero hybrids. Coffee grows well, but production has been uneven. WSTEC is the biggest coffee producer. Rubber has been produced in Samoa for many years, but its export value has little impact on the economy.[*citation needed*]

Other agricultural industries have been less successful. Sugarcane production, originally established by Germans in the early 20th century, could be successful. Old train tracks for transporting cane can be seen at some plantations east of Apia. Pineapples grow well in Samoa, but beyond local consumption have not been a major export.

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Samoa



A Samoan family.

Samoa has a population of 182,265 of which 92.6% are Samoans, 7% Euronesians (people of mixed, European and Polynesian ancestors) and 0.4% are Europeans, per the CIA World Factbook. About three-quarters of the population live on the main island of Upolu.[32] Only the Māori of New Zealand outnumber Samoans among Polynesian groups.

Samoans' religious adherence includes the following: Christian Congregational Church of Samoa 35.5%, Roman Catholic 19.6%, Methodist 15%, Latter-day Saints 12.7%, Samoan Assemblies of God 10.6%, Seventh-day Adventist 3.5%, Worship Centre 1.3%, unspecified 0.8% (2001 census).[47] The Head of State until 2007, His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili II, was a Bahá'í convert. Samoa hosts one of seven Bahá'í Houses of Worship in the world; completed in 1984 and dedicated by the Head of State, it is located in Tiapapata, 8 km (5 mi) from Apia.

Culture

Main article: Culture of Samoa

See also: Music of Samoa

The fa'a Samoa, or traditional Samoan way, remains a strong force in Samoan life and politics. Despite centuries of European influence, Samoa maintains its historical customs, social and political systems, and language. Cultural customs such as the Samoa 'ava ceremony are significant and solemn rituals at important occasions including the bestowal of *matai* chiefly titles. Items of great cultural value include the finely woven *'ie toga*.



Roman Catholic cathedral Immaculate Conception of Mary, now demolished.

Samoan mythology includes many gods with creation stories and figures of legend such as Tagaloa and the goddess of war Nafanua, the daughter of Saveasi'uleo, ruler of the spirit realm Pulotu. Other legends include the well known story of Sina and the Eel which explains the origins of the first coconut tree.

Some Samoans are spiritual and religious, and have subtly adapted the dominant religion of Christianity to 'fit in' with fa'a Samoa and vice versa. As such, ancient beliefs continue to co-exist side-by-side with Christianity, particularly in regard to the traditional customs and rituals of fa'a Samoa. The Samoan culture is centered around the principle of vāfealoa'i, the relationships between people. These relationships are based on respect, or fa'aaloalo. When Christianity was introduced in Samoa, most Samoan people converted. Currently 98% of the population identify themselves as Christian. The other 2 percent either identify themselves as irreligious, or do not belong to any congregation.



A Samoan fire dancer.

Some Samoans live a communal way of life, participating in activities collectively. Examples of this are the traditional Samoan *fale* (houses) which are open with no walls, using blinds made of coconut palm fronds during the night or bad weather.

The Samoan word for dance is *siva* with unique gentle movements of the body in time to music and which tells a story, although the Samoan male dances can be more physical and snappy.[48] The *sasa* is also a traditional dance where rows of dancers perform rapid synchronised movements in time to the rhythm of wooden drums *(pate)* or rolled mats. Another dance performed by males is called the *fa'ataupati* or the slap dance, creating rhythmic sounds by slapping different parts of the body. This is believed to have been derived from slapping insects on the body.

The form and construction of traditional architecture of Samoa was a specialised skill by *Tufuga fai fale* that was also linked to other cultural artforms.

Tattooing

As with other Polynesian cultures (Hawai'ian, Tahitian and Māori) with significant and unique tattoos, Samoans have two gender specific and culturally significant tattoos. For males, it is called the Pe'a and consists of intricate and geometrical patterns tattooed that cover areas from the knees up towards the ribs. A male who possesses such a tatau is called a soga'imiti. A Samoan girl or *teine* is given a malu, which covers the area from just below her knees to her upper thighs.[49]

Contemporary culture

Albert Wendt is a significant Samoan writer whose novels and stories tell the Samoan experience. In 1989, his



A man with a Pe'a, a male Samoan tattoo.



A Samoan woman with a traditional malu.

novel *Flying Fox in a Freedom Tree* was made into a feature film in New Zealand, directed by Martyn Sanderson.[50] Another novel *Sons for the Return Home* had also been made into a feature film in 1979, directed by Paul Maunder.[51] Other Samoan poets and writers include Sapa'u Ruperake Petaia, Eti Sa'aga and Savea Sano Malifa, the editor of the Samoa Observer.

The late John Kneubuhl, born in American Samoa, was an accomplished playwright and screenwriter and writer. Sia Figiel won the 1997 Commonwealth Writers' Prize. Momoe Von Reiche is an internationally recognised poet and artist. Dan Taulapapa McMullin is an artist and writer. Popular bands include The Five Stars, Penina o Tiafau and Punialava'a. There are also many contemporary Samoan artists living around the world. These Samoan artists include writers, filmmakers, visual artists, actors, directors, singers and dancers. In contemporary dance in New Zealand Lemi Ponifasio is a director and choreographer who is prominent internationally with his Company MAU[52] and Neil Ieremia'sc company Black Grace has also received international acclaim with tours to Europe and New York. The arts organisation *Tautai* is a collective of visual artists including Fatu Feu'u, Johnny Penisula, Shigeyuki Kihara, Iosefa Leo, Michel Tuffery, John Ioane and Lily Laita.[53]

In film, director Sima Urale is an award-winning filmmaker. Urale's short film *O Tamaiti* won the prestigious Best Short Film at the Venice Film Festival in 1996. Her first feature film *Apron Strings* opened the 2008 NZ International Film Festival. The feature film Siones Wedding, co-written by Oscar Kightley, was financially successful following premieres in Auckland and Apia. In music, the cover of the song *Sweet Inspiration* by The Yandall Sisters reached number one on the charts while King Kapisi was the first hip hop artist to receive the prestigious New Zealand APRA Silver Scroll Award in 1999 for his song *Reverse Resistance*. His music video *Reverse Resistance* was filmed in Savai'i at his villages. Other successful Samoan hip hop artists include rapper Scribe, Dei Hamo, Savage and Tha Feelstyle whose music video *Suamalie* was filmed in Samoa.

In comedy, Laughing Samoans, the Naked Samoans and Kila Kokonut Krew have enjoyed sold-out tours. Actor and director Nathaniel Lees has featured in many theatre productions and films including his role as Captain Mifune in The Matrix movie trilogy. In theatre, published playwrights include Oscar Kightley, Victor Rodger, Makerita Urale and Niuean Samoan playwright Dianna Fuemana.[54] Tusiata Avia is a performance poet. Her first book of poetry *Wild Dogs Under My Skirt* was published by Victoria University Press in 2004.

International influences like hip hop impact on Samoan culture. According to Katerina Martina Teaiwa, PhD from the University of Hawai'i at Manoa, "Hip hop culture in particular is popular amongst Samoan youth."[55] This is not surprising considering the large amounts of migration between Samoa, Hawaii, and the United States mainland, specifically California. In addition, the integration of hip hop elements into Samoan tradition also "testifies to the transferability of the dance forms themselves," and to the "circuits through which people and all their embodied knowledge travel."[56] Dance both in its traditional form and its more modern forms has remained a central cultural currency to Samoans, especially youths.[55]

Sport

See also: Sport in Samoa


Samoa (blue) vs. South Africa in June 2007.

The main sports played in Samoa are rugby union, Samoan cricket and netball. Rugby union is the national football code of Samoa. In Samoan villages, volleyball is also popular.

Rugby union is very popular in Samoa and the national team, nicknamed the Manu Samoa, is consistently competitive against teams from vastly more populous nations. Samoa has competed at every Rugby World Cup since 1991, and made the quarter finals in 1991, 1995 and the second round of the 1999 world cup.[57] At the 2003 world cup, Manu Samoa came close to beating eventual world champions, England. Samoa also played in the Pacific Nations Cup and the Pacific Tri-Nations The sport is governed by the Samoa Rugby Football Union, who are members of the Pacific Islands Rugby Alliance, and thus, also contribute to the international Pacific Islanders rugby union team.

At club level there is the National Provincial Championship and Pacific Rugby Cup Prominent Samoan players include Pat Lam and Brian Lima. In addition many Samoans have played for or are playing for the New Zealand All Blacks. They also took home the cup at Wellington and the Hong Kong Rugby Sevens in 2007—for which the Prime Minister of Samoa, also Chairman of the national rugby union, Tuila'epa Sa'ilele Malielegaoi, declared a national holiday. They also were the IRB World Sevens Series Champions in 2010 capping a year of achievement for the Samoans, following wins in the USA, Australia, Hong Kong and Scotland Sevens tournaments.

Rugby league is also popular amongst Samoans, with Samoa reaching the quarter finals of the 2000 Rugby League World Cup. Many Samoans and New Zealanders or Australians of Samoan descent play in the Super League and National Leagues in Britain. Examples are Va'aiga Lealuga Tuigamala who represented the New Zealand All Blacks, then became the first million dollar player to be contracted out to Rugby League to play for Wigan, then played Rugby Union for Newcastle Falcons before representing Samoa. Ta'ane Lavulavu of Workington Town, Maurie Fa'asavalu of St Helens and David Fatialofa of Whitehaven. Other noteworthy players have represented the Samoan National team.

Samoans have been very visible in boxing, kickboxing, wrestling, and sumo; some Samoan sumo wrestlers, most famously Musashimaru and Konishiki have reached the highest rank of *Ozeki* and *yokozuna*.

American football is occasionally played in Samoa, reflecting its wide popularity in American Samoa, where the sport is played under high school sanction. About 30 ethnic Samoans, many from American Samoa, currently play in the National Football League. A 2002 article from *ESPN* estimated that a Samoan male (either an American Samoan, or a Samoan living in the mainland United States) is 40 times more likely to play in the NFL than a non-Samoan American.[58]

See also

- Outline of Samoa

- 1889 Apia cyclone
- 2009 Samoa Tsunami
- Archaeology in Samoa
- Commonwealth of Nations
- German Samoa
- LGBT rights in Samoa
- Samoa, California
- SS Talune

- Transport in Samoa
- Time in Samoa

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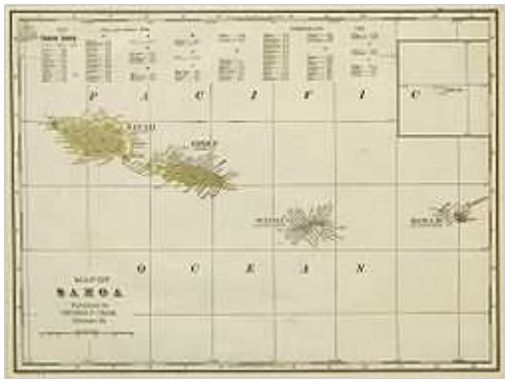
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History of Samoa

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

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Chromograph map of Samoa - George Cram 1896

Myths

According to legend, Samoa shares the common Polynesian ancestor of Tagaloa; according to many legends, Samoa was Tagaloa's first creation. Oral traditions trace Samoan ancestry back to pre-history.[1]

Samoa is recognized as the center of Polynesia, from where people migrated eastward to the Marquesas, southward to Niue and the Pukapuka islands of Rarotonga, and northward to the Tokelau and Tuvalu island groups; in all these islands, oral tradition is maintained of ancestral voyages from the Samoan islands. These migrations reflect the extraordinary courage of these seafaring people in navigating without instruments to sail throughout the vast Pacific Ocean.

Samoa before the arrival of Europeans

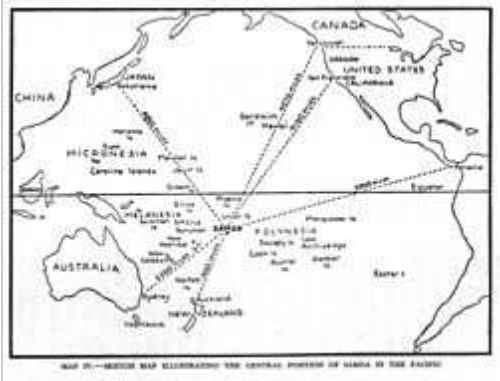
Main article: Archaeology in Samoa

Archeologists place the earliest human settlement of the Samoan archipelago at around 1500 B.C. This date is based upon the ancient lapita pottery shards found throughout the islands. Samoan oral history, however, extends only as far back as 1000 A.D. Whatever occurred between 1500 B.C. and 1000 A.D. remains a mystery, though this may have been the period of great migrations that led to the settlement of present-day Polynesia.

Another mystery is why the making of pottery suddenly stopped. There is no oral tradition in reference to pottery use, but it abounds with proverbs on the starmounts used in the ancient sport of pigeon snarling, once popular among Samoan nobility. Linguistically, the Samoan language is part of the Austronesian language family.

Prior to the arrival of the Europeans in the early 1700s, Samoa's history was interwoven with that of certain chiefdoms of Fiji as well as the history of the kingdom of Tonga. The oral history of Samoa preserves the memories of many battles fought between Samoa and neighboring islands. Too, intermarriage of Tongan and

Fijian royalty to noble Samoan women has helped build close relationships between these island nations that exists even to the present day; these royal blood ties are acknowledged at special events and cultural gatherings. Samoan folklore tells of the arrival of two maidens from Fiji who brought the art of tatau, or tattoo, to Samoa, whence came the traditional Samoan *malofie* (*malofie* is also known as *pe'a* for men and as *malu* for women). Oral traditions record the use of the Samoan fine mat as a garment of atonement, draped over a Samoan maiden to pardon her from a Tongan king's wrath and criminal indictment.



1934 Sketch map showing the central position of the Samoa Islands in the Pacific.

Bestowal of the highly reverential title "Malietoa" marked a period in Samoan history when the islands were officially recognized as independent of Tongan rule. The title refers to the parting words of Tongan warriors, "Malie toa, malie tau" (literally, "Brave warrior, bravely fought"). Hence, the title was amended as part of the more ancient royal courts and titles of Tui-Aana, Tui-Atua.

These tales reflect Samoa's colorful and at times fierce past.[2]

European contact

18th Century

Contact with Europeans began in the early 18th century but did not intensify until the arrival of the British. In 1722, Dutchman Jacob Roggeveen was the first European to sight the islands. This visit was followed by the French explorer Louis-Antoine de Bougainville (1729–1811), the man who named them the *Navigator Islands* in 1768.

The United States Exploring Expedition (1838-42) under Charles Wilkes reached Samoa in 1839 and appointed of Englishman John C. Williams as acting U.S. consul.[3] However this appointment was never confirmed by the U.S. State Department; John C. Williams was merely recognized as "Commercial Agent of the United States".[4] A British consul was already residing at Apia.

19th Century

Missionaries and traders arrived in the 1830s. In 1855 J.C. Godeffroy & Sohn expanded its trading business into the Samoan Islands, which were then known as the Navigator Islands. During the second half of the 19th century German influence in Samoa expanded with large scale plantation operations being introduced for coconut, cacao and hevea rubber cultivation, especially on the island of 'Upolu where German firms monopolized copra and cocoa bean processing. British business enterprises, harbour rights, and consulate office were the basis on which the United Kingdom had cause to intervene in Samoa. The United States begin operations at the excellent harbor of Pago Pago on Tutuila in 1877 and formed alliances with local native chieftains, most conspicuously on the islands of Tutuila and Manu'a (which were later formally annexed as American Samoa).

In the latter part of 19th century, the United Kingdom, Germany and the United States all claimed parts of the kingdom of Samoa, and established trade posts. The rivalry between these powers exacerbated the indigenous factions that were struggling to preserve their ancient political system.

The First Samoan Civil War and the Samoan crisis



SMS Adler wrecked at Apia. 1889.

See also: Samoan Civil War

See also: Samoan crisis



Wrecked vessels at Apia. 1889.

The First Samoan Civil War was fought roughly between 1886 and 1894, primarily between rival Samoan factions though the rival powers intervened on several occasions with military forces. There followed an eight-year civil war, where each of the three powers supplied arms, training, and in some cases, combat troops to the warring Samoan parties. The Samoa Crisis came to a critical juncture in March 1889 when all three colonial contenders sent warships into Apia harbour, and a larger-scale war seemed imminent, until a massive storm on 15 March 1889 damaged or destroyed the warships, ending the military conflict.[5]

Robert Louis Stevenson arrived in Samoa in 1889 and built a house at Vailima. He quickly became passionately interested, and involved, in the attendant political machinations. His influence spread to the Samoans, who consulted him for advice, and he soon became involved in local politics. These involved the three colonial powers battling for control of Samoa - America, Germany and Britain - and the indigenous factions struggling to preserve their ancient political system. He was convinced the European officials appointed to rule the Samoans were incompetent, and after many futile attempts to resolve the matter, he published *A Footnote to History*. The book covers the period from 1882 to 1892.[6] This was such a stinging protest against existing conditions that it resulted in the recall of two officials, and Stevenson feared for a time it would result in his own deportation.[7]

The Second Samoan Civil War and the Siege of Apia

See also: Second Samoan Civil War

See also: Siege of Apia



German, British and American warships in Apia harbour, 1899. Alfred John Tattersall

The Second Samoan Civil War was a conflict that reached a head in 1898 when Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States were locked in dispute over who should have control over the Samoa Islands.

The **Siege of Apia**, or the **Battle of Apia**, occurred during the Second Samoan Civil War in March 1899 at Apia. Samoan forces loyal to Prince Tanu were besieged by a larger force of Samoan rebels loyal to Mata'afa Iosefo. Supporting Prince Tanu were landing parties from four British and American warships. Over the course of several days of fighting, the Samoan rebels were defeated.[8]

American and British warships shelled Apia on 15 March 1899; including the USS *Philadelphia*. Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States quickly resolved to end the hostilities; with the partitioning of the island chain at the Tripartite Convention of 1899.[3]

Division of islands

See also: German Samoa

The Samoa Tripartite Convention, a joint commission of three members composed of Bartlett Tripp for the United States, C. N. E. Eliot, C.B. for Great Britain, and Freiherr Speck von Sternburg for Germany, agreed to divide the islands.

The Tripartite Convention gave control of the islands west of 171 degrees west longitude to Germany, (later known as Western Samoa), containing Upolu and Savaii (the current Samoa) and other adjoining islands. These islands became known as German Samoa. The United States accepted the eastern islands of Tutuila and Manu'a, (present-day American Samoa).[3] In exchange for United Kingdom ceding claims in Samoa, Germany transferred their protectorates in the North Solomon Islands and other territories in West Africa. The monarchy was also abolished.

Independence

See also: Mau movement

From 1908, with the establishment of the Mau movement ("opinion movement"), Western Samoans began to assert their claim to independence. The early beginnings of the national Mau movement began in 1908 with the 'Mau a Pule' resistance on Savai'i, led by orator chief Lauaki Namulau'ulu Mamoe. Lauaki and Mau a Pule chiefs, wives and children were exiled to Saipan in 1909. Many died in exile.[9]



Exiled group aboard German warship taking them to Saipan. Standing 3rd from the left is Lauaki Namulauulu Mamoe, 1909.

Shortly after the outbreak of World War I, in August 1914, New Zealand sent an expeditionary force to seize and occupy German Samoa. Although Germany refused to officially surrender the islands, no resistance was offered and the occupation took place without any fighting. New Zealand continued the occupation of Western Samoa throughout World War I. In 1919, under the Treaty of Versailles, Germany relinquished its claims to the islands.

The Mau movement gained momentum with Samoa's royal leaders becoming more visible in supporting the peoples movement but strongly opposed violence. On 28 December 1929 Tupua Tamasese was shot along with eleven others during a peaceful demonstration in Apia. Tupua Tamasese died the following day, with the advice that no more blood should be shed.



New Zealand sailors removing the white strip from lava-lava, the insignia of the Mau uniform, circa 1930

New Zealand administered Western Samoa first as a League of Nations Mandate and then as a United Nations trusteeship until the country received its independence on 1 January 1962 as Western Samoa.[10] Samoa's first prime minister following independence was paramount chief Fiame Mata'afa Faumuina Mulinu'u II.

Samoa was the first Polynesian people to be recognized as a sovereign nation in the 20th century. In 1977, Queen Elizabeth II visited the Samoa during her tour of the Commonwealth.

In July 1997 the constitution was amended to change the country's name from "Western Samoa" to "Samoa." Samoa had been known simply as "Samoa" in the United Nations since joining the organization in 1976. The neighboring U.S. territory of American Samoa protested the move, feeling that the change diminished its own Samoan identity. American Samoans still use the terms "Western Samoa" and "Western Samoans."

In 2002, New Zealand's prime minister Helen Clark formally apologized for two incidents during the period of New Zealand's administration: a failure in 1918 to quarantine the SS Talune, which carried the 'Spanish 'flu' to Samoa, leading to an epidemic which devastated the Samoan population, and the shooting of leaders of the non-violent Mau movement during a ceremonial procession in 1929.

In 2007, Samoa's first Head of State, His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili II, died at the age of 95. He held this title jointly with Tupua Tamasese Lealofi until his death in 1963. The late Malietoa Tanumafili II was Samoa's Head of State for 45 years. He was the son of Malietoa Tanumafili I, who was the last Samoan king recognized by Europe and the Western World.

Samoa's current Head of State is His Highness Tui-Atua Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Efi, who was anointed the Head of State title with the unanimous endorsement of Samoa's Parliament. A symbol of traditional Samoan protocol in alignment with Samoan decision making stressing the importance of consensus in the 21st century.

See also

- American Samoa
- History of Oceania
- List of Prime Ministers of Samoa
- Politics of Samoa

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Fa'amatai

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Fa'amatai is the chiefly system of Samoa, central to the organization of Samoan society.[1] It is the traditional indigenous form of governance in the Samoa Islands, comprising American Samoa and the Independent State of Samoa. The term comprises the prefix *fa'a* (Samoan for "in the way of") and the word *matai* (family name or title).

Of central importance in the system are the *matai*,[2] the holders of family chief titles, and their role in looking after their family. *Fa'amatai* is the key socio-political system of governance and way of life (*fa'a Samoa*) in Samoan culture. Inherent in the *fa'amatai* system is the welfare and well-being of the extended family (*'aiga*) and the protection of family property, consisting most importantly of customary land.

In the 49-seat parliament of independent Samoa, all 47 *Samoan* Members of Parliament are also *matai*, performing dual roles as chiefs and modern politicians, with the exception of the two seats reserved for non-Samoans.[3]

The *fa'amatai* system is significant in modern Samoa where most of the land, about 81% (567,000 acres), is under customary ownership with the rest under the national government (*malo*) as public lands with another 4% freehold.[1]

The 2006 official census of independent Samoa identified a total of 15,783 *matai* (8.7%) living in the country from a total population of 180,741. Of the total number of *matai*, 12,589 (79.8%) were male and 3,194 (20.2%) were female.[4]

The *Fa'amatai* system has been greatly impacted upon by colonialism as well as Samoa's modern politics which came into effect when the country gained independence in 1962.



Three *matai*, the two older men bearing the symbols of orator chief status – the *fue* (flywhisk made of organic sennit rope with a wooden handle) over their left shoulder. The central elder holds the orator's wooden staff (*to'oto'o*) of office and wears an 'ie toga, fine matting. The other two men wear tapa cloth with patterned designs.



The architecture of Samoa dictate seating areas for *matai* and orators according to their status, rank, role and ceremony.

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Governance

Samoa's chiefly system revolves around family (*'aiga*) kinship, based on the culture's communal and extended family relationships. The term '*aiga* includes not only the immediate family (father, mother and children), but also the whole union of families of a clan and even those who although not related are subject to the family control.[5]



Lepea village with round meeting houses where *matai* meetings take place and open commons area (*malae*) for outdoor ceremonies.

At the local level, much of the country's civil and criminal matters are dealt with by some 360 village chief councils, *Fono o Matai*, according to traditional law, a practice further strengthened by the 1990 Village Fono Law.[6]

Most Samoans live in villages consisting of groups of families with close ties and history. The influence of the *matai* is felt not only in the village but also in the district and even beyond. The active factor in the life of the village is the village council or *fono o matai* and its members are the *matai*. The *fono of matai* is the executive and judicial authority[7] of every village in Samoa. If a matter is of importance the assembly is held on the *malae*, the open space in front of the village.

The speakers address the assembly and stand to do so. The listeners are comfortably seated on mats. Those not taking part in these assemblies are described as *tagatanu'u* (people of the village) and include untitled men, women and children. Democratic ideas do not prevail at these *fono*s and decisions are independent of majority or minority rule. The decision of one or more *matai sili* (senior *matai*) is decisive. The remainder who are merely at the *fono* to listen, agree with the decisions given. It is permissible for the minor *matai* to discuss the matter with and endeavour to try to influence the *matai sili* before the *fono* commences.

Before the *fono* commences preliminary councils are held (*taupulega*) by the different groups and at these

councils the single family heads exchange opinions and endeavour to convince each other and to create harmony in order that when the actual *fono* eventuates everything will move smoothly. Some *matai* are permitted to speak at these *fono* without having any right to make a decision.[5]

The 2006 census of Samoa also revealed that 96% of the country's *matai* were actively involved in village activities as part of their *matai* responsibilities. The 4% 'not active' was explained as possibly due to the *matai* holding more than one title or living away from the village where their title belonged.[4]

Authority

The authority of the *matai* has some limits. They are called upon to discuss all important matters with everyone of significance belonging to the family union. If the matter is of minor importance and only of interest to the immediate village family, more distant relations may be omitted from discussion. *Matai* subject to a senior *matai* (*matai sili*) are independent in family matters concerning their own single family unless they have a *tuaigoa* shared title name only, in which case they are not referred to at all in family matters and may be deprived of their names at the will of their superior at any time.

Modern politics

Main article: Politics of Samoa


Government Building in the capital Apia housing administrative ministerial offices.

The *fa'amatai* system is entrenched in Samoan politics. From the country's independence in 1962, only *matai* could vote and stand as candidates in elections to parliament. In 1990, the voting system was changed by the Electoral Amendment Act which introduced universal suffrage and the right to vote for adults aged 21-years and over. However, the right to stand for elections remains with *matai*, who are themselves selected by consensus of their families, including non-matai family members. Therefore, every Samoan Member of Parliament is also a *matai*, performing dual roles as a 'chief' as well as duties in the Samoan parliament.[3] This applies to most Samoans in positions of public responsibility from the Prime Minister of Samoa to the country's Head of State, who is referred to as *O le Ao o le Malo* (the chieftain of the government).

Colonial influences



Coat of arms of German Samoa.

As *matai* are the heads of their families representing their villages, communities and districts, important high ranking title holders played significant roles in colonial politics with the advent of western powers and rivalry from the 19th century.

The colonial era saw Britain, Germany and the United States supporting different *matai* such as Mata'afa Iosefo and the youthful Malietoa Tanumafili I to gain political territory over Samoa. This led to the colonial powers bestowing the European title of king upon their own candidate during the tumultous years of the late 19th century, leading to warring among competing high ranking *matai* in different districts.

The Samoan term *tupu*, referring to paramount status over a particular region or the entire island group, has sometimes been translated incorrectly to the English language as 'king' in the European sense.[8] The relatively brief usage of the term 'king' died out with the end of colonialism.

In the early 20th century, *matai* leadership also played a pivotal role in the pro-independence Mau movement which eventually led to Samoa's independence in 1962.

Matai title



High chief Seumanutafa Pogai of Apia, circa 1890–1910. (photo by Thomas Andrew)

Each *matai* has a name (*suafa*) by and through which they exercise their rights in the family over which they preside. *Matai* names are for the most part very old ones and are handed down from generation to generation. *Matai* titles can be bestowed on one person or numerous family members who are distinguished from each other by their Christian name.

It is common for each '*aiga* to have a number of *matai* titles, however, one particular title will be the most important and serve as the main *matai* title. The title of a family *matai* which is peculiar and particular to that family is the subject of tradition and is faithfully recorded by the family and passed on from generation to generation.

It sometimes happens that new names are for some reason taken and the old ones discarded or passed on to lesser or junior chiefs.

In Samoan culture, the concept of serving and taking on the responsibility for the welfare of the family is integral to the *fa'amatai* system. Various members of the family are called upon in turn to support their *matai* in carrying out their role and responsibilities according to Samoan tradition, cultural obligations and duty.[5] This often involves the family contributing money and important cultural items such as *'ie toga* (fine mats) as well as food which the *matai* presents on behalf of the '*aiga* to ensure the family's obligations are met in their village or wider community.

Men and women have equal rights to *matai* titles in Samoa, although the role of women in Samoan society means female *matai* comprise a relatively small percentage.

Before the advent of European contact and influence, the authority (*pule*) of the *matai* extended to life and limb but this power has been altered and absorbed by a Western-style modern government (referred to as the *malo*) where the *matai*'s authority is confined and balanced against the national governance.

Ali'i and *tulafale*



Coat of Arms of American

There are two types of *matai*: *ali'i* (loosely translated *chief* or *high chief* depending on a specific title's rank) and *tulafale* (orator chief).[8]

In former times the term *matai* applied only to *tulafale*, but over time the term has become applied to *ali'i* generally.[5]

Samoan *gafa* (pedigree, ancestors, descent) is central to family kinship and will usually commence from the person who first brought the name into prominence and caused it to be respected. It does not necessarily mean that the family commenced from the institution of a name or that the individual holding the title was the founder of the family. Former *matai* of the family have by comparison become unimportant and their names have fallen into

disuse or become uninfluential.

The wife of an *ali'i* is referred to as *faletua*. The wife of a *tulafale* (orator status *matai*) is referred to as *tausi*.[9]

Samoa showing the symbols of *matai* status - *to'oto'o* orator's staff and *fue* fly whisk. The round *tanoa* (or *laulau*) vessel represents the 'ava ceremony, central to Samoan traditions.

Orator chiefs

Central to Samoan culture is the recording of history and genealogy which was achieved through oral history before the introduction of a written language. Orator chiefs (*tulafale*) and speakers (*failauga* - 'speech-maker') are terms used for Samoans holding the position of speakers or mouthpieces of chiefs and they are found in all villages. Important *matai* titles are also tied to certain orator *matai* titles. Orators serve the means of conveying the wishes of chiefs to the people or speaking on behalf of the family, village or district on important occasions. The orator is the recorder of family histories and pedigree (*fa'alupega*), genealogies (*gafa*) and events and is indispensable at public ceremonies. There are many Samoan public events at which the distribution of mats will take place. Many of these mats, particularly the fine mats (*'ie toga*), are valued very highly both from a monetary point of view and also from a historical and sentimental viewpoint. The more important mats bear respected names. The most noteworthy occasions on which mats are presented are marriages, births and deaths and the bestowal of a chiefly title.[5]

Customary land

The *matai* of the family is the administrator and representative of the family property which includes customary land. Most of the population in Samoa, 65% overall, live with their families in villages on customary land. However, the 2006 Samoa census showed that 34 out of 48 political districts had more than 80% of households living on customary land with the lowest figures (25%) in the more densely concentrated urbanised area around the capital Apia. On the island of Savai'i, where there are less people and fewer signs of western material culture, 93% of the 43,142 population live on customary land.[4]



View in Safune village.

Looking after the collective family land is one of the most important responsibilities of Samoan families and their *matai*.

A *matai* may make their wishes known and bequeath certain property to others such as a married daughter, but they cannot transfer land rights beyond their own.[5] Under the management of one or more *matai* the lands are divided amongst the various families for their own use and are viewed by these family members as their unassailable rights.



Apolima Tai village in Apolima Island, (1890 - 1910).

A Samoan proverb highlighting the importance of land in Samoa reads, *E le soifua umi le tagata fa'atau fanua* (The man who sells family land will not live to an old age - devils will bring about his early death).

With most of the country's land under customary ownership, the position of the *matai* is significant in modern day politics in Samoa in terms of the nation's economic development, conservation, sustainability, tourism, national infrastructure and access to natural resources such as water, forestry, road access, agriculture and farming.

An example in recent years is the *matai* from the village of Sili on the island of Savai'i turning down a government proposal to build a hydroelectric plant on village land because of environmental concerns.[10] In contrast, the *matai* in Sasina have agreed with government support to an unprecedented 120-year lease of prime oceanfront land to an American company to build a tourism resort estimated to cost US$450–500 million.[11] In conservation, the villages of Uafato in the Va'a-o-Fonoti district at the east end of Upolu[12] island and Falealupo at the west end of Savai'i have agreed to conservation covenants for their native forests.

Much of the land under the government today was alienated or sold during colonialism[13] and later came under the Samoa government when the colonial era ended. This includes large tracts of plantation land from the 19th century as well as later periods of colonial administration including German Samoa (1900–1914) followed by the New Zealand administration.

This has resulted in ongoing court cases for land claims between *matai* and the government, such as that of the village of Satapuala over land by Faleolo International Airport, disputes which directly impact upon the country's national infrastructure.

Matai selection



Young Samoan women preparing *'ava*, 1909

In effect, every Samoan, male or female, is an heir to a *matai* title pertaining to their kinship and ancestry. However, *matai* titles are not automatically passed from a *matai* to their children or direct descendants but are bestowed upon those whom the extended family agree will best serve their needs while also ensuring that different branches of the family are represented. A recent example of this Samoan custom and law is the stripping of the important Malietoa title from the son of the previous title holder, the late Head of State, Malietoa Tanumafili II (1913–2007). Following Malietoa Tanumafili II's death in 2007, one branch of the family bestowed the title upon his son Papali'i Fa'amausili Moli in the village of Malie. The other branches of the family filed petitions at the Samoa Land and Titles Court claiming the bestowal invalid in breach of Samoan law. In June 2008, the court agreed and ruled the bestowal of the Malietoa title upon the son illegal,[14] highlighting the unique nature of *matai* selection based on consensus, merit, custom and due process rather than automatic hereditary selection. Other cultural factors can also play a part in the complex decision making process including seniority in age (an important factor in Samoan society), leadership qualities, oratory and an individual's ability to contribute to the family's overall circumstances and well-being.

Title bestowal

See also: Samoa 'ava ceremony



Woven fine mat ('ie toga) which have an important cultural value in

Matai titles (*suafa*, literally "formal name") are bestowed upon family members during a cultural ceremony called a *saofa'i* which occurs only after discussion and consensus within the family. The *saofa'i* is a solemn ceremony which marks the formal acceptance of a new *matai* by their family and village into the circle of chiefs and orators. It involves the gathering of chiefs and orators in a *fale tele* meeting house, the exchanging of oratory speeches, the reciting of genealogies and a kava ceremony followed by a feast provided by the new *matai*'s family.[15] Architecture of Samoa dictates seating positions inside the meeting house during the title bestowal including the position of those making the kava being situated at

the rear. Once the ceremony is completed, the new *matai* is henceforth called by their new name.

Samoa.

In New Zealand, more people born in Samoa than any other foreign country officially change their names with the Department of Internal Affairs and it is believed that many of these are adding *matai* titles.[16]

Non-Samoans

Matai titles are sometimes conferred upon non-Samoans as an honour by Samoan families and their villages. An example is the title of 'Seiuli' conferred in 1993 by Samoa's Head of State, Malietoa Tanumafili II upon Barry Curtis, at the time Mayor of Manukau, a New Zealand city with a large Samoan population. Other non-Samoan New Zealanders bestowed with *matai* titles include prime ministers Robert Muldoon, David Lange and Jim Bolger, politician Winston Peters[17] and Auckland businessman Dick Hubbard who holds the title 'Galumalemana.' [18] In 1988, American ethnobotanist Paul Alan Cox received a title from the village of Falealupo, where Cox had lived for many years and later helped to set up a covenant to protect the native rainforest.[19] In 1978, the Governor-General of Fiji, Ratu Sir George Cakobau was bestowed the title 'Peseta' by Matautu on Savai'i island during his visit to Tui Fiti's sacred ground.[20]

Naming convention

A *matai* title is always first in naming convention as the most important name for a titled individual. When a person is appointed a *matai*, they retain their Christian name in addition to their new *matai* title. The *matai* title is appended to the beginning of their name so that their Christian name follows their new *matai* title. As one person may hold a number of different *matai* names from different branches of their genealogy, the new names are also added before their Christian name, with no set order in terms of general usage. An example is Mata'afa Faumuina Fiame Mulinu'u I whose first three names reveal individual high chief titles and thereby his genealogy and the different villages and families to which he belonged; the **Faumuina** title from Lepea, the **Fiame** title from Lotofaga and the Mata'afa title, one of the paramount names in the country.

As more than one family member can be bestowed the same *matai* title, each person's Christian name serves to distinguish them from each other. Dividing a family title so that it is shared among more than one family member is also agreed upon by consensus. The Samoans explain this by saying that a man has a *fasi igoa* – a piece of the title.[5]

Usoali'i refers to brother chiefs, those men in the family union holding *matai* names. They may all enjoy the same rights or be under the control of one *matai* who is termed *sao*, in which case the other chiefs are referred to as *tuaigoa*.

Women *matai*

Of Samoa's total population of 180,741 (2006 census), 87,064 were female, comprising 48% of the population. The male (52%) to female (48%) ratio for the country is higher than the world ratio. In 2006, there were 3,194 female *matai*, 20.2% of the 15,783 *matai* living in the country.[4]

A woman can hold a *matai* name and have the *pule* (authority) of the family but this does not often occur. Should she have both she will usually bestow her *matai* title on one of her family, probably her husband, and retain the *pule*.

In 2006, there were four female Members of Parliament in Samoa and three were cabinet ministers out of a 13-member cabinet.[4]

Prominent women *matai* in Samoa include scholar and historian Aiono Fanaafi Le Tagaloa (*matai* title **Aiono**), high chief and senior cabinet minister Fiame Naomi Mata'afa (*matai* title **Fiame**), politician Safuneitu'uga Pa'aga Neri (*matai* title **Safuneitu'uga**) and writer Letuimanu'asina Emma Kruse Va'ai (*matai* title **Letuimanu'asina**).

With many Samoans also living overseas in other countries, other prominent Samoan female *matai* includes New Zealand former Member of Parliament Luamanuvao Winnie Laban (*matai* title **Luamanuvao**).

Old age

Seniority in years and old age is a respectful status in Samoan society where elders, a familiar or complete stranger, are referred to as *tamā* (father) or *tinā* (mother). In this cultural context, a retired *matai* usually enjoys the respect of their family and is referred to as the *faʻatonutonu folau*, the steersperson of the boat. In this case they do not actually do the steering but ttheir advice is listened to and their family profits from their ripe experience.

Untitled men

The Samoan appellation for a male person who is not a *matai* is a *taule'ale'a*. The real meaning of the word, which is derived from the word *le'ale'a* (immature), is a young man who has not reached maturity. It is now-a-days applied to any male person who is not a *matai*. In the past the term was sometimes used to indicate that any male person, even a *matai*, was not an old man. In this sense, *taule'ale'a* signifies young or comparatively young, just as *toea'ina* is used to signify that a man is aged or elderly (a respectful status in Samoa) whether he be a *matai* or a *taule'ale'a*.



Young man dressed as a *manaia*, the son of a Samoan chief, in ceremonial attire including an elaborate headdress (*tuiga*), circa 1890–1910. (photo by Thomas Andrew)

It is permissible for a *taule'ale'a* (an untitled man) to change his name as often as he wishes. A chance remark or an outstanding incident will often be the determining factor in naming a *taule'ale'a*. This can apply to everyone else, including females in Samoa, where a family member, especially a child, might be called a new name to commemorate an important occasion.

Disputes resolution

Disputes over *matai* titles which cannot be resolved among family members within the wide extended 'aiga are dealt with by the Samoa Land and Titles Court which consists of cultural and judicial experts appointed by the Supreme Court of Samoa.

The Land and Titles Court hears disputes over *matai* title succession as well as disagreements pertaining to customary land.[21] The court derives from the Native Land and Titles Court put in place under the colonial German administration in 1901. Samoa's political stability is thought to be due in large part to the success of this court in hearing disputes.

See also

O le Ao o le Malo

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

See also: Fa'amatai

O le Ao o le Malo is the Samoan head of state, which is the title's rough translation. (A more literal translation might be "the chieftain of the government" — *ao* is a title generally reserved for chiefs (*matai*), while *malo* means "government").[1][2] The O le Ao o le Malo is styled as *His Highness*.

The position is provided for in Part III of the 1960 Samoan constitution.[3] At the time the constitution was adopted it was anticipated that future heads of state would be chosen from among the four Tama-a-Aiga "royal" paramount chiefs. However, this is not required by the constitution and for this reason Samoa can be considered a republic rather than a constitutional monarchy like the United Kingdom. The government Press Secretariat describes O le Ao o le Malo as a "ceremonial president". The current O le Ao o le Malo is Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi, who was elected to a five year term on 16 June 2007.[4]

O le Ao o le Malo of the Independent State of Samoa



Seal of Government of the Independent State of Samoa



Incumbent
Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi
since 20 June 2007

Term length	Five years, renewable once
Inaugural holder	Malietoa Tanumafili II and Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole
Formation	1 January 1962

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History

When Samoa became independent in 1962, the two highest[5] of the four paramount chiefs (Tama a Aiga) — Malietoa Tanumafili and Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole, were jointly named to the office by the 1960 Constitution for life. Each respectively represented the Malietoa and Tupua, which have been described as the "two main family lineages" of Samoa.[6] They were jointly known as O Ao o le Malo and severally as O le Ao o le Malo.[3] Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole died a year later in 1963, leaving Malietoa Tanumafili as the sole holder of the office until his death in 2007, aged 95.[7][8] His replacement, Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi, who had served two prior terms as Prime Minister of Samoa, was elected by the Samoan Legislative Assembly, called the Fono, as the third O le Ao o le Malo, for a five year term beginning on 20 June 2007.[4] He is the elder son of Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole.

Qualifications

Article 18 of the Samoan constitution sets the qualifications for the position of O le Ao o le Malo. The O le Ao o le Malo must:

- be qualified to be elected as a Member of Parliament
- possess such qualifications as the Fono may determine from time to time by resolution
- not have been previously removed from the office of the Head of State on the grounds of misbehavior or infirmity.[3]

Term of office

The O le Ao o le Malo is elected by the Fono for five years and can be reelected. The exceptions to this were Malietoa Tanumafili and Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole, who were made exempt to the five year term provided for in Article 19.[3] The constitution does not set forth a limit on the number of terms an O le Ao o le Malo can serve. There is an understanding that the office is to alternate between the Malietoa and Tupua families.[6]

Removal from office can occur in four ways:

- resignation
- removal by the Fono on the grounds of misbehavior or mental or physical infirmity
- approval by two thirds of the Fono of a resolution for removal that is proposed and supported by at least a fourth of its members following at least 14 days between the notice of motion and debate on the motion[3]
- death

Duties and powers

The position is that of a ceremonial president, with actual power being held by the Prime Minister, whom the O le Ao o le Malo appoints on the recommendation of the Fono. While the O le Ao o le Malo "does not play an active role in government", he can dissolve the Fono and no act of parliament will become law without his approval.[9] The O le Ao o le Malo can also grant pardons.[10]

List of officeholders

#	Incumbent	Took Office	Left Office	Notes
1	Malietoa Tanumafili II	1 January 1962	11 May 2007	Elected for Life. Served jointly with Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole to 5 April 1963. Died in office.
	Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole		5 April 1963	Elected for Life. Served jointly with Malietoa Tanumafili II. Died in office.
–	Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi	11 May 2007	20 June 2007	Acting (members of the Council of Deputies).
	Tuimaleali'ifano Va'aletoa Sualauvi II			

2	Tui Atua Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi	20 June 2007	Incumbent	Elected for 5 years.

See also

- Samoa
  - Politics of Samoa
  - List of colonial heads of Samoa
  - Prime Minister of Samoa
- Lists of Incumbents

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External links

- Office of the Head of State of the Independent State of Samoa (http://www.head-of-state-samoa.ws)
- Former office of the Head of State (http://www.headofstate.ws/)

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=O_le_Ao_o_le_Malo&oldid=458381275"
Categories: Lists of heads of state | Government of Samoa | O le Ao o le Malo of Samoa | Samoan chiefs | Samoan words and phrases

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Tufuga Efi

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi, also known as **Tuiatua Tupua Tamasese Efi,**[1][2] and formerly known as **Tupuola Efi**, (born March 1, 1938) is a Samoan political figure who has been Samoa's head of state since 2007. Previously he was Prime Minister of Samoa from 1976 to 1982 and again later in 1982.

On 16 June 2007 he was elected as O le Ao o le Malo, Samoa's head of state, for a five-year term.[3] He was officially sworn in as O le Ao o le Malo at Samoa's Parliament (Fono) on 20 June 2007.[1]

He is a member of one of the paramount Families of State (Aiga Tupu) where he holds the Tupua title of the *SaTupua* 'royal' family. He also holds the *Tama-a-Aiga Tamasese* title and the title of "*Tui Atua*".

Tupua first entered parliament and became Prime Minister under the title Tupuola.

Contents

- 1 Early and personal life
- 2 Prime Minister of Samoa
- 3 O le Ao o le Malo (Head of state)
- 4 Academia
- 5 Publications
- 6 Family tree
- 7 See also
- 8 References
- 9 External links

Early and personal life

Tupua was born on March 1, 1938 at Moto'otua in Samoa.[1] He is the son of Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole and Noue Irene Gustava Ta'isi Nelson.[1]

Tupua attended primary school at the Marist Brothers School at Mulivai in the Samoan capital of Apia. He continued his education at St. Patrick's College in Silverstream, Wellington, New Zealand.[1] He was also educated at Victoria University

Tuiatua Tupua Tamasese Ta'isi Tufuga Tupuola Efi



O le Ao o le Malo of Samoa

Incumbent

Assumed office

11 May 2007

Acting until 20 June 2007

Prime Minister	Tuilaepa Aiono Sailele Malielegaoi
Preceded by	Malietoa Tanumafili II

Prime Minister of Samoa

In office

24 March 1976 – 13 April 1982

Monarch	Malietoa Tanumafili II
Preceded by	Tupua Tamasese Lealofi IV (Acting)
Succeeded by	Va'ai Kolone

In office

18 September 1982 – 31 December 1982

Monarch	Malietoa Tanumafili II
Preceded by	Va'ai Kolone
Succeeded by	Tofilau Eti Alesana

Personal details

Born	1 March 1938 Moto'otua, Samoa

of Wellington,[1] in New Zealand's capital city.

Tupua is married to Her Highness Masiofo Filifilia Imo,[1] who is also known as Masiofo Filifilia Tamasese.[1]

Tupua has been described as a defender and proponent of the Samoan language.

Political party	Samoan National Development Party Christian Democratic Party
Spouse(s)	Masiofo Filifilia Imo

Prime Minister of Samoa

Tupua began his political career in 1966 when he became an MP in Samoa's Fono, or Parliament.[1] He represented the Anoama'a East constituency[1] as MP as a member of the Christian Democratic Party. He served as Samoa's Minister of Works from 1970 until 1972.[1]

Tupua served as Prime Minister for two consecutive terms from 1976 to 1982.[1] He also served as Deputy Prime Minister from 1985 to 1988.[2] It was during his second term as Prime Minister that the Public Service Association went on a general strike in 1981, paralyzing the country for several months and paving the way for the opposition Human Rights Protection Party's entry to government in 1982. The Human Rights Protection Party still governs Samoa today.

Tupua became Leader of the Opposition following his Christian Democratic Party's election defeat in 1982.[1] He also headed the Samoan National Development Party. He continued to serve Anoama'a East as MP until 2004[1] when he became one of the two members of Samoa's Council of Deputies along with Tuimaleali'ifano Va'aletoa Sualauvi II.[2] Both Efi and Va'aletoa served as temporary acting heads of state (O le Ao o le Malo) following the death of Malietoa Tanumafili II in May 2007.[2]

O le Ao o le Malo (Head of state)

On May 11, 2007, following the death of Malietoa Tanumafili II, Samoa's head of state since independence in 1962, Tupua became one of the two acting heads of state as a member of the Council of Deputies.[2] Tupua was elected Head of state on 16 June 2007. His was the only nomination put forth in Samoa's Fono (parliament) and thus the decision was unanimous. His election was welcomed by many Samoans in New Zealand.[4] He was officially sworn into office on 20 June 2007.[5]

Academia

Tupua has held a number of academic positions during and after his political career as an MP and Prime Minister.

Tupua has served as an adjunct professor for Te Whare Wananga o Awanuiarangi in New Zealand.[1] He later went on to serve as an Associate Member of the Matahauariki Institute at Waikato University.[1] Additionally, he has held a position as PhD examiner at Australian National University in Canberra for Pacific and Samoan history.[1]

Tupua is a former resident scholar of the Pacific Studies Centre of the Australian National University and the Macmillan Brown Centre for Pacific Studies at University of Canterbury in New Zealand.[1]

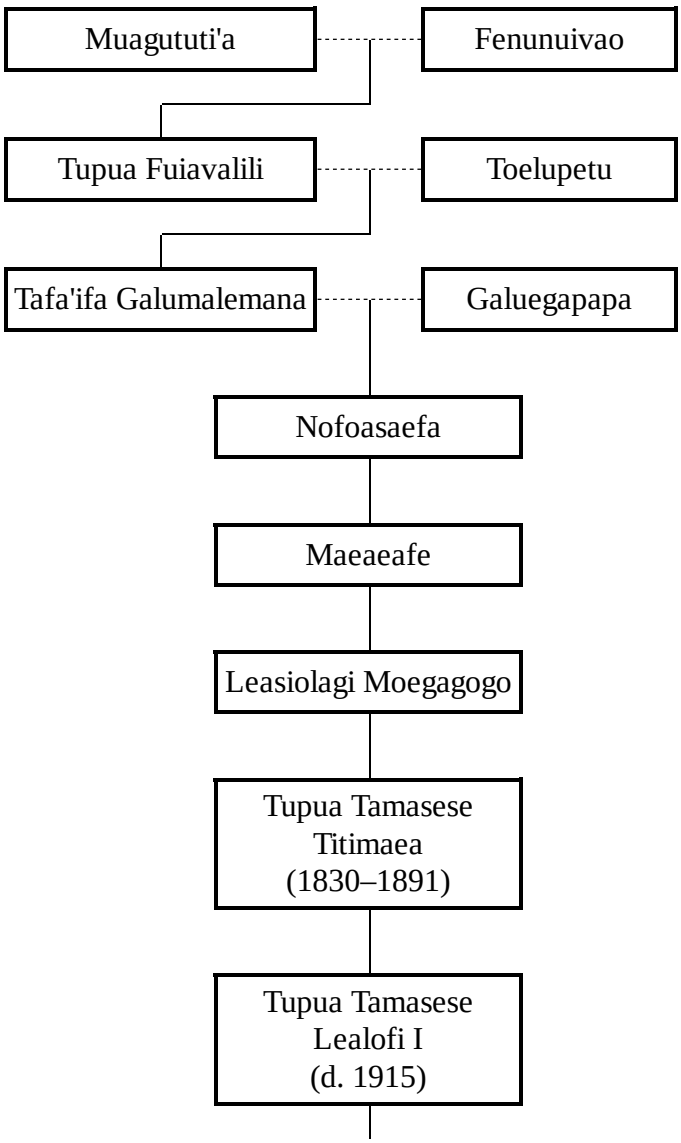
Tupua has helped to begin excavations at Samoa's important Pulemelei Mound archaeological site. Samoans, under Tupua Tamasese, carried out a ceremony to honor Thor Heyerdahl for his contributions to Polynesia and the Pulemelei Mound excavations in 2003.[1] (http://www.kon-tiki.no/Events/indexeng.html)

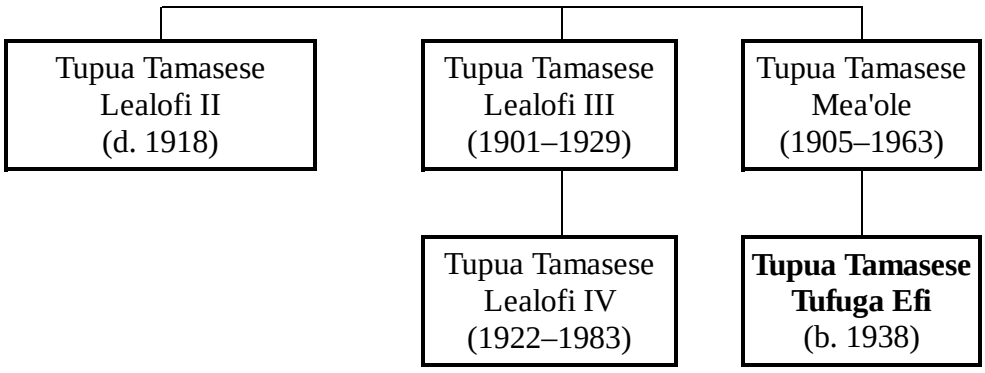
In late 2007 Tupua established an overseas Boarding School Scholarship to St. Patrick's College, Silverstream, which allows one student per year to live and be schooled in New Zealand for the entirety of their college years, beginning in 2008.[6] Reaction to this saw a media storm as well as a flurry of Samoans living in Wellington to assemble at at the college. Attendees included Prime Minister Helen Clark, Catholic Archbishop John Dew and Victoria University of Wellington professor Galumalemale Hunkin. His visit back to Silverstream was timely as this was also the first year that a Samoan student was appointed Head Boy, Sofara Aiono and student leaders Johnson Taeao and Lafaele Mapusua-Faitoto'a.

Publications

Tupua is a writer and author due to his experiences in government and academia. He has written three books, as well as numerous scholarly journals and publications.[1]

Family tree





See also

- Fa'amatai, chiefly system of Samoa.
- Legislative Assembly of Samoa

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External links

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Political offices		
Preceded by **Malietoa Tanumafili II**	**O le Ao o le Malo of Samoa** 2007–present	**Incumbent**
Preceded by **Lealofi-o-a'ana**	**Prime Minister of Samoa** 1976–1982	Succeeded by **Va'ai Kolone**
Preceded by **Va'ai Kolone**	**Prime Minister of Samoa** 1982	Succeeded by **Tofilau Eti Alesana**

Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Tupua Tamasese Lealofi-o-a'ana IV**	**Tupua Tamasese** 1983–present	**Incumbent**

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Categories: Members of the Legislative Assembly of Samoa | O le Ao o le Malo of Samoa | Prime Ministers of Samoa | Current national leaders | 1938 births | Living people | Former students of St. Patrick's College, Silverstream | Samoan chiefs | Samoan National Development Party politicians | Samoan people of Swedish descent | Christian Democratic Party (Samoa) politicians

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Malietoa Tanumafili II

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Malietoa Tanumafili II, GCMG, CBE (4 January 1913 – 11 May 2007), also called **Susuga**, was the Malietoa, the title of one of Samoa's four paramount chiefs,[1] and the head of state, or *O le Ao o le Malo*, a position that he held for life, of Samoa from 1962 to 2007. He was co-chief of state in 1962 and became the sole head of state on 15 April 1963.[2] At the time of his death, he was the oldest national leader in the world.

Malietoa Tanumafili II



Malietoa of Samoa

Reign	5th July 1939 - 11th May 2007
Predecessor	Malietoa Tanumafili I
	Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi (as head of state)
Father	Malietoa Tanumafili I
Mother	Momoe Lupeuluiva Meleisea
Born	4 January 1913 Samoa
Died	11 May 2007 (aged 94) Apia, Samoa
Burial	Mulinu'u

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- 1 Early and personal life
- 2 Public life
- 3 Death
  - 3.1 Funeral
  - 3.2 International reaction
- 4 Honours
- 5 See also
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- 7 References

Early and personal life

He was born in 1913 as the son and third child of his parents, Malietoa Tanumafili I and Momoe Lupeuluiva Meleisea. He became the Mālietoa in 1940 following his father's death in 1939.

Tanumafili was educated at the government run Leififi School in Samoa. He went on to enroll at St. Stephen's School and Wesley College in Pukekohe, both of which are in New Zealand. Malietoa was an active athlete during his younger years. His favorite sports included boxing, rugby and cricket.[3] Malietoa's interest in sports continued throughout his life and he was an avid golfer well into his 90s. He could often be seen driving his golf cart around Samoa.[1]

His wife, Lili Tunu, died in 1986.[4] Tanumafili had nine surviving children at the time of his death in 2007: Su'a Vainuupo, Faamausili Moli, Papali'itele Titiuatoa, Papali'itele Ioane, Papali'itele Douglas (sons) and Seiuli Tutai, Lola Tosi and Momoe (daughters). One child died in infancy, while his sons, Papaliitele Eti,died in 2005, Papali'itele Molioo Laupepa, died in 1985.[5][6]

Malietoa Tanumafili II was a follower of the Bahá'í Faith. He was the second royal (after Queen Marie of

Romania) to be a member of that religion. The Bahá'í House of Worship in Tiapapata, eight kilometers from the country's capital of Apia, was dedicated by him in 1984.

Public life


Malietoa Tanumafili II

Tanumafili officially inherited the royal title of Malietoa in 1940, following the 1939 death of his father, Malietoa Tanumafili I,[7] though some media reports claim that he received the title of Malietoa in 1939. Soon after becoming Malietoa, he was appointed to serve as a special adviser, also called *Fautua*,[8] to the New Zealand administration and governor of Samoa, known as the New Zealand Trusteeship of Samoa, until independence in 1962.[7]

Upon Samoa's independence in 1962, Malietoa Tanumafili II became joint O le Ao o le Malo, or head of state, with Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole. Tanumafili and Mea'ole would rule jointly as head of state for just 16 months.[1] When Mea'ole died in 1963, Tanumafili became the sole Samoan head of state, a post he held for life until his death in 2007. He is often credited for providing much of the stability that Samoa has enjoyed post independence.

Malietoa traveled extensively during his reign as the Samoan head of state (O le Ao o le Malo). He traveled to the People's Republic of China for an official state visit in 1976. Additionally, during his reign he also visited Australia, Fiji, Hawai'i, Japan, New Zealand, South Korea, Tonga, the United Kingdom and the former West Germany. Malietoa Tanumafili was among the foreign dignitaries who attended the funeral of Japanese Emperor Showa in 1989.[3]

Malietoa Tanumafili II was described as the last survivor of a generation of important Pacific leaders who guided their countries and peoples from colonialism to independence.[9] His death was the latest in a string of recent, high profile passings of members of this Pacific generation of leaders, which included the late Fijian president, Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara, the King of Tonga, Taufa'ahau Tupou IV, and New Zealand's Maori Queen, Dame Te Atairangikaahu.[10]

Death



Obverse of a 1976 tala depicting Malietoa Tanumafili II.

Malietoa Tanumafili II died at 6:45 P.M. on Friday 11 May 2007, at the Tupua Tamasese Meaole National Hospital at Moto'otua in Apia, Samoa. He was being treated as a patient for pneumonia at the hospital for approximately a week.[11] The cause of his death was from a heart attack.

His death was announced by Samoan Secretary of State Vaasatia Poloma Komiti on SBC TV1. "It is with deepest regret that we inform you of the passing of our Head of State Malietoa Tanumafili II."[12]

Malietoa Tanumafili II was the world's third longest reigning living monarch at the time of his death in May 2007 after Thailand's King Bhumibol Adulyadej, who has reigned since 1946 and Britain's Queen Elizabeth II, who has reigned since 1952.[13]

Funeral

Samoa entered a state of official mourning from the time of the Malietoa's death until his official funeral. All Samoan flags were lowered to half mast in his honour and remembrance. According to tradition, thousands of Samoans were expected to wear white and black as a sign of respect for the Malietoa from 15 May until his state funeral on May 18. The government of Samoa encouraged traditional Samoan dress for the funeral. Samoans were requested specifically to wear "a black lavalava or sulu and a white top with traditional elei patterns." Samoans were also asked to include the teuila flower, the national flower of Samoa, with their mourning attire.[14]

Malietoa Tanumafili II's body was taken from a private funeral home (Ligaliga Funeral) to his residence at Fa'ato'ialemanu on 16 May, which marked the beginning of his funeral services. Hundreds of the Malietoa's close and extended relatives, including his children, attended a special private family service that night.

The State funeral was a rare occasion when ancient rituals and exchanges were made to the Sa Malietoa (the national political 'family' or clan from which the Malietoa title belongs). Traditional cultural presentations (or Si'i Fa'atupu) from other districts and clans from within Samoa were made and ancient funeral rites were performed. The delegation (or auala) from Lufilufi, representing the TuiAtua, circled the Maota of Malietoa at Faatoialemanu where the late Malietoa lay in state, chanting the ancient funeral chants associated with the district of Atua and its relationship with the district of Tuamasaga (where the Malietoa is the paramount title). Traditional delegations representing the Tongan Royal Family and the Fijian Great Council of Chiefs also made cultural presentations to reflect the ancient genealogical ties between Samoa and her southern neighbours Tonga and Fiji.

The major village of the Malietoa title, Malie, played a major role in funeral ceremonies and exchanges. The 'aumaga (untitled men) of Malie, called the Aumaga a Laauli, and the 'aumaga (untitled men) of Falealili, called the Manu Samoa, provided hundreds of traditional guards in and around the compounds where the Malietoa lay in state. They also patrolled the roads around Faatoialemanu and provided escorting duties whenever the body was moved. On the day of the funeral the grounds of Tiafau Malae where the funeral was held were guarded by 300 men of the Aumaga a Laauli. Presiding over the body was the Salelesi (the ancient 'dog' of the Malietoa, from the village of Salelesi (District of Atua). His role is to guard the body and escort it into the tomb. All villages in the District of Tuamasaga and other villages connected to the Malietoa title cut palm leaves and branches of hundreds of coconut trees and laid them by the side of main roads in an ancient mark of mourning for the death of a paramount chief.

[15]

His body was then moved to the Samoan Parliament to lie in state on 17 May.

His funeral was held on 18 May in Apia.[16]

International reaction

American Samoa - **Governor Togiola Tulafono** stated: "I offer my condolence to the people and government of Samoa on the passing of His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili. May God guide the people of Samoa as they mourn his passing."[13] Many American Samoans considered Tanumafili to be the father of both Samoa and American Samoa. Tanumafili was a frequent visitor to the American territory's Flag Day celebrations.

Federated States of Micronesia - Newly elected Micronesian **President Manny Mori** sent a letter to Samoan Prime Minister Tuila'epa Sailele Malielegaoi stating that Malietoa Tanumafili II was a "great leader and

pioneer of Samoa...As a great leader of the Independent State of Samoa, His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili II was one of the prominent Samoan leaders leading up to its Independence in 1962...His wisdom, leadership and dedication contributed to the forgoing and eventual inception of the Samoan Nation...Our thoughts and prayers are with you during this time of national mourning."[17]


Malietoa Tanumafili II

New Zealand - **Prime Minister Helen Clark** reacted to the news of Tanumafili's death: "Through his long reign as Head of State, Malietoa represented Samoa with wisdom, humour and insight...Malietoa was educated at St. Stephens School near Auckland. He was a great friend of New Zealand as Head of State, and was well known to successive New Zealand governments and diplomats...It is significant that New Zealand has a Treaty of Friendship with only one country- Samoa- and our shared unique relationship was due in no small part to Malietoa's influence as a father of modern Samoa. New Zealanders of Samoan descent, together with their palagi counterparts, will be thinking of Samoa, at this sad time."[12]

South Africa - **President Thabo Mbeki** issued a statement of support to Samoan government: "It is with a sense of great sadness and shock that we have learnt of the passing away of His Highness, King Malietoa Tanumafili II on Friday, 11 May 2007. Despite this sad loss to the Samoan nation and people, the King will be long remembered for his passionate and committed service to Samoa and the broader Pacific Islands region...It was a testimony to his astute leadership that for the past 15 years Samoa had stood as a beacon of hope, stability and progress in the Pacific. South Africa therefore applauded the achievements of the King for having been a powerful and resonating voice for democracy and good governance as well as in articulating the development challenges unique to small developing island states."[18]

Bahá'í International Community - The governing body of the Bahá'ís, the Universal House of Justice wrote: "His service to the people of Samoa as Head of State was distinguished by the high principles, genuine compassion and personal humility that characterized the constancy of his concern for the welfare of all. As the first reigning sovereign to accept the Message of Bahá'u'lláh, he set a record that will forever illumine the annals of our Faith, one that future generations will increasingly extol. His great interest for well-nigh four decades in the Faith's progress was reflected in the enthusiastic affirmation of his belief whenever the opportunity presented itself and in the abiding joy with which he regarded the construction in 1984 of the Mother Temple of the Pacific Islands in Samoa...."[19]

Honours

Queen Elizabeth II visited Samoa for a single day in 1977 as part of her visit to the South Pacific on board the Royal Yacht Britannia. While in Samoa, Elizabeth presented Malietoa with the Collar Badge and Star of a Knight Grand Cross of the Order of St Michael and St George.[20]

Also bestowed on Malietoa was the title of Honorary Commander of the Order of the British Empire during his life.

See also

- List of longest reigning monarchs of all time

External links

- Obituary from the New Zealand Herald (http://www.nzherald.co.nz/section/2/story.cfm?c_id=2&objectid=10439457)
- Uncertain times ahead as Samoa deals with new order (http://www.stuff.co.nz/4058123a12.html)
- New Zealand Order of Merit Roll (http://www.dpmc.govt.nz/honours/lists/nzom.html)
- Photograph Taken in 2006 (http://www.letemps.ch/template/displayimage.asp?imageid=5764)
- His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili II's Obituary (http://www.gyaszhir.hu/detail.php?id=12308)
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Preceded by **Charles Lyttelton, last pre-independence Governor-General of New Zealand**	**Head of State of Samoa** 1962-2007 (*with Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole until 1963*)	Succeeded by **Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi**

Preceded by **Malietoa Tanumafili I**	**Malietoa** 1939-2007	Succeeded by **TBA**

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Malietoa Tanumafili II

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Malietoa Tanumafili II, GCMG, CBE (4 January 1913 – 11 May 2007), also called **Susuga**, was the Malietoa, the title of one of Samoa's four paramount chiefs,[1] and the head of state, or *O le Ao o le Malo*, a position that he held for life, of Samoa from 1962 to 2007. He was co-chief of state in 1962 and became the sole head of state on 15 April 1963.[2] At the time of his death, he was the oldest national leader in the world.

Malietoa Tanumafili II



Malietoa of Samoa

Reign	5th July 1939 - 11th May 2007
Predecessor	Malietoa Tanumafili I
	Tupua Tamasese Tupuola Tufuga Efi (as head of state)
Father	Malietoa Tanumafili I
Mother	Momoe Lupeuluiva Meleisea
Born	4 January 1913 Samoa
Died	11 May 2007 (aged 94) Apia, Samoa
Burial	Mulinu'u

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Early and personal life

He was born in 1913 as the son and third child of his parents, Malietoa Tanumafili I and Momoe Lupeuluiva Meleisea. He became the Mālietoa in 1940 following his father's death in 1939.

Tanumafili was educated at the government run Leififi School in Samoa. He went on to enroll at St. Stephen's School and Wesley College in Pukekohe, both of which are in New Zealand. Malietoa was an active athlete during his younger years. His favorite sports included boxing, rugby and cricket.[3] Malietoa's interest in sports continued throughout his life and he was an avid golfer well into his 90s. He could often be seen driving his golf cart around Samoa.[1]

His wife, Lili Tunu, died in 1986.[4] Tanumafili had nine surviving children at the time of his death in 2007: Su'a Vainuupo, Faamausili Moli, Papali'itele Titiuatoa, Papali'itele Ioane, Papali'itele Douglas (sons) and Seiuli Tutai, Lola Tosi and Momoe (daughters). One child died in infancy, while his sons, Papaliitele Eti,died in 2005, Papali'itele Molioo Laupepa, died in 1985.[5][6]

Malietoa Tanumafili II was a follower of the Bahá'í Faith. He was the second royal (after Queen Marie of

Romania) to be a member of that religion. The Bahá'í House of Worship in Tiapapata, eight kilometers from the country's capital of Apia, was dedicated by him in 1984.

Public life


Malietoa Tanumafili II

Tanumafili officially inherited the royal title of Malietoa in 1940, following the 1939 death of his father, Malietoa Tanumafili I,[7] though some media reports claim that he received the title of Malietoa in 1939. Soon after becoming Malietoa, he was appointed to serve as a special adviser, also called *Fautua*,[8] to the New Zealand administration and governor of Samoa, known as the New Zealand Trusteeship of Samoa, until independence in 1962.[7]

Upon Samoa's independence in 1962, Malietoa Tanumafili II became joint O le Ao o le Malo, or head of state, with Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole. Tanumafili and Mea'ole would rule jointly as head of state for just 16 months.[1] When Mea'ole died in 1963, Tanumafili became the sole Samoan head of state, a post he held for life until his death in 2007. He is often credited for providing much of the stability that Samoa has enjoyed post independence.

Malietoa traveled extensively during his reign as the Samoan head of state (O le Ao o le Malo). He traveled to the People's Republic of China for an official state visit in 1976. Additionally, during his reign he also visited Australia, Fiji, Hawai'i, Japan, New Zealand, South Korea, Tonga, the United Kingdom and the former West Germany. Malietoa Tanumafili was among the foreign dignitaries who attended the funeral of Japanese Emperor Showa in 1989.[3]

Malietoa Tanumafili II was described as the last survivor of a generation of important Pacific leaders who guided their countries and peoples from colonialism to independence.[9] His death was the latest in a string of recent, high profile passings of members of this Pacific generation of leaders, which included the late Fijian president, Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara, the King of Tonga, Taufa'ahau Tupou IV, and New Zealand's Maori Queen, Dame Te Atairangikaahu.[10]

Death



Obverse of a 1976 tala depicting Malietoa Tanumafili II.

Malietoa Tanumafili II died at 6:45 P.M. on Friday 11 May 2007, at the Tupua Tamasese Meaole National Hospital at Moto'otua in Apia, Samoa. He was being treated as a patient for pneumonia at the hospital for approximately a week.[11] The cause of his death was from a heart attack.

His death was announced by Samoan Secretary of State Vaasatia Poloma Komiti on SBC TV1. "It is with deepest regret that we inform you of the passing of our Head of State Malietoa Tanumafili II."[12]

Malietoa Tanumafili II was the world's third longest reigning living monarch at the time of his death in May 2007 after Thailand's King Bhumibol Adulyadej, who has reigned since 1946 and Britain's Queen Elizabeth II, who has reigned since 1952.[13]

Funeral

Samoa entered a state of official mourning from the time of the Malietoa's death until his official funeral. All Samoan flags were lowered to half mast in his honour and remembrance. According to tradition, thousands of Samoans were expected to wear white and black as a sign of respect for the Malietoa from 15 May until his state funeral on May 18. The government of Samoa encouraged traditional Samoan dress for the funeral. Samoans were requested specifically to wear "a black lavalava or sulu and a white top with traditional elei patterns." Samoans were also asked to include the teuila flower, the national flower of Samoa, with their mourning attire.[14]

Malietoa Tanumafili II's body was taken from a private funeral home (Ligaliga Funeral) to his residence at Fa'ato'ialemanu on 16 May, which marked the beginning of his funeral services. Hundreds of the Malietoa's close and extended relatives, including his children, attended a special private family service that night.

The State funeral was a rare occasion when ancient rituals and exchanges were made to the Sa Malietoa (the national political 'family' or clan from which the Malietoa title belongs). Traditional cultural presentations (or Si'i Fa'atupu) from other districts and clans from within Samoa were made and ancient funeral rites were performed. The delegation (or auala) from Lufilufi, representing the TuiAtua, circled the Maota of Malietoa at Faatoialemanu where the late Malietoa lay in state, chanting the ancient funeral chants associated with the district of Atua and its relationship with the district of Tuamasaga (where the Malietoa is the paramount title). Traditional delegations representing the Tongan Royal Family and the Fijian Great Council of Chiefs also made cultural presentations to reflect the ancient genealogical ties between Samoa and her southern neighbours Tonga and Fiji.

The major village of the Malietoa title, Malie, played a major role in funeral ceremonies and exchanges. The 'aumaga (untitled men) of Malie, called the Aumaga a Laauli, and the 'aumaga (untitled men) of Falealili, called the Manu Samoa, provided hundreds of traditional guards in and around the compounds where the Malietoa lay in state. They also patrolled the roads around Faatoialemanu and provided escorting duties whenever the body was moved. On the day of the funeral the grounds of Tiafau Malae where the funeral was held were guarded by 300 men of the Aumaga a Laauli. Presiding over the body was the Salelesi (the ancient 'dog' of the Malietoa, from the village of Salelesi (District of Atua). His role is to guard the body and escort it into the tomb. All villages in the District of Tuamasaga and other villages connected to the Malietoa title cut palm leaves and branches of hundreds of coconut trees and laid them by the side of main roads in an ancient mark of mourning for the death of a paramount chief.

[15]

His body was then moved to the Samoan Parliament to lie in state on 17 May.

His funeral was held on 18 May in Apia.[16]

International reaction

American Samoa - **Governor Togiola Tulafono** stated: "I offer my condolence to the people and government of Samoa on the passing of His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili. May God guide the people of Samoa as they mourn his passing."[13] Many American Samoans considered Tanumafili to be the father of both Samoa and American Samoa. Tanumafili was a frequent visitor to the American territory's Flag Day celebrations.

Federated States of Micronesia - Newly elected Micronesian **President Manny Mori** sent a letter to Samoan Prime Minister Tuila'epa Sailele Malielegaoi stating that Malietoa Tanumafili II was a "great leader and

pioneer of Samoa...As a great leader of the Independent State of Samoa, His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili II was one of the prominent Samoan leaders leading up to its Independence in 1962...His wisdom, leadership and dedication contributed to the forgoing and eventual inception of the Samoan Nation...Our thoughts and prayers are with you during this time of national mourning."[17]


Malietoa Tanumafili II

New Zealand - **Prime Minister Helen Clark** reacted to the news of Tanumafili's death: "Through his long reign as Head of State, Malietoa represented Samoa with wisdom, humour and insight...Malietoa was educated at St. Stephens School near Auckland. He was a great friend of New Zealand as Head of State, and was well known to successive New Zealand governments and diplomats...It is significant that New Zealand has a Treaty of Friendship with only one country- Samoa- and our shared unique relationship was due in no small part to Malietoa's influence as a father of modern Samoa. New Zealanders of Samoan descent, together with their palagi counterparts, will be thinking of Samoa, at this sad time."[12]

South Africa - **President Thabo Mbeki** issued a statement of support to Samoan government: "It is with a sense of great sadness and shock that we have learnt of the passing away of His Highness, King Malietoa Tanumafili II on Friday, 11 May 2007. Despite this sad loss to the Samoan nation and people, the King will be long remembered for his passionate and committed service to Samoa and the broader Pacific Islands region...It was a testimony to his astute leadership that for the past 15 years Samoa had stood as a beacon of hope, stability and progress in the Pacific. South Africa therefore applauded the achievements of the King for having been a powerful and resonating voice for democracy and good governance as well as in articulating the development challenges unique to small developing island states."[18]

Bahá'í International Community - The governing body of the Bahá'ís, the Universal House of Justice wrote: "His service to the people of Samoa as Head of State was distinguished by the high principles, genuine compassion and personal humility that characterized the constancy of his concern for the welfare of all. As the first reigning sovereign to accept the Message of Bahá'u'lláh, he set a record that will forever illumine the annals of our Faith, one that future generations will increasingly extol. His great interest for well-nigh four decades in the Faith's progress was reflected in the enthusiastic affirmation of his belief whenever the opportunity presented itself and in the abiding joy with which he regarded the construction in 1984 of the Mother Temple of the Pacific Islands in Samoa...."[19]

Honours

Queen Elizabeth II visited Samoa for a single day in 1977 as part of her visit to the South Pacific on board the Royal Yacht Britannia. While in Samoa, Elizabeth presented Malietoa with the Collar Badge and Star of a Knight Grand Cross of the Order of St Michael and St George.[20]

Also bestowed on Malietoa was the title of Honorary Commander of the Order of the British Empire during his life.

See also

- List of longest reigning monarchs of all time

External links

- Obituary from the New Zealand Herald (http://www.nzherald.co.nz/section/2/story.cfm?c_id=2&objectid=10439457)
- Uncertain times ahead as Samoa deals with new order (http://www.stuff.co.nz/4058123a12.html)
- New Zealand Order of Merit Roll (http://www.dpmc.govt.nz/honours/lists/nzom.html)
- Photograph Taken in 2006 (http://www.letemps.ch/template/displayimage.asp?imageid=5764)
- His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili II's Obituary (http://www.gyaszhir.hu/detail.php?id=12308)
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Swaziland

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Swaziland, officially the **Kingdom of Swaziland** (*Umbuso weSwatini*), and sometimes called **Ngwane** or **Swatini**, is a landlocked country in Southern Africa, bordered to the north, south and west by South Africa, and to the east by Mozambique. The nation, as well as its people, are named after the 19th century king Mswati II.

Swaziland is a small country, no more than 200 kilometres (120 mi) north to south and 130 kilometres (81 mi) east to west. The western half is mountainous, descending to a lowveld region to the east. The eastern border with Mozambique and South Africa is dominated by the escarpment of the Lebombo Mountains. The climate is temperate in the west, but may reach 40 °C (104 °F) in summer in the lowveld. Rainfall occurs mainly in the summer and may reach 2 metres (6.6 ft) in the west.

The area that Swaziland now covers has been continuously inhabited since prehistory. Today, the population is primarily ethnic Swazis whose language is siSwati, though English is spoken as a second language. The Swazi people descend from the southern Bantu who migrated from Central Africa in the 15th and 16th centuries. The Anglo-Boer War saw the United Kingdom make Swaziland a protectorate under its direct control. Swaziland gained independence in 1968. Swaziland is a member of the Southern African Development Community, the African Union, and the Commonwealth of Nations. The head of state is the king, who appoints the prime minister and a small number of representatives for both chambers of parliament. Elections are held every five years to determine the majority of the representatives. A new constitution was adopted in 2005.

Some 75% of the population are employed in subsistence farming, and 60% of the population live on less than the equivalent of US$1.25 per day.[4] Swaziland's main trading partner is South Africa, and its currency is pegged to the South African rand. Swaziland's economic growth and societal integrity is highly endangered by its disastrous HIV epidemic, to an extent where the United Nations Development Program has written that if it continues unabated, the "longer term existence of Swaziland as a country will be seriously threatened."[5] The infection rate in the country is unprecedented and the highest in the world at 26.1% of adults,[6] and over 50% of adults in their 20s.[5]

Kingdom of Swaziland
Umbuso weSwatini



Flag



Coat of arms

Motto: "Siyinqaba" (Swati)
"We are a fortress"
"We are a mystery/riddle" "We hide ourselves away"

Anthem: *Nkulunkulu Mnikati wetibusiso temaSwati*
Oh God, Bestower of the Blessings of the Swazi



Location of **Swaziland** (dark blue)
– in Africa (light blue & dark grey)
– in the African Union (light blue)

Capital	Lobamba (royal and legislative) Mbabane (administrative; coordinates below) 26°19′S 31°8′E
Largest city	Mbabane
Official language(s)	English Swati
Demonym	Swazi
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy within Constitutional and Absolute monarchy

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History



Lake with Hippopotami in the Mlilwane reserve, Swaziland, August 2003

Main article: History of Swaziland

Artifacts indicating human activity dating back to the early Stone Age 200,000 years ago have been found in the Kingdom of Swaziland. Prehistoric rock art paintings date from ca. 25,000 B.C. and continue up to the 19th century.

The earliest inhabitants of the area were Khoisan hunter-gatherers.They were largely replaced by the Bantu tribes during Bantu migrations who hailed from the Great Lakes regions of Eastern Africa. Evidence of agriculture and iron use dates from about the 4th century and people speaking languages ancestral to current Sotho and Nguni languages began settling no later than the 11th century. The Bantu people known as the Swazis established iron-working and settled farming colonies in the 15th century after crossing the Limpopo river. They experienced great economic pressure from the rival Ndwandwe clans from the south.[7]

- King	King Mswati III
- Ndlovukati	Queen Ntombi
- Prime Minister	Barnabas Sibusiso Dlamini
- Deputy Prime Minister	Themba N. Masuku
Legislature	Parliament of Swaziland
- Upper house	Senate
- Lower house	House of Assembly
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	6 September 1968
Area	
- Total	17,364 km^2 (157th) 6,704 sq mi
- Water (%)	0.9
Population	
- 2009 estimate	1,185,000[1] (154th)
- 2007 census	1,018,449
- Density	68.2/km^2 (135th) 176.8/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2009 estimate
- Total	$5.858 billion[2]
- Per capita	$5,708[2]
GDP (nominal)	2009 estimate
- Total	$2.983 billion[2]
- Per capita	$2,907[2]
Gini	60.9 (very high)
HDI (2011)	▼ 0.522 [3] (medium) (140th)
Currency	Lilangeni (SZL)
Time zone	SAST (UTC+2)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	SZ
Internet TLD	.sz
Calling code	+268

Estimates for the country explicitly take into account the effects of excess mortality due to AIDS; this can result in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality and death rates, lower population and growth rates, and changes in the distribution of population by age and sex than would otherwise be expected.

The country derives its name from a later king, Mswati I. However, *Ngwane* is an alternative name for Swaziland and Dlamini remains the surname of the royal house, while *Nkosi* means "king". Scholarly history of Swaziland shows that independent chiefdoms and small kingdoms dominated by various clans were initially conquered and incorporated into the growing Ngwane kingdom ruled by members of the Dlamini clan sometime in the 18th and 19th centuries, long before British colonisation.[8]

According to Swazi royalist tradition, these clans came to be classified in the Dlamini kingdom as the *Emakhandzambile* category of clans ("those found ahead", e.g. the Gamedze), meaning that they were on the land prior to Dlamini immigration and conquest, as opposed to the *Bomdzabuko* ("true Swazi") who accompanied the Dlamini kings, and the *Emafikemuva* ("those who came behind") who joined the kingdom later. *Emakhandzambile* clans initially were incorporated with wide autonomy, and often in part by granting them special ritual and political status (cf. mediatisation), but the extent of their autonomy was drastically curtailed by King Mswati II, who attacked and subdued some of the clans in the 1850s.[8]

The autonomy of the Swaziland Nation was dictated by British rule of southern Africa in the 19th and 20th centuries. In 1881 the British government signed a convention recognizing Swazi independence. However, controversial land and mineral rights concessions were made under the authority of the Foreign Jurisdiction Act of 1890 in terms of which the administration of Swaziland was also placed under that of the then South African Republic (Transvaal). Swaziland was indirectly involved in the Second Boer War (1899–1902).

The Swaziland independence Constitution was promulgated by Britain in November 1963 in terms of which a legislative Council and an Executive Council were established. This development was opposed by the Swazi National Council (liqoqo).

Despite such opposition, elections took place and the first Legislative Council of Swaziland was constituted on 9 September 1964. Changes to the original constitution proposed by the Legislative Council were accepted by Britain and a new Constitution providing for a House of Assembly and Senate was drawn up. Elections under this Constitution were held in 1967. Since 1973, Swaziland has seen a rather quiet struggle between pro-multiparty activists and supporters of the current Tinkhundla (constituencies) System of governance or Grass Roots Democracy System.

In June 2011, Swaziland, fearing bankruptcy, asked for a financial bailout from South Africa.[9]

Government

Main articles: Politics of Swaziland and Human rights in Swaziland

See also: Foreign relations of Swaziland and Military of Swaziland

The head of state is the king or *Ngwenyama* (lit. *Lion*), currently King Mswati III, who ascended to the throne in 1986 after the death of his father King Sobhuza II in 1982 and a period of regency. By tradition, the king reigns along with his mother or a ritual substitute, the *Ndlovukati* (lit. *She-Elephant*). The former was viewed as the administrative head of state and the latter as a spiritual and national head of state, with real power counter-balancing that of the king, but during the long reign of Sobhuza II the role of the *Ndlovukati* became more symbolic. The king appoints the prime minister from the legislature and also appoints a minority of legislators to both chambers of Libandla (parliament), with help from an advisory council. The king is allowed by the constitution to appoint some members to parliament for special interests. These special interests are citizens who might have been left out by the electorate during the course of elections or did not enter as candidates. This is done in order to balance views in parliament. Special interests could be people of gender, race, disability, business community, civic society, scholars, chiefs and so on. The Senate consists of 30 members which some are

appointed by the king on recommendation of the advisory council and others elected by the lower house. The House of Assembly has 65 seats, 55 of which are occupied by elected representatives from the 55 constituencies around the country, 10 appointed by the king on recommendation of the advisory council and the attorney general is the ex-officio member. Elections are held every five years.


Embassy of Swaziland in Washington, D.C. USA

In 1968, Swaziland adopted a Westminster-style constitution, but in 1973 King Sobhuza II on the advice of parliament at the time suspended it due to widespread complaints by citizens of the country. In 2001, King Mswati III appointed a committee to draft a new constitution. Drafts were released for comment in May 1999 and November 2000. These were strongly criticized by civil society organizations in Swaziland and human rights organizations elsewhere. In 2005, the constitution was put into effect, though there is still much debate in the country about the constitutional reforms. From the early seventies, there was active resistance to the royal hegemony. However despite complaints from progressive formations, strong support for the monarchy and the current political system by the majority of the population is still there. This is due to the fact that submissions were made by citizens around the country to commissions including the constitutional draft committee that they would prefer to maintain the current situation.

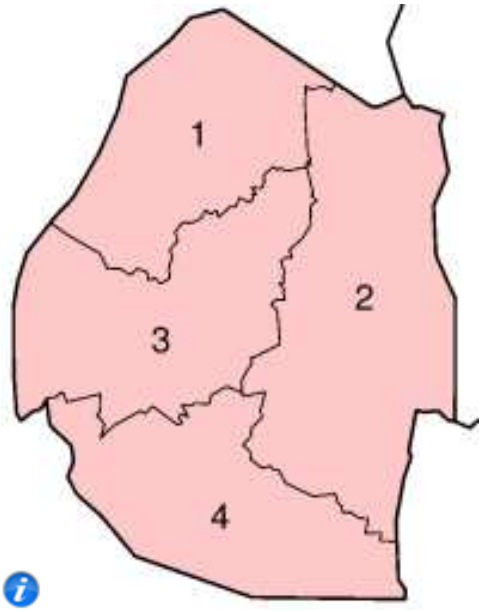
The Swazi bicameral Parliament or Libandla consists of the Senate (30 seats; 10 members appointed by the House of Assembly and 20 appointed by the monarch; to serve five-year terms) and the House of Assembly (65 seats; 10 members appointed by the monarch and 55 elected by popular vote; to serve five-year terms) elections: House of Assembly – last held 19 September 2008 (next to be held in 2013) election results: House of Assembly – balloting is done on a non-party basis; candidates for election are nominated by the local council of each constituency and for each constituency the three candidates with the most votes in the first round of voting are narrowed to a single winner by a second round.

Administrative divisions

Main article: Districts of Swaziland

Swaziland is divided into four districts:

- Hhohho
- Lubombo
- Manzini
- Shiselweni



Each district is further divided into tinkhundla. There are 55 tinkhundla in Swaziland and each elects one representative to the House of Assembly of Swaziland.

Geography

Main article: Geography of Swaziland

Swaziland lies across a geological fault which runs from the Drakensberg Mountains of Lesotho, north through the Eastern highlands of Zimbabwe, forms the Great Rift

Valley of Kenya and, eventually, peters out in present-day Turkey.



A small, land-locked Kingdom, Swaziland is bordered in the North, West and South by the Republic of South Africa and by Mozambique in the East. Although Swaziland has a land area of only 17,364 km^2, roughly the size of Wales or the American State of New Jersey, it contains four separate geographical regions. These run from North to South and are determined by altitude.

Swaziland is located at approximately 26°30'S, 31°30'E.[10] Swaziland also offers a wide variety of landscapes, from the mountains along the Mozambican border to savannas in the east and rain forest in the northwest. Several rivers flow through the country, such as the Great Usuthu River.


Landscape in Swaziland

Along the eastern border with Mozambique is the Lubombo, a mountain ridge, at an altitude of around 600 meters. The mountains are broken by the canyons of three rivers, the Ngwavuma, the Usutu and the Mbuluzi River. This is cattle ranching country.

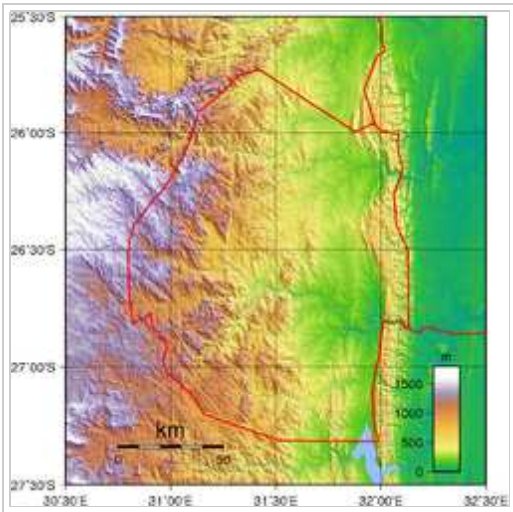
The western border of the country, with an average altitude of 1200 meters, lies on the edge of an escarpment. Between the mountains rivers rush through deep gorges making this a most scenic region. Mbabane, the capital, is located on the Highveld.

The Middleveld, lying at an average 700 meters above sea level is the most densely populated region of Swaziland with a lower rainfall than the mountains. Manzini, the principal commercial and industrial city, is situated in the Middleveld.

The Lowveld of Swaziland, at around 250 meters, is less populated than other areas and presents a typical African bush country of thorn trees and grasslands. Development of the region was inhibited, in early days, by the scourge of malaria.

Climate

Main article: Climate of Swaziland



Topographic map of Swaziland

The seasons are the reverse of those in the Northern Hemisphere with December being mid-summer and June mid-winter. Generally speaking, rain falls mostly during the summer months, often in the form of thunderstorms. Winter is the dry season. Annual rainfall is highest on the Highveld in the West, between 1,000 and 2,000 mm (39.4 and 78.7 in) depending on the year. The further East, the less rain, with the Lowveld recording 500 to 900 mm (19.7 to 35.4 in) per annum. Variations in temperature are also related to the altitude of the different regions. The Highveld temperature is temperate and, seldom, uncomfortably hot while the Lowveld may record temperatures around 40 °C (104 °F) in summer.

The average temperatures at Mbabane, according to seasons:

Spring	September – October	18 °C (64.4 °F)
Summer	November – March	20 °C (68 °F)
Autumn	April – May	17 °C (62.6 °F)
Winter	June – August	13 °C (55.4 °F)

Economy

Main article: Economy of Swaziland



Coins of Swaziland

Swaziland's economy is diversified, with agriculture, forestry and mining accounting for about 13% of GDP, manufacturing (textiles and sugar-related processing) representing 37% of GDP and services – with government services in the lead – constituting 50% of GDP. Title Deed Lands (TDLs), where the bulk of high value crops are grown (sugar, forestry, and citrus) are characterized by high levels of investment and irrigation, and high productivity. Nevertheless, the majority of the population – about 75%—is employed in subsistence agriculture on Swazi Nation Land (SNL), which, in contrast, suffers from low productivity and investment. This dual nature of the Swazi economy, with high productivity in textile manufacturing and in the industrialized agricultural TDLs on the one hand, and declining productivity subsistence agriculture (on SNL) on the other, may well explain the country's overall low growth, high inequality and unemployment.

Economic growth in Swaziland has lagged behind that of its neighbors. Real GDP growth since 2001 has averaged 2.8%, nearly 2 percentage points lower than growth in other Southern African Customs Union (SACU) member countries. Low agricultural productivity in the SNLs, repeated droughts, the devastating effect of HIV/AIDS and an overly large and inefficient government sector are likely contributing factors. Swaziland's public finances deteriorated in the late 1990s following sizable surpluses a decade earlier. A combination of declining revenues and increased spending led to significant budget deficits.

The considerable spending did not lead to more growth and did not benefit the poor. Much of the increased spending has gone to current expenditures related to wages, transfers, and subsidies. The wage bill today constitutes over 15% of GDP and 55% of total public spending; these are some of the highest levels on the African continent. The recent rapid growth in SACU revenues has, however, reversed the fiscal situation, and a sizable surplus was recorded since 2006. SACU revenues today account for over 60% of total government revenues. On the positive side, the external debt burden has declined markedly over the last 20 years, and domestic debt is almost negligible; external debt as a percent of GDP was less than 20% in 2006.

The Swazi economy is very closely linked to the South African economy, from which it receives over 90% of its imports and to which it sends about 70% of its exports. Swaziland's other key trading partners are the United States and the EU, from whom the country has received trade preferences for apparel exports (under the African Growth and Opportunity Act – AGOA – to the US) and for sugar (to the EU). Under these agreements, both apparel and sugar exports did well, with rapid growth and a strong inflow of foreign direct investment. Textile exports grew by over 200% between 2000 and 2005 and sugar exports increasing by more than 50% over the same period.

The continued vibrancy of the export sector is threatened by the removal of trade preferences for textiles, the accession to similar preferences for East Asian countries, and the phasing out of preferential prices for sugar to

the EU market. Swaziland will thus have to face the challenge of remaining competitive in a changing global environment. A crucial factor in addressing this challenge is the investment climate. The recently concluded Investment Climate Assessment provides some positive findings in this regard, namely that Swaziland firms are among the most productive in Sub-Saharan Africa, although they are less productive than firms in the most productive middle-income countries in other regions. They compare more favorably with firms from lower middle income countries, but are hampered by inadequate governance arrangements and infrastructure.

Swaziland's currency is pegged to the South African rand, subsuming Swaziland's monetary policy to South Africa. Customs duties from the Southern African Customs Union, which may equal as much as 70% of government revenue this year, and worker remittances from South Africa substantially supplement domestically earned income. Swaziland is not poor enough to merit an IMF program; however, the country is struggling to reduce the size of the civil service and control costs at public enterprises. The government is trying to improve the atmosphere for foreign direct investment.

Health

Swaziland is critically affected by the HIV and AIDS pandemic, which is now an existential threat to its society. As reported in the 2009 CIA World Factbook, Swaziland has the highest HIV infection rate in the world (26% of all adults; more in other reports) and also the lowest life expectancy at 32 years, which is 6 years lower than the next lowest average of Angola. From another perspective, the last available World Health Organization data in 2002 shows that 64% of all deaths in the country were caused by HIV/AIDS.[11] In 2009, an estimated 7,000 people died from AIDS-related causes,[12] from a total population of approximately 1,185,000.[13] This translates into an estimated 0.6% of the population dying from AIDS every year. Chronic illnesses that are the most prolific causes of death in the developed world account only for a minute fraction of deaths in Swaziland; for example, heart disease, strokes, and cancer cause fewer than 5% of deaths in Swaziland in total, compared to 55% of all deaths yearly in the US.[14]

In 2004, Swaziland acknowledged for the first time that it suffered an AIDS crisis, with 38.8% of tested pregnant women infected with HIV (see AIDS in Africa). Prime Minister Themba Dlamini declared a humanitarian crisis due to the combined effect of drought, land degradation, increased poverty, and HIV/AIDS. According to the 2011 UNAIDS Report, Swaziland is close to achieving universal access to HIV/AIDS treatment, defined as 80% coverage or greater. Estimates of treatment coverage range from 70% to 80% of those infected.[15]

Life expectancy has fallen from 61 years in 2000 to 32 years in 2009.[16] Tuberculosis is also a significant problem, with an 18% mortality rate. Many patients have a multi-drug resistant strain, and 83% are co-infected with HIV.[17]

Public expenditure was at 4% of the GDP of the country, whereas private expenditure was at 2.3%.[18] There were 16 physicians per 100,000 persons in the early 2000s.[18] Infant mortality was at 69 per 1,000 in 2005,[18] with the WHO showing that 47% of all deaths under 5 are caused by HIV/AIDS.[11]

Culture

Main article: Culture of Swaziland

See also: Music of Swaziland

The principal Swazi social unit is the homestead, a traditional beehive hut thatched with dry grass. In a polygamous homestead, each wife has her own hut and yard surrounded by reed fences. There are three

structures for sleeping, cooking, and storage (brewing beer). In larger homesteads there are also structures used as bachelors' quarters and guest accommodation.



Princess Sikhanyiso Dlamini at the Reed Dance festival in Swaziland in 2006

Central to the traditional homestead is the cattle byre, a circular area enclosed by large logs interspaced with branches. The cattle byre has ritual as well as practical significance as a store of wealth and symbol of prestige. It contains sealed grain pits. Facing the cattle byre is the great hut which is occupied by the mother of the headman.

The headman is central to all homestead affairs and he is often polygamous. He leads through example and advises his wives on all social affairs of the home as well as seeing to the larger survival of the family. He also spends time socializing with the young boys, who are often his sons or close relatives, advising them on the expectations of growing up and manhood.



Traditional homes in Swaziland

The Sangoma is a traditional diviner chosen by the ancestors of that particular family. The training of the Sangoma is called "kwetfwasa". At the end of the training, a graduation ceremony takes place where all the local sangoma come together for feasting and dancing. The diviner is consulted for various reasons, such the cause of sickness or even death. His diagnosis is based on "kubhula", a process of communication, through trance, with the natural super-powers. The Inyanga (a medical and pharmaceutical specialist in western terms) possesses the bone throwing skill ("kushaya ematsambo") used to determine the cause of the sickness.

The most important cultural event in Swaziland is the Incwala ceremony. It is held on the fourth day after the full moon nearest the longest day, December 21. Incwala is often translated in English as 'first fruits ceremony', but the King's tasting of the new harvest is only one aspect among many in this long pageant. Incwala is best translated as 'Kingship Ceremony' : when there is no king, there is no Incwala. It is high treason for any other person to hold an Incwala.

Every Swazi may take part in the public parts of the Incwala. The climax of the event is the fourth day of the Big Incwala. The key figures are the King, Queen Mother, royal wives and children, the royal governors (indunas), the chiefs, the regiments, and the "bemanti" or "water people".

Swaziland's most well-known cultural event is the annual Reed Dance. In the eight day ceremony, girls cut reeds and present them to the queen mother and then dance. (There is no formal competition.) It is done in late August or early September. Only childless, unmarried girls can take part. The aims of the ceremony are to preserve girls' chastity, provide tribute labour for the Queen mother, and to encourage solidarity by working together. The royal family appoints a commoner maiden to be "induna" (captain) of the girls and she announces over the radio the dates of the ceremony. She will be an expert dancer and knowledgeable on royal protocol. One of the King's daughters will be her counterpart.

Today's Reed Dance is not an ancient ceremony, but developed out of the old "umchwasho" custom. In "umchwasho", all young girls were placed in a female age-regiment. If any girl fell pregnant outside of marriage, her family paid a fine of one cow to the local chief. After a number of years, when the girls had reached a marriageable age, they would perform labour service for the Queen Mother, ending with dancing and feasting. The country was under the chastity rite of "umchwasho" until 19 August 2005.

Swaziland is also known for a strong presence in the handcrafts industry. The formalized handcraft businesses of Swaziland employ over 2,500 people, many of whom are women (per TechnoServe Swaziland Handcrafts Impact Study," February 2011). The products are unique and reflect the culture of Swaziland, ranging from housewares, to artistic decorations, to complex glass, stone, or wood artwork.

Education

Main article: Education in Swaziland

Education in Swaziland is now free at primary level mainly 1st and 2nd grades and also free for orphaned and vulnerable children but not compulsory.[19] In 1996, the net primary school enrollment rate was 90.8%, with gender parity at the primary level.[19] In 1998, 80.5% of children reached grade five.[19] The University of Swaziland provides higher education. The Swaziland National Library Service operates public community libraries throughout Swaziland and establishes school libraries in partnership with Fundza, a non-governmental organization and the African Library Project.[20]

Demographics

Main article: Demographics of Swaziland



Swazi people dancing in a cultural village show.

The majority of Swaziland's population is ethnically Swazi, mixed with a small number of Zulu and White Africans, mostly people of British and Afrikaner descent. Traditionally Swazi have been subsistence farmers and herders, but most now mix such activities with work in the growing urban formal economy and in government. Some Swazi work in the mines in South Africa.

Swaziland also received Portuguese settlers and African refugees from Mozambique. Christianity in Swaziland is sometimes mixed with traditional beliefs and practices. Many traditionalists believe that most Swazi ascribe a special spiritual role to the monarch. Residents of Swaziland have the lowest documented life expectancy in the world at 31.88 years, less than half the world average of 69.4.[21]

Languages

SiSwati[22] (also known as *Swati*, *Swazi* or *Seswati*) is a Bantu language of the Nguni Group, spoken in Swaziland and South Africa. It has 2.5 million speakers and is taught in schools. It is an official language of Swaziland (along with English) and one of the official languages of South Africa.

About 76,000 people in the country speak Zulu.[23] Tsonga, which is spoken by many people throughout the region is spoken by about 19,000 people in Swaziland. Afrikaans is also spoken by some residents of Afrikaner descent.

Religions

Main article: Religion in Swaziland

The most common religion in Swaziland is Christianity, which is adhered to by 82.70% of the total population.

Various Protestant and indigenous African churches, including African Zionist, constitute the majority of the Christians, followed closely by Roman Catholicism. There are also non-Christian religions practiced in the country such as Islam (0.95%), the Bahá'í Faith (0.5%), and Hinduism (0.15%).[24]

See also

- Outline of Swaziland
- Index of Swaziland-related articles
- Commonwealth of Nations
- Transport in Swaziland

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History of Swaziland

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

According to tradition, the original followers of the present Dlamini clan of the Swazi country migrated south before the 16th century to what is now Mozambique. Following a series of conflicts with people living in the area of modern Maputo, the *Ngwane*, as they then called themselves, settled in northern Zululand in about 1750. Unable to match growing Zulu strength, the Ngwane moved the center of their kingdom northward in the 1810s and 1820s. Under King Sobhuza I they established themselves in the heartland of modern Swaziland, conquering and incorporating many long-established independent chiefdoms, whose descendants also make up much of the modern Swazi nation.



Flag of Swaziland

According to Swazi royalist tradition, these chiefdoms came to be classified in the Dlamini kingdom as the *Emakhandzambile* category of clans ("those found ahead", e.g. the Gamedze), meaning that they were on the land prior to Dlamini immigration and conquest, as opposed to the *Bomdzabuko* ("true Swazi") who accompanied the Dlamini kings, and the *Emafikemuva* ("those who came behind") who joined the kingdom later. *Emakhandzambile* clans initially were incorporated with wide autonomy, and often in part by granting them special ritual and political status (cf. mediatisation), but the extent of their autonomy was drastically curtailed by King Mswati II, who attacked and subdued some of the clans in the 1850s.[1]

The Dlamini clan consolidated their hold under several able leaders. The most important was Mswati II, from whom the Swazi derive their name. Under his leadership from the 1840s to 1865, the Swazi expanded their territory to the north and west, and stabilized the southern frontier with the Zulu.

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- 1 British Colonialism
  - 1.1 Anglo-Boer War
  - 1.2 Post-war
- 2 Independence
- 3 Recent history
- 4 See also
- 5 References
- 6 External links

British Colonialism

Contact with the British came early in Mswati's reign, when he asked British authorities in South Africa for assistance against Zulu raids into Swaziland. It was also during Mswati's reign that the first whites, Transvaal Boers, settled in the country. Following Mswati's death, the Swazis reached agreements with British and South African Republic authorities over a range of issues, including independence, claims on resources by Europeans, administrative authority, and security, though the white parties later reneged on those agreements. Over Swazi protests, the South African Republic with British concurrence established incomplete colonial rule over Swaziland from 1894 to 1899, when they withdrew their administration with the start of the Anglo-Boer War. In

1902 British forces entered the territory, proclaiming British overrule and jurisdiction in 1903, initially as part of the Transvaal. In 1906 Swaziland was separated administratively when the Transvaal Colony was granted responsible government.



South Africa, Lesotho and Swazuiland in 1885.

Anglo-Boer War

Swaziland was indirectly involved in the Second Boer War (1899–1902). The beginning of the conflict found it administrated by the South African Republic, with the colonial headquarters set at Bremersdorp. In September, 1899, with war considered imminent, the colonists started evacuating the area. Ngwane V of Swaziland (Bhunu) was informed that the area would be left in his care during the absence of the white residents. The Swaziland Police under Sgt Opperman started practicing for war while issuing rifles and ammunition to remaining burghers. On 4 October 1899, Special Commissioner Krogh issued an official notice of evacuation for "all white inhabitants" with the excecption of burghers eligible for active service. Most of the British subjects were escorted towards the border with Mozambique, women and other South African civilians were left heading for various destinations. People with dual nationality were still subject to the draft, though unwilling to fight against their own people. Unsurprisingly, several of them escaped towards Mozambique or the Colony of Natal.[2]

It was not long before skirmishes involved the Swaziland forces. On 28 October 1899, the newly formed Swaziland Commando unit moved against a British police post at Kwaliweni. The South African unit counted about 200 burghers, while the outpost only had 20 men. Bhunu managed to warn the police post of the approaching attack. The police retreated towards Ingwavuma, seat of a magistrate. The Commando burned the abandoned post and a nearby shop to the ground. Then Joachim Ferrera led them towards Ingwavuma. The village was not better guarded and had to also be evacuated. The Swaziland Commando burned it to the ground, while the magistrate and his people escaped to Nongoma.[2]

Meanwhile, the Swazi people had been warned by Piet Joubert to remain calm and not involve themselves in the conflict. Bhunu instead found himself unrestricted from colonial authorities for the first time. He soon felt free to settle old scores with political enemies. News of the violent deaths of diplomat Mnkonkoni Kunene and several others in time reached the Boer forces involved in the Siege of Ladysmith. Several of the dead had close ties to the colonial authorities. Joubert had to assure worried commanders that Swaziland was not turning against them. Indeed, spies reported that Bhunu feared he had been bewitched. He was striking against whoever he suspected of the deed. On 10 December 1899, Bhunu died due to a serious illness. He had blamed it on sorcery, though contemporaries suspect it was alcohol-induced. His mother Labotsibeni Mdluli became regent. She set about eliminating the surviving advisors and favourites of Bhunu.[2]

Swazi regiments were roaming the country during the internal conflicts. The South African authorities were worried that the violence could expand towards the south-western border of Swaziland, where Boer farms were cultivated by women and children. They had the farms evacuated and the population transferred to Piet Retief. The farmers from Piet Retief, Wakkerstroom and their vicinities had made a practice of trekking their ship into Swaziland for winter grazing. In January, 1900, Francis William Reitz, the State Secretary of the South African Republic, started issuing orders discouraging any sheep-herders from entering Swaziland. On 18 April 1900, any such entry was forbidden. The Swaziland Commando were by that point far from their initial homebase, fighting along the Tugela River.[2]

The British had their own concerns about Swaziland. They suspected that supplies from Mozambique could be smuggled to the Boers through Swaziland. Queen-regent Labotsibeni was however attempting to maintain

neutrality in the wider conflict, pre-occupied with securing the throne. Her grandson Sobhuza II of Swaziland was underage and there were other viable candidates for the throne among the House of Dlamini. In particular, Prince Masumphe. Masumphe was a cousin of Bhunu and a rival candidate for the throne since 1889. His line of the family maintained close relations with the Boers, the Prince himself educated at Pretoria. By May, 1900, the Queen was worried that the Boers would intervene against her in case of a succession dispute. She opened communications with the restored magistrate of Ingwavuma, arranging to flee to his area if needed.[2]

Her messages were passed to the government of Natal and from there to Cape Town, the capital of the Cape Colony. A reply by Johannes Smuts assured her that the British had not forgotten about the Swazi and British representatives would reliably return to Swaziland at an early date. The message might have reflected Smuts' own ambitions but his authority on such matters was rather questionable. But Frederick Roberts, Baron Roberts, a high-ranking military officer, was also convinced to start diplomatic contacts with the Queen. His representatives were to persuade the queen-regent of three things. First, the need to prevent the Boers from occupying the mountains of the area. Second, the necessity of formally appealing for British protection. Third, to make clear that the indiscriminate murders in Swaziland would have to end.[2]

The British contacts with the Swazi played a role in advance of their siege of Komatipoort, a nearby South African stronghold. In September 1900, once the town fell, the British were able to capture Barberton and its area. A number of Boers fled into Swaziland. Only for the Swazi to disarm them and confiscate their cattle. The end of South African presence in the area left open the question of what to do with Swaziland. Smuts had been campaigning since May to convince the British authorities to place Swaziland under their administration. By September, Smuts had gained some support from civil authorities. But not by military ones, since Roberts did not want to devote any of his forces to an invasion or occupation of the area. Nevertheless, Smuts attempted some diplomatic contacts with the Swazi. Not particularly successful ones. The indvuna Smuts met for discussions refused to give any information on the internal affairs of Swaziland or Boer activities.[2]

The fall of Komatipoort resulted in increasing the importace of Swaziland for the Boers. To maintain their communications with diplomatic and trade contacts in Lourenço Marques, Mozambique, the Boers had to sent messengers through Swaziland. Which was difficult since British forces were allowed to pass through certain Swazi areas. By November 1900, the Queen was able to assure both Roberts and Smuts that she "was doing her best to drive Boers out of her country". A few armed burghers and their African allies, hostile to her government, were still active at times.[2]

On 29 November 1900, Roberts was relieved of his command. His replacement was Herbert Kitchener, Baron Kitchener of Khartoum. By late December, Smuts contacted the military secretary office of Kitchener concerning the Swaziland situation. Smuts had secured the position of Resident Commissioner of Swaziland though the British had no actual authority over the area. He attempted to convince Kitchener it was time to establish a permanent military presence in Swaziland. With himself taking charge of the area. Kitchener had a different view. Starting his own correspondence with Labotsibeni, Kitchener insisted on three points. First, the Swazi were still required to not take part in the war. Second, no British forces would be send in Swaziland unless the area faced a Boer invasion. Third, the Swazis were now directly under the authority of the British Crown, owing their loyalty to Victoria of the United Kingdom.[2]

In December 1900-January 1901, there were information that retreating Boers were attempting to flee through Swaziland. Eight British columns were sent to either force the Boer commandos to surrender or flee to Swaziland. A certain column under Horace Smith-Dorrien proceeded all the way to the Swaziland border, managing to capture several Boer wagons and large numbers of cattle and sheep on 9 February 1901. Most of the captured Boers were sent to the concentration camp of Volksrust. On February 11, another column under Edmund Allenby was positioned at the southern border of Swaziland. On 14 February, Smith-Dorrien's forces reached Amsterdam. There he was contacted by envoys of the Queen-regent, requesting aid in driving the Boers

off her land. In response, the Imperial Light Horse and the Suffolk Regiment were send into Swaziland.[2]

Joined by armed Swazis, the two regiments were able to capture about 30 Boers in an initial skirmish. However heavy rains soon slowed their advance through the country. On 28 February 1901, other 200 men of the British mounted infantry entered Swaziland. Under Lt-Col Henry, this force managed to locate and capture the transport convoy of the Piet Retief Commando. About 65 Boers were captured in the operation. The remnants of the Commando retreated towards the southern border of Swaziland, only to get captured by the British forces stationed there. By early March, Smith-Dorrien noted that the Swazis were pillaging Boer residences. By this time, Allenby had reached Mahamba and set camp there, Henry was pursuing another Boer wagon convoys and Queen-regent Labotsibeni was ordering her Impis to clear their land from the Boers. Henry eventually managed to return to Derby with several prisoners, while Allenby and his forces reached the vicinity of Hlatikulu. The burthers had to limit themselves to "the hills of southwestern Swaziland".[2]

Surviving accounts from the Devonshire Regiment indicate that the Swazis were acting as "a ninth column, commanded by the Queen of the Swazis". On 8 March 1901, remnants of the Piet Retief Commando, accompanied by women and children, were attacked by forces supposedly under Chief Ntshingila Simelano. The latter consisted of about 40 men, including two riflemen. 13 Burghers and one African guide were killed, several wounded, the others were scattered. Some of the survivors later surrendered to the 18th Hussars. Ntshingila later denied any involvement in the massacre. In any case, the incident terrified several other Boers. Between 8 and 11 March, about 70 burghers and various women children chose to surrender to Allenby rather than face the Swazis. The British nevertheless warned Labotsibeni to cease further massacres.[2]

On 11 April 1901, Louis Botha corresponded with Kitchener, complaining that British Officers were inducing the Swazis to fight against the Boers. Claiming the result was the indiscriminate murders of Burghers, women and children by Swazi commandos. Allenby attributed the killings partly to Swazi anxiety to counter Boer incursions into their territory and partly to their fear of Boer reprisals. That is what the Boers would do when the British eventually left. Allenby himself refused to allow large numbers of armed Swazis to join his column, though he still used a few of them as guides. Smuts finally entered Swaziland during this month, though unable to establish his authority over any British forces.[2]

The presence of regular British troops allowed the Queen-regent to present to them her concerns over an irregular unit, "Steinaecker's Horse". Created early in the war as a unit of adventurers and mercenaries under British command, they were well-known for looting Boer property. But with the Boer inreasingly impoverished, they had turned their attention to the cattle of the Swazi. Labotsibeni complained to both sides that this unit consisted of common robbers occupying Bremersdorp. Botha responded by sending a Commansdo Unit against the Horse. They were to avoid antagonizing the Swazi in any way. The Swazi National Council agreed to let them pass. Between 21 and 23 July 1901, the Ermelo Commando succeeded in forcing most of the "Steinaecker's Horse" forces to retreat, capturing about 35 men, killing or wounding a few and burning Bremersdorp to the ground.[2]

Both the British and the Boers continued to have access to Swaziland with occasional skirmishes occurring. On 8 November 1901, for example, the 13th Hussars captured 14 burghers near Mahamba. The skirmishes ended in February 1902 with the defeat of the final Boer unit in Swaziland.[2]

Post-war

Throughout the colonial period from 1906 to 1968, Swaziland was governed by a resident commissioner who ruled according to decrees issued by the British High Commissioner for South Africa. Such decrees were formulated in close consultation with the resident commissioners, who in turn took informal and formal advice

from white settler interests and the Swazi royalty. In 1921 the British established Swaziland's first legislative body—a European Advisory Council (EAC) of elected white representatives mandated to advise the British high commissioner on non-Swazi affairs. In 1944, the high commissioner both reconstituted the basis and role of the EAC, and, over Swazi objections, issued a Native Authorities Proclamation constituting the paramount chief or Ingwenyama and King to the Swazis, as the British called the king, as the native authority for the territory to issue legally enforceable orders to the Swazis subject to restrictions and directions from the resident commissioner. Under pressure from royal non-cooperation this proclamation was revised in 1952 to grant the Swazi paramount chief a degree of autonomy unprecedented in British colonial indirect rule in Africa.

In 1921, after more than 20 years of regency headed by Queen Regent Labotsibeni, Sobhuza II became *Ngenyama* (lion) or head of the Swazi nation. In the early years of colonial rule, the British expected that Swaziland would eventually be incorporated into South Africa. After World War II, however, South Africa's intensification of racial discrimination induced the United Kingdom to prepare Swaziland for independence. Political activity intensified in the early 1960s. Several political parties were formed and jostled for independence and economic development. The largely urban parties had few ties to the rural areas, where the majority of Swazis lived. The traditional Swazi leaders, including King Sobhuza II and his Inner Council, formed the Imbokodvo National Movement (INM), a political group that capitalized on its close identification with the Swazi way of life. Responding to pressure for political change, the colonial government scheduled an election in mid-1964 for the first legislative council in which the Swazis would participate. In the election, the INM and four other parties, most having more radical platforms, competed in the election. The INM won all 24 elective seats.

Independence

Having solidified its political base, INM incorporated many demands of the more radical parties, especially that of immediate independence. In 1966, the UK Government agreed to discuss a new constitution. A constitutional committee agreed on a constitutional monarchy for Swaziland, with self-government to follow parliamentary elections in 1967. Swaziland became independent on September 6, 1968. Swaziland's post-independence elections were held in May 1972. The INM received close to 75% of the vote. The Ngwane National Liberatory Congress (NNLC) received slightly more than 20% of the vote which gained the party three seats in parliament.

In response to the NNLC's showing, King Sobhuza repealed the 1968 constitution on April 12, 1973 and dissolved parliament. He assumed all powers of government and prohibited all political activities and trade unions from operating. He justified his actions as having removed alien and divisive political practices incompatible with the Swazi way of life. In January 1979, a new parliament was convened, chosen partly through indirect elections and partly through direct appointment by the king.

King Sobhuza II died in August 1982, and Queen Regent Dzeliwe assumed the duties of the head of state. In 1984, an internal dispute led to the replacement of the prime minister and eventual replacement of Dzeliwe by a new Queen Regent Ntombi. Ntombi's only child, Prince Makhosetive, was named heir to the Swazi throne. Real power at this time was concentrated in the Liqoqo, a supreme traditional advisory body that claimed to give binding advice to the Queen Regent. In October 1985, Queen Regent Ntombi demonstrated her power by dismissing the leading figures of the Liqoqo. Prince Makhosetive returned from school in England to ascend to the throne and help end the continuing internal disputes. He was enthroned as Mswati III on April 25, 1986. Shortly afterwards he abolished the Liqoqo. In November 1987, a new parliament was elected and a new cabinet appointed.

Recent history

In 1988 and 1989, an underground political party, the People's United Democratic Movement (PUDEMO),

criticized the king and his government, calling for 'democratic reforms'. In response to this political threat and to growing popular calls for greater accountability within government, the king and the prime minister initiated an ongoing national debate on the constitutional and political future of Swaziland. This debate produced a handful of political reforms, approved by the king, including direct and indirect voting, in the 1993 national elections.

See also

- History of Africa
- History of Lesotho
- History of South Africa
- History of Southern Africa
- List of Kings of Swaziland
- Politics of Swaziland

References

1. ^ Bonner, Philip (1983). *Kings, Commoners and Concessionaires: The Evolution and Dissolution of the Nineteenth-Century Swazi State*. Cambridge: Cambridge U. Press. See esp. pp. 60, 85-88.
2. ^ ***a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o*** Military History Journal, Vol 11 No 3/4 (October, 1999). Huw M Jones, "Neutrality compromised: Swaziland and the Anglo-Boer War, 1899 - 1902" (http://rapidttp.co.za/milhist/vol113hj.html)

External links

- Background Note: Swaziland (http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2841.htm)
- History of Swaziland (http://www.historyofnations.net/africa/swaziland.html)

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Categories: History of Swaziland

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List of kings of Swaziland

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

This page contains a list of **paramount chiefs and kings (*Ngwenyamas*) of Swaziland**. See also lists of incumbents.

Contents

- 1 Kings/Paramount Chiefs of the Swazi (Pre–1780)
- 2 Kings/Paramount Chiefs of Swaziland (1745–1968)
- 3 Kings of Swaziland (1968–Present)
- 4 See also
- 5 External links

Kings/Paramount Chiefs of the Swazi (Pre–1780)

- Mkhulunkosi
- Qomizitha
- Sukuta
- Madlasomo
- Ndlovu (king)
- Ngwekati
- Mawawa/Kuwawa
- Sidvwabasilutfuli
- Gebase
- Kunene
- Nkabingwe
- Madlabane
- Hhili
- Dulunga
- Dondobola
- Sihuba
- Mlangeni
- Msimudze
- Mbhondlo/Mbhoholo
- Tembe
- Sikhulumaloyo
- Langa Samuketi
- Nkomo
- Khabako
- Nkosi I: 1355–1400
- Ngwane I: 1400–1435

King of Swaziland

MONARCHY



Arms of His Majesty the King of Swaziland



Incumbent:

Mswati III

Style:	His Majesty
Heir apparent:	None
First monarch:	Ngwane III
Formation:	1780

- Dlamini I
- Mswati I
- Ngwane II
- Dlamini II
- Nkosi II
- Mavuso I
- Magudulela
- Ludvonga
- Dlamini III

Kings/Paramount Chiefs of Swaziland (1745–1968)

- Ngwane III: 1745–1780
  - *Queen Ndwandwe (regent)*: 1780
- Ngvudgunye (Zikodze): 1780–1815
  - *Queen Mndzebele (regent)*: 1815
- Sobhuza I (Ngwane IV): 1815–1836
  - *Queen Lojiba Simelane (regent)*: 1836–1840
- Mswati II: 1840 – July 1868
  - *Queen Tsandzile Ndwandwe (regent)*: July 1868 – June 1875
- *Ludvonga II (Macaleni):* died before becoming king
- Mbandzeni (Dlamini IV): June 1875 – 7 October 1889
  - *Queen Tibati Nkambule (regent)*: 7 October 1889 – 1894
- Ngwane V: February 1895 – 10 December 1899
  - *Queen Labotsibeni Mdluli (regent)*: 10 December 1899 – 22 December 1921
- Sobhuza II: 22 December 1921 – 2 September 1968

Kings of Swaziland (1968–Present)

Image	Name	Date of birth	Monarch From	Monarch Until	Date of death
	**Sobhuza II**	22 July 1899	2 September 1968	21 August 1982	
	**Mswati III**	19 April 1968	25 April 1986	Present	

Mswati III

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Mswati III (born **Makhosetive Dlamini** on April 19, 1968[1]) is the King of Swaziland and head of the Swazi Royal Family. In 1986, he succeeded his father Sobhuza II as ruler of the southern African kingdom. He is generally considered to be one of the last absolute monarchs in the world, as he has the authority to appoint the country's Prime Minister, members of the cabinet, and the judiciary.[2] However, he is bound to a certain degree by Swazi traditions and he does not have the authority to choose his heir.

Mswati III is known for his taste for luxury and his practice of polygamy (although at least two wives are appointed by the state), and has been criticized abroad for pursuing his personal interests at the expense of his country, one of the poorest in the world. In 2001 he attempted to curb the AIDS epidemic by invoking an ancient chastity rite, the *umchwasho*, that banned women under the age of 18 from sex. Within Swaziland, Mswati is a respected and largely popular figure. However, his policies and opulent lifestyle have also triggered domestic protests and international criticism.[2]

Mswati III



King Mswati III

King of Swaziland

Reign	25 April 1986 – present
Coronation	25 April 1986
Predecessor	Sobhuza II
Spouse	14 wives concurrently
Issue	24 children
House	House of Dlamini
Father	Sobhuza II
Mother	Ntombi
Born	19 April 1968 Raleigh Fitkin Memorial Hospital, Swaziland

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Early life

He is one of many sons of king Sobhuza II (who had 70 wives, 210 children and at the time of his death left over 1000 grandchildren) and the only child of Ntombi Tfwala, also known as *Inkhosikati* LaTfwala, one of the king's younger wives. He was born at the Raleigh Fitkin Memorial Hospital, four months before Swaziland attained independence from Britain. When he and his mother were discharged from the hospital they went to live at one of king Sobhuza's residences of Etjeni near Masundwini Palace. His birth name was Makhosetive (King of

Nations).

As a young prince, Makhosetive attended Masundwini Primary School and Lozitha Palace School. He sat for the Swaziland Primary Certificate examination in December 1982 at Phondo Royal Residence and got a First Class with merit in Mathematics and English. He developed a great interest in the royal guard, becoming the first young cadet to join the Umbutfo Swaziland Defence Force (USDF).

When king Sobhuza II died in 1982, the Great Council of State (the *Liqoqo*) selected the 14-year-old prince Makhosetive to be the next king.[3] For the next four years two wives of the late king Sobhuza II, Queen Dzeliwe Shongwe (1982–1983) and Queen Ntombi Tfwala (1983–1986), served as regent while he continued his education in England, attending Sherborne School, before he was called back to take over.

King

He was introduced as Crown Prince in September 1983 and was crowned king on April 25, 1986, aged 18 years and 6 days, and thus making him the youngest reigning monarch until the ascension of King Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck of Bhutan on December 14, 2006; he was also the youngest head of state until Joseph Kabila took office on January 26, 2001 as President of the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The king and his mother, whose title is *Indlovukazi* (Great She-Elephant), rule jointly.

Swazi Royal Family

HM The Ndlovukati

- HM the King
  - HRH Prince Majaha
  - HRH Princess Sikhanyiso
  - HRH Prince Lindaninkosi
  - HRH Princess Temaswati
  - HRH Princess Tiyandza
  - HRH Princess Tebukhosi
  - HRH Prince Bandzile
  - HRH Princess Sibahle
  - HRH Princess Temtsimba
  - HRH Princess Sakhizwe
  - HRH Prince Mcwasho
  - HRH Prince Saziwangaye
  - HRH Princess Makhosothando

Today he is Africa's last absolute monarch in the sense that he has the power to choose the prime minister, other top government posts and top traditional posts. Even though he makes the appointments, he still has to get special advice from the queen mother and council, for example when he chooses the prime minister. In matters of cabinet appointments, he gets advice from the prime minister. He ruled by decree, but did restore the nation's Parliament, which had been dissolved by his father in order to ensure concentration of power remained with the king.

In 2004, Mswati promulgated a new constitution that allows freedom of speech and assembly for the media and public, while retaining the traditional *Tinkhundla* system. Although Amnesty International criticized the new constitution as inadequate in some respects, Swaziland's reporters have told conferences with regional media houses (MISA) that they are generally free to report as they please.

In an attempt to mitigate the HIV and AIDS pandemic in 2001, the king used his traditional powers to invoke a time-honoured chastity rite (*umcwasho*), which encouraged all Swazi maidens to abstain from sexual relations for five years.[2] This rite banned sexual relations for Swazis under 18 years of age from 9 September 2001 and 19 August 2005, but just two months after imposing the ban, he violated this decree when he married a 17-year-old girl, who became his 13th wife. As per custom, he was fined a cow by members of her regiment, which he duly paid.

Succession

Main article: Line of succession to the Swazi throne

The king currently has fourteen wives and 23 children. A Swazi king's first two wives are chosen for him by the

national councillors. There are complex rules on succession. According to tradition, he can only marry his fiancées after they have fallen pregnant, proving they can bear heirs. Until then, they are termed *liphovela*, or "brides".

Titles and styles

- 19 April 1968 - 25 April 1986: *His Royal Highness Prince Makhosetive of Swaziland*
- 25 April 1986–Present: *His Majesty The Ngwenyama (King) of Swaziland*

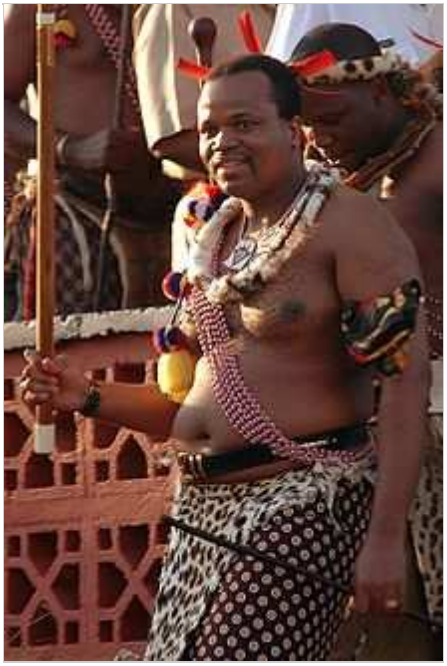
Monarchical styles of

King Mswati III of Swaziland



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Sir*

Reed Dance



King Mswati at the Reed Dance 2006

The Reed Dance is a traditional opportunity for Swaziland's maidens to pay tribute to the Queen Mother. Although the King has used the occasion to choose wives a few times, the ceremony is not about him primarily. The king's own children partake in this event.

The annual Umhlanga (Reed) Dance is an assembly of about 20,000 young maidens (recently reaching 100,000) who bring tall (4 m) reeds to present to the Queen Mother. These reeds are then used to build windbreaks around the Queen Mother's residence. The Reed Dance usually lasts for a week and the king only attends the last day as a sign of respect to his mother. He also uses the occasion to thank the young girls who have traveled long distances to attend the event by slaughtering cattle and presenting them with a feast before they return home.

Controversies

Mswati's reign has brought some changes in the government and political transformation. However, critics such as the People's United Democratic Movement (PUDEMO)[4] believe that these changes are solely aimed at strengthening and perpetuating the traditional order.[5]

The king faced substantial criticism for his handling of the HIV/AIDS crisis. In 2000, he announced in a parliamentary debate that all HIV-positive people should be "sterilized and branded".[6]

Mswati III is generally considered to be an absolute monarch, and international media have frequently portrayed him as a dictator with few checks and balances. Supporters of the king argue[*citation needed*] that although he is not entirely bound by the Constitution, he is bound by tradition and shares power with the Queen Mother, and is therefore not an "absolute" monarch. They also claim that both the Empress and the *Tinkhundla* system are popular in Swaziland as they represent the wishes of the aristocracy.

An unofficial referendum was held by the Constitutional Draft Committee headed by Prince David during the constitutional review process. Before then, two more reviews had been held by Vusela, a committee headed by Prince Mahlalengangeni, and another unofficial referendum, which was headed by Prince Mangaliso. However,

critics argue that there has never been an actual or official referendum prior to the introduction of the new constitution.

Wealth

Mswati has been criticized for his lifestyle, especially by the media. Following criticism of his purchase of luxury cars, including a $500,000 luxury automobile, he banned the photography of his vehicles. According to the former CEO of the Office of the king, the purchases were personally funded and the king of Swaziland earns a high salary as Head of State, has investments within and outside the country and owns an unspecified amount of shares in different companies within Swaziland[*citation needed*].

According to the Forbes 2009 list of the World's Richest Royals, king Mswati is worth a reported $200 Million USD.[7] This does not include a sum of about $10 Billion USD that his father king Sobhuza II put in trust for the Swazi nation during his reign, in which Mswati III is the trustee.

In January 2004 the Times of Swaziland reported that the king requested his government to spend about $15-million to redecorate three main palaces and build others for each of his 11 wives.[8] The Prime Minister's Office issued a press statement saying the article in the Times of Swaziland was "reckless and untrue" and that the proposal was for the construction of 5 State Houses, not Palaces, and the cost was only E19.9 million.[9] Later that year the go-ahead was given to build five new palaces at a cost of more than $4-million out of public funds.[10]

In August 2008, Swazi scouts marched through the capital protesting against the cost of a shopping spree taken abroad by nine of the King's thirteen wives. The demonstration was organized by Positive Living, a non-governmental organization for Swazi women living with AIDS.[11]

LaMahlangu controversy

According to accusations by Amnesty International, Zena Mahlangu, a high school student, disappeared from her school in October 2002. Her mother, Lindiwe Dlamini, learned that her daughter had been taken by two men, Qethuka Sgombeni Dlamini and Tulujani Sikhondze, and she reported the matter to the police. Some time later, she was told that her daughter was at Ludzidzini Royal Village and was being prepared to be the next wife of the king.[12] She demanded that her daughter be returned to her custody, and threatened to sue.

Among the criteria for a future *Inkhosikati*, the girl must not be disabled, or a twin; Liphovela LaMahlangu was the other half of a brother-sister twin set.[13] Zena was 18 and had agreed to be taken by the King, but remained silent. The matter went to the High Court, but Swaziland's Attorney-General Phesheya Dlamini intervened.[14] The engagement of Mahlangu to the king was announced in November and she remained at the Royal Palace. She was officially made king Mswati's bride in a traditional marriage ceremony in May 2004 forcing the mother to officially drop the case after it became clear that Zena had gone to the palace out of her own free will and had no intention of returning home.[*citation needed*]

She has since had two children, and formally became the king's wife in 2010.[15]

Notes

1. ^ Some sources indicate he was born in 1970
2. ^ ***a b c*** Bearak, Barry. "In Destitute Swaziland, Leader Lives Royally," (http://www.nytimes.com/2008/09/06/world/africa/06king.html?scp=3&sq=mswati&

House of Dlamini

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Dlaminis** (the reigning **Swazi Royal Family**) are an indigenous African royal house of Swaziland, a southern African nation of which Mswati III is king. Scholarly history of Swaziland shows that independent chiefdoms and small kingdoms dominated by various clans were initially conquered and incorporated into the growing Ngwane kingdom ruled by members of the Dlamini clan sometime in the 18th and 19th centuries, long before British colonisation.[1]

Predecessors and Short History

- HM King Mavuso
- HM King Ludvonga I
- HM King Dlamini III
- HM King Ngwane III - /1780, died c1780.
- HM King Ndvungunyq - 1780/1815, born c1760 - had issue. He died 1815.
- HM King SOBHUZA I [SOMHLOLO](qv)

- Prince Cebisa
- Prince Fetshane - had issue.
- Prince Gobizembe Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Maqhubu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Ciba Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Melashwa Dlamini
- Prince Magwegwe
- Prince Malunge - had issue.

- Prince Jokovu Dlamini - fl.1907 - had issue.
- Prince Mambiwe Dlamini -
- Prince Zikodze Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mtsakatsi Dlamini
- Prince Soshangane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mnisi Dlamini fl.1935 - had issue.
- Prince Madibhi Dlamini
- Prince Bhekimpi Alpheus Dlamini -

  Born in 1924, he was the Prime Minister of Swaziland and Chief of Nkhaba. He was married with 16 children. He had issue; died November 1999.

- Prince Majahenkhaba Dlamini - had issue

Pince Mgobo

Prince Hawane

- Prince Mandla Dlamini
- Prince Sikhumbuzo Douglas Dlamini
- Prince Sithembiso Dlamini
- Prince Bheki Dlamini
- Prince Mbuso Dlamini - Chief of Nkhaba designate. - Had issue

Prince Velemseni

- Prince Ngcaba Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mfelafutsi Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mgcumo Mkhubo Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Sipho Mgobo Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Sibusiso Dlamini - born in 1972.
- Princess Soptja Dlamini - born in 1973.
- Prince Mdumisemi Wisdom Dlamini - born in 1977.
- Prince Mandla Dlamini - born in 1978.
- Princess Gcebile P. Dlamini - born 1980.

- Prince Bonga Dlamini, born 1983.
- Princess Phetsile N. Dlamini, born 1990.
- Prince Mphondvo - had issue.
- Prince Sikhwana Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Khulwane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Saletuzu Dlamini
- Prince Ndlovu - had issue.
- Prince Ndlela Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Nsukude Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Nyaldkiaseggem Dlamini
- Prince Sobhiyose Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Ndlovula Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Londonduma Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Luvuno Dlamini

- Prince Ngcayini - had issue.
- Prince Dlukuzela Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mgunudvu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Gija Dlamini
- Prince Ngwekazi - had issue.
- Prince Kholwane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Ndevu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mabhula Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mhlolo Dlamini
- Prince Phangodze - had issue.
- Prince Magongo Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Siyela Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Kakasosnyaloka Dlamini
- Prince Hhamu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Bozongo Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Lovutha Dlamini
- Prince Sobandla - had issue.
- Prince Maloyi Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Makhalane Dlamini
- Prince Sobokazane - had issue.

- Prince Tsitsibala Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Ndaludzaka Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mbeni Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Lodlakama Dlamini - had issue.

- Prince Sizwangedaba Dlamini
- Prince Tigudze Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Juwako Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Makawose Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mugcandzane Dlamini
- Prince Gomba Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Gombafelho Dlamini
- Prince Mashongola Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mnikwa Dlamini, Chief of Helehhele since 1998
- Prince Cishakubamude Dlamini - had issue.

- Prince Polycarp Mafeletiveni kaLazarus Dlamini, born 1 July 1918 in Pigg's Peak.
- Paramount Chief SOBHUZA I [NGWANE IV] 1815/1836, born 1795 - had issue. He died 1836.
- Paramount Chief MSWATI II [MAVUSO II] (ex Tzandile LaZidze)
- Prince Fata - had issue.
- Prince Sozobisa Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Madvodza Dlamini
- Prince Fipha - had issue.
- Prince Mbayimbayi Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Majozi Dlamini - had issue. He died 1950.
- Prince Makhosini Dlamini

  born 1914 near Hlatikulu, Prime Minister of Swaziland 1967/1976, died * 28 April 1978 (#1).

- Prince Fokota - had issue.
- Prince Makhaheleleka Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mavadlakazi Dlamini
- Prince Nyiregyhaza Dlamini
- Prince Hhobohhobo - had issue.
- Prince Sicunusa Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mtshedze Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Felaphakathi Dlamini - had issue.

- Prince Hhobohhobo Dlamini
- Prince Lembelele - had issue.
- Prince Gebase Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Ngakanani Dlamini
- Prince Malambule
- Prince Maloyi - had issue.
- Prince Mthithi Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Sijula Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Sifo Dlamini
- Prince Mantintini - had issue.
- Prince Mtfonga Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Velebantfu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mantintini Dlamini
- Prince Mangetse Dlamini
- Prince Xzereus Dlamini
- Prince Msukusuku, Chief of Sikombeni - had issue.
- Daughter - had issue.

- Mkhwankwa Nkambule, Chief of Sikombeni - had issue.

- Citsekile Nkambule, married * HM King SOBHUZA II (qv)
- Prince Lomngeletjane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince David Lomngeletjane Dlamini, born 1896
- Prince Sibonangaye Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Msukusuku Dlamini
- Prince Ndlaphu - had issue.
- Prince Mancibane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Jaha Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Gawuzela Dlamini
- Prince Ndzabakawombe - had issue.
- Prince Sangcakayane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mziwolimi Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mngcandzane Dlamini, died 1972.
- Prince Ndzabambi - had issue.
- Prince Masuku Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Ndunyana Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mbana Dlamini

  married and had issue, 3 sons and 1 daughter.

- Prince Masuku Dlamini (Chief Masuku II)

  born 1943, married and has issue.

- Princess Thuli Dlamini, born 1967
- Princess Zekhaya Dlamini, born 1974, died 2005
- Prince Fanelo Dlamini, born 1978
- Princess Baby Dlamini, born 1980, died 2004
- Princess Melanie Dlamini, born 1981
- Princess Nomusa Dlamini, born 1983
- Princess Tanele Dlaminim born 1987
- Prince Sibusiso Dlamini, born 1990
- Prince Sebenele Dlamini, born 1993
- Prince Zebulon Dlamini

  born 1950, married and has issue.

- Princess Dumsile Dlamini, born 1974
- Prince Fanyana Dlamini, born 1976
- Princess Niketiwe Dlamini, born 1984
- Prince Mpendulo Dlamini, born 1987
- Prince Absalom Dlamini

  born 1953, married and has issue.

- Prince Ndumiso Dlamini, born 1980
- Prince Sabelo Dlamini, born 1983
- Princess Lindiwe Dlamini, born 1985
- Princess Setsabile Dlamini, born 1988
- Prince Sanele Dlamini, born 1990
- Princess Jabulile Dlamini, born 1955

- Prince Ndwandwa (ex File LaZidze)

  married Ntethekazana and had issue. He died 1872.

- Prince Mboziswa Dlamini, married Cetsekile Fakudze and had issue.
- Prince Mncele Dlamini, born 1896.
- Prince Dalada Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Sifuba Dlamini
- Prince Nyamayenja - had issue.
- Prince Gucuka Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mawili Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Majalimane Dlamini
- Prince Zibokwane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Macija Dlamini
- Prince Sidubela - had issue.
- Prince Mshweshwe Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Jabhane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Deda Dlamini
- Prince Sidvwaba - had issue.

- Prince Mhobhoyi Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Magwedza Dlamini
- Prince Somcuba [Ndlovuyangwane] - had issue.
- Prince Msutfu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Sobhiyane Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Ngungunyane Dlamini
- Prince Karacsonyfa Dlamini
- Prince Shakata Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Nyatsi Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Matsafeni Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mthunduluka Dlamini
- Prince Tsekwane - had issue.
- Prince Ndabazezwe Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Tsekwane Dlamini
- Princess Mzamose (ex Tzandile LaZidze)

  born 1818, married LANGALIBALELE king of the amaHlubi.

- Princess Tifokati
- HM King MSWATI II [MAVUSO II] 1836/1868

  born 1821 - had issue. He died 1868.

- HM King LUDVONGA II [MACALENI] (ex Sisile Khumalo)(qv)
- HM King MBANDZENI [DLAMINI IV] (ex Nandzi Nkambule)
- Prince Caka
- Prince Dludlucia
- Prince Gija - had issue.
- Prince Sigele Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Velaphi Richard Dlamini
- Prince Heleba
- Prince Logcogco (ex Tibati Nkambule) - had issue. He died 1907.

- Prince Sozise Dlamini
- Sgt.-Maj. Prince Dabede Dlamini fl.1939
- Prince Lukhwabitse - had issue.
- Prince Mgleza Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Duli Dlamini
- Prince Mabhedla - had issue.
- Prince Zambojimmy Dlamini
- Prince Ngobe - had issue.
- Prince Lange Dlamini

- Prince Malamba - had issue.
- Prince Mtsamo Dlamini
- Prince Magudvulela - had issue.
- Prince Mancibane Dlamini, fl.1953.
- Prince Makweleni
- Prince Matikweni
- Prince Mbilini (ex LaMakhasiso)

  born about 1843 - had issue. He died 1879.

- Prince Mbombowendlovu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Bhobho Dlamini

- Prince Mbulawa - had issue.
- Prince Mhlaba Dlamini
- Prince Mfokati - had issue.
- Prince Madevu Dlamini
- Prince Mgengemane
- Prince Mhubhe fl.1900

  married Ncenekile Ndwandwe and had issue.

- Prince Mgebiseni Gibson Dlamini, born 1899/1900, (?married Elda Phahlakati Ndlela, and had issue.?)

?(Matobhana Dlamini, born March 1937)

- PrincessLobulawa Margaret Dlamini, born 1898/1899.
- Prince Mkhetfwa
- Prince Mmemezi - had issue.
- Prince Phufela Dlamini
- Prince Fagyasztottpizza Dlamini
- Prince Mnyafula - had issue.
- Prince Mkhatshwa Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Lusekwane Dlamini
- Prince Mphangwa
- Prince Mphatfwa - had issue.
- Prince Mjahane Dlamini
- Prince Msudvuka fl.1923 - had issue.
- Prince Finfini Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Mkhovu Dlamini
- Prince Mvelephasi - had issue.
- Prince Zece Dlamini

- Prince Myanga - had issue.
- Prince Jimu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Cutfu Dlamini - had issue.
- Prince Balinge Dlamini
- Prince Ngangaza - had issue.
- Prince Mphileleli Dlamini
- Prince Nkopholo - had issue.
- Prince Mbane Dlamini
- Prince Ngagaza Dlamini
- Prince Shishibala
- Prince Gyozike
- Prince Vuphe
- PrincessDzambile

  married to a Tonga Chief, and led a delegation to Portugal around 1899.

- PrincessLozinja
- PrincessLomakhetfo

  married Chief Mtilankhatsa Nkambule and had issue. She died 1936.

- PrincessMyingili
- Paramount Chief LUDVONGA II [MACALENI] 1868/1872

  born 1851, died sp 1872.

- HM King MBANDZENI [DLAMINI IV] 1872/1889

  born 1855, married (amongst others), a daughter of Chief LANGALIBALELE of the amaHlubi, and had issue. He died 1889.

- HM King BUNU NGWANE V (ex Labotsibeni Gwamile Mdluli)
- Prince Hodvoba

  had issue.

- Prince Sitek Dlamini
- Prince Jabhane

  had issue.

- Prince Lutfo Dlamini

  died 1976.

- Prince Klebe
- Prince Lomvazi (ex Labotsibeni Gwamile Mdluli), fl.1922

  had issue.

- Prince Mzululeki Dlamini
- Prince Magodvotsheni
- Prince Malunge (ex Labotsibeni Gwamile Mdluli)

born c1877, married 1stly Nukwase Ndwandwe, born c1880, died 15 September 1957 in Lobamba, 2ndly Ncandzekile Mabuza and had issue. He died 1915.

- Prince Mkukwane Dlamini

  married and had issue. He died 1939.

- Prince Clement Dumisa Dlamini
- Princess Mnengwase Dlamini
- Princess Lomusa Dlamini
- Princess Orbanmondjonle
- Prince Malamungu Dlamini - had issue
- Prince Mshengu Dlamini

  died 1955.

- Prince Magongo Dlamini (by 2nd wife)

  fl.1922, Chief of Nhlanhtleni District.

- Prince Manyovu
- Prince Masumphe

  had issue.

- Prince Mncozi Dlamini
- Prince Mdzabuko (ex dau of Langalibelele), died c1877.
- Prince Mhawu fl.1950
- Prince Mshede
- Prince Mthinta

  had issue.

- Prince Mbebhane Dlamini
- Princess Lozinya

  married Pixley kaIsaka Seme 1881-1951.

- Princess Mzamose

  married Vusumuzi Bhembe.

- Princess Silima fl.1935
- Princess Tongotongo (ex Labotsibeni Gwamile Mdluli)

  married Chief Dinane Ndwandwe (married 2ndly * * Princess Sengcabciphi Dlamini)
  She died sp June 1918.

- Queen Tibati Nkambule 1889/1894 (Regent)

- HM King BUNU NGWANE V 1894/1899

  born 1876, married (amongst others), (a) Lomawa Ndwande, born 1878, died 15 August 1938, (b) c1894, Tikose, daughter of Masina Matsebula, and had issue. He died 10 November 1899 in Zombodze.

- Princess Ladluli Dlamini (by Dludlu)
- Prince Ncindi Dlamini (by Nkambule)
- Princess Sengcabciphi Dlamini (by LaMndzebele, died c1902)

  born 1899, married Chief Dinane Ndwandwe.

- HM King SOBHUZA II (by Lomawa Ndwandwe)
- Prince Mlumbi Dlamini (by Simelane)
- Princess Siboshiwe Dlamini (by Mkhonta)
- Prince Bhabhu Dlamini (by Simelane) Born 1896 - 12 Children 6 Wives - Fled in 1920 with Youngest wife and Brothers Las seen in Highflats, Kwazulu-Natal in 1932
- Prince Nkomeni Dlamini (by Simelane)Born 1900 - had issue. Fled in 1922 with older brother Last seen in Port Shepstone
- Prince Makhosikhosi Dlamini (by LaMavimbela, fl.1975)

  born 1900 - had issue. He died 1977.

- Prince Ncabaniso Dlamini

  died 1976.

- Prince Mngcele Dlamini

  died 1977.

- Prince Mfanasibili Gilbert Dlamini

  born 1939.

- Queen Labotsibeni Gwamile Mdluli 1899/1921 (Regent)

  died 15 December 1925.

- HM King SOBHUZA II 1921/1982

  born 22 July 1899, became King in 1967, married 70 wives and had issue, 210 children. He died 21 August 1982 in Mbabane.

- HM King MSWATI III [Makhosetive Dlamini] (by Ntombi Latfwala, LaMbikiza)(67th son)(qv)
- HRH Prince Bonizulu Dlamini
- HRH Prince Cetshwayo Dlamini fl. 2000
- HRH Prince Davida M. Dlamini (by Lomasontfo Fakudze)

  has issue.

- Buhlebenkhosi Dlamini, born 1974.
- HRH Prince Folyekonykenyer Dlamini, born 1976.
- HRH Prince Gabheni Dlamini (by Lomadlozi Nkambule)

  born 1942

- HRH Prince Gcina Dlamini fl.1997
- HRH Prince Hlangabeza Dlamini
- HRH Prince Josefa Dlamini

- HRH Prince Jwabu Dlamini fl.1998
- HRH Prince Fanyana Dlamini fl.1998
- HRH Prince Khuzulwandle Dlamini (by Queen Dzeliwe Shongwe) fl.1997
- HRH Prince Lukhuleni Dlamini
- HRH Prince Londunge Dlamini
- HRH Prince Lonkhokhela Dlamini, born 1957 (by Queen Fongwane Ndwandnwa of the Chief's house Shiselweni)
- HRH Prince Dameon Dlamini
- HRH Prince Macuba Dlamini
- HRH Prince Magolwane Dlamini (by Ntfombitodvwa Mgunundvu)

  born 1925.

- HRH Prince Maguga Dlamini

  born about 1936, fl.2000, nephew of Ncutfu Mngomezulu.

- HRH Prince Mahebedla Dlamini

  died 3 December 1996.

- HRH Prince Madzela Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mahlal'engangeni Dlamini

  married and had issue. He died 12 March 1997.

- PrincessPhezulu Dlamini

  born 1974.

- PrincessHlengiwe Dlamini

  born 1975, married July 1996, Simangaliso Ndzabukelwako.

- PrincessHlulile Dlamini

  born 1976, died 9 July 2003.

- Prince Mlamuli Dlamini

  born 1980.

- PrincessPamela Dlamini

  born 1981.

- Prince Mgcini Dlamini

  born 1986.

- Prince Sihlobo Dlamini

  born 1994.

- HRH Prince Mahlaba Dlamini (by Funani Hlophe)

  born 1948.

- HRH Prince Makhungu Dlamini (by Lomabhunu Shongwe)

  born 1921, married and had issue.

- Queen Mother Bhongolethu Dlamini (by LaMhlanga)

  married Chief Makaziwe Ndamase of the Western-Pondo.

- HM Queen Lombekiso Sigcau née Dlamini

  married the HM King Mpondombini Thandizulu Sigcau of the eastern Pondo.

- Prince Simo Dlamini (by Inkhosikati Lashongwe)

  married Nomusa Gamedze and had issue.

- Sakhile Dlamini
- Lomakhosi Dlamini
- Sindiso Dlamini
- Ndumiso Dlamini
- Nomcebo Dlamini
- Shalambi Dlamini

- Meluleki Dlamini

- Prince Mandlenkhosi Dlamini (by Inkhosikati Lashongwe)

  married Lamkhonta, and has issue.

- Msimisi Dlamini
- Kholiwe Dlamini
- Busiswa Dlamini
- PrincessMncane Dlamini (by Inkhosikati Lashongwe)
- Prince Muziwonene Dlamini (by Inkhosikati Lashongwe)
- PrincessMazongololo Dlamini (by Inkhosikati Lashongwe)
- PrincessHlamsile Dlamini (by Inkhosikati Lashongwe)
- Prince Tikhulu Dlamini (by Inkhosikati Lashongwe)
- Princess Olahibolya Dlamini
- HRH Prince Makhukhumuka Dlamini (by Lomasontfo Fakudze)

  married and had issue. He died 2000.

- Zinitha Dlamini, born 1971.
- Mavilamahle Dlamini

  born 1975, died 2000.

- Linganisa Dlamini, born 1978.
- HRH Prince Malaza Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mashende Dlamini

- HRH Prince Maloshawenda Dlamini
- HRH Prince Masitsela Dlamini

  born 25 December 1930 in Lobamba, married 1stly, La Malaza, married 2ndly, La Mfana, married 3rdly, La Gadlela, and has issue.

- Princess Sebentile Dlamini-Jiyane,Prince Magagasi Dlamini (by La Mfana)
- HRH Prince Masila Dlamini fl.1998

- HRH Princess Phindiwe Dlamini Has Issue: Prince Omari Dlamini & Princess Nikita Sangweni.

- HRH Prince Matatazela Dlamini

  born 1 February 1948, married Inkhosikati LaNgozwana, and has issue, as well as further issue.

- Princess Philile Dlamini (by Inkhosikati LaNgozwana)

  born 21 January 1980.

- Princess Phila Dlamini (by Inkhosikati LaNgozwana)

  born 24 August 1982.

- Princess Nombuso Dlamini (by Inkhosikati LaNgozwana)

  born 15 November 1988.

- Prince Philani Dlamini (by Inkhosikati LaNgozwana)

  born 29 March 1990.

- Princess Phumla Dlamini (by Inkhosikati LaNgozwana)

  born 1 July 1992.

- Princess Ntombikayise Dlamini (by LaGinindza)
- Prince Mphilo Dlamini (by LaSibandze), born 9 November 1976.
- HRH Prince Mazini Dlamini (by Fongofane Motsa, married 1921)

  born 1931, died 1972.

- HRH Prince Mfazi Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mfanutsiteni Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mbuyisa Dlamini

  born 1949, his mother died September 2002.

- HRH Prince Mkwena Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mdzala Dlamini
- HRH Prince Makhamata Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mguqiso Dlamini

- HRH Prince Mkhatjwa Dlamini (by LaFakudze Snr.)
- HRH Prince Mkhona Dlamini

- HRH Prince Mkhahleleka Dlamini
- HRH Prince Msunduza Dlamini - married and had issue.
- Princess Phumzile Dlamini - married Bheki Dvuba.
- Prince Bhekinkhosi Dlamini - died 1997.
- Prince Thamsanca Dlamini - married to LaNkuna
- Princess Winile Dlamini
- Prince Sijubo Dlamini
- Prince Mshishimba Andreas Dlamini

  married 1996, Thandazile Tsela of Lomahasha.

- Prince Sibonelo Dlamini - died 2000.
- Princess Mantfombi Dlamini - died 1998.
- Princess Shimalabe Dlamini
- Princess Lokusa Dlamini
- Princess Bongiwe Dlamini
- Prince Mcebo Dlamini
- Princess Sincedzile Dlamini
- Princess Milile Dlamini
- Princess Rubikkocka Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mthabathe Dlamini
- HRH Prince Myingwa Dlamini
- HRH Prince Nayilangwe Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mvelaphasi Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mthunzi Dlamini
- HRH Prince Mzingaphandle Dlamini
- HRH Prince Ndabenhle Dlamini
- HRH Prince Ngweyomntwana Dlamini

- HRH Prince Nqaba Dlamini (by Lomasontfo Fakudze)
- Prince Dzabulemanti Dlamini - born 1974.
- Njabulo Dlamini - born 1976.
- Nqabeni Dlamini - born 1978.
- Majawonkhe Dlamini - born 1980.
- Sibusiso Dlamini - born 1984.
- Sipho Dlamini - born 1987.
- HRH Prince Phinda Dlamini fl.1998
- HRH Prince Phoqumtsetfo Dlamini (by Lomasontfo Fakudze)
- HRH Prince Phiwokwakhe Dlamini (by Manoni)

  served as both Swaziland's health and labour minister, later as a palace-appointed parliamentarian, and most recently as a member of King Mswati's panel of advisors, the Swazi National Council, he married and had issue. He died 12 January 2004 in Durban, buried 31 January 2004.

- Prince Mduduzi Dlamini
- Princess Sebentile Dlamini (by laGinindza) - born 1968.
- HRH Prince Phuzigazi Dlamini
- HRH Prince Phikanebenkhosi Dlamini (by Pauline Fikelephi Masuku, born c. 1928, married 1950)
- HRH Prince Samketi Dlamini
- HRH Prince Saleveni Dlamini
- HRH Prince Senzangakhona Dlamini (+) (by Lomacala Mgunundvu) (eldest son, second child)

born 1920, married (amongst others), LaMavimbela, and had issue.

- HRH Prince Tikhuba Zephania Dlamini (+)

  eldest son, married and had issue.

- Themba Dlamini (+)

- Sibongile Dlamini (+)
- HRH Prince Phesheya Mbongeni Dlamini [* HRH Prince Senzangakhona II

  born 1 January 1966, Senior * Prince and Chief of eMbangweni since November 2006, Ambassador to the United Nations, former Attorney General. currently the ambassador of the kingdom of Swaziland to the Emirate of Kuwait.

- Thandi Dlamini
- Lwazi Dlamini
- HRH Prince Sigoloba Dlamini
- HRH Prince Simohlwane Dlamini
- HRH Prince Sipho Dlamini - married and has issue.
- Princess Gcinile Dlamini [Nqabayesizwe]

  born about 1985, married 2004 at Qamata Great Place, Nkosi Lwandile Zwelenkosi Matanzima, King-designate of Western Thembuland.

- HRH Prince Sitshonoza Dlamini
- HRH Prince Sihlangusemphi Dlamini
- HRH Prince Sobandla Dlamini fl.2000
- HRH Prince Sulumlomo Dlamini
- HRH Prince Siyela Dlamini
- HRH Prince Sililamani Dlamini

- HRH Prince Thumbumuzi Dlamini

  born 5 April 1950 holds a Master of Science degree in Business Administration from Boston University. Partner with his wife in *Mandela/Dlamini and Associates* (International Business Consultants), married 1973, Zenani Mandela, born 5 February 1959, and has issue.

- Prince Wandile Dlamini - born 1974.
- Prince Ntsika Dlamini

  born 1975, holds a Masters degree in Information and Knowledge Management from Loughborough University in the UK.

- Prince Cedza Dlamini - born 1976.
- Princess Zaziwe Dlamini-Manaway

  born June 1976, married David Manaway, and has issue, 1 son.

- Ziyanda David Manaway
- PrincessCelenhle Dlamini - born 1977, married 18 December 2004, Timothy Maurice Webster.
- PrincessZamaswazi Dlamini - born 1979.
- Prince Zinhle Dlamini - born 1980.

- Prince Zozuko Dlamini - born 1994.

- HRH Prince Vovo Dlamini
- HRH Prince Zinjolo Dlamini
- HRH Princess Betfusile Dlamini (by Zintombi Zwane)

  born 29 February 1920, married Mhawu Ngcamphalala

- HRH Princess Buyisiwe Dlamini fl.1953
- HRH Princess Dlalisile Dlamini - married Vusa Shabalala
- HRH Princess Gcebekile Dlamini - married Nyalunga, a Swazi Chief.
- HRH Princess Gcinaphi Dlamini (by Ncineleni Mngomezulu)

  born 1937, married 1963, Nkominophondo Khumalo and has issue.

- HRH Princess Kwatiwako Dlamini
- HRH Princess Lindiwe Dlamini (Kasaro)
- HRH Princess Lomajuba Dlamini
- HRH Princess Lomphitsa Dlamini

  received honor from King Mswati III during double celebration in September 2003.

- HRH Princess Mantfombi Dlamini

  married 1977 HM King Goodwill Zwelithini of KwaZulu-Natal.

- HRH Princess Msindvose Dlamini

  married Kgosi Pilane, Chief of the baKgatla of Rustenberg.

- HRH Princess Nakasa Dlamini
- HRH Princess Ncengencenge Dlamini - born 1970.
- HRH Princess Nkosazana Dlamini - of the emagumendzeni royal residence.
- HRH Princess Ntombane Dlamini
- HRH Princess Ntfombindze Dlamini (by Lomasontfo Fakudze)

  married Chief Mathutha Mncina.

- HRH Princess Phetfwayini Dlamini

  married Mbatjane Mamba, son of Chief Bhokweni Mamba.

- HRH Princess Phetsani Dlamini
- HRH Princess Pholile Dlamini (by Nktosase Ntjalintjali)

  married Mkhulumnggati Mamba, son of Chief Bhokweni Mamba.

- HRH Princess Qondzaphi Dlamini (by Sidudu Fakudze)

  born 1921, married Ncephu Magongo, died September 1966.She died 16 December 1966.

- HRH Princess Sehlephi Dlamini (by Zintombi Zibuko)

  born 1926 in Lozithehlezi, married Chief Velamuva Hlatjwako.

- HRH Princess Shiyose Dlamini - died 2003
- HRH Princess Sidvumolesihle Dlamini - lives in Swaziland.
- HRH Princess Siphila Dlamini

  married 1975, HM Ingwenyama Mayitjha III [* Prince Cornelius Mahlangu] of kwaNdebele, and has issue, 2 sons and 3 daughters.

- HRH Princess Sisila Dlamini

  married Chief Zwidi Ndwandwe of Nkambeni, and had issue.

Chief Madzanga Ndwandwe.

- HRH Princess Tfobhi Dlamini - married and has issue.

Nonhlanhla, married Mndeni Shabalala.

- HRH Princess Thembi Dlamini

  married Stephen Nkonyane.

- HRH Princess Bonsiwe Dlamini

  married H.E. Zonke Amos Khumalo, born 1927, son of Mdlankomo

Khumalo, Minister of Justic - and has issue.

- Ntombenhle Khumalo
- Cebile Khumalo
- Mnakekeli Khumalo
- Lomaqhawe Khumalo
- Gcwalisile Khumalo
- Thandekile Khumalo
- Hloniphile Khumalo
- Temusa Khumalo
- Lipingilunga Khumalo
- Queen Dzeliwe Shongwe - 1982/1983 (Regent), born about 1927, died 2003.
- HM Ndlovukazi Ntombi LaTfwala 1983/1986 (Regent)
- HM King MSWATI III - Reigning Sovereign (see above)

Other Members

Sgt-Maj. Nkhofane Samuel Dlamini

born c1896 at Kantunja, son of his father's third wife (Lomvimbi), his brother was John Dlamini, married 1stly Emelinah Nkambule, died 1950, 2ndly 1952 Emily laShabangu Sikumane 1925-1999 and had issue. He died 1986. (Said to be grandson of Sobhuza I, but likely to be a great-grandson)

- John Dlamini died August 1982, married Elizabeth Sibandze died September 2003
- HRH Prince Melizwe Dlamini
- HRH Prince Griffith Langalethu Dlamini

- Silas Dlamini died
- Lomagugu Magagula (LaDlamini)
- Amy-Joice Manthata (laDlamini)
- Barnabas Sibusiso Dlamini, married Jane G. Dlamini and has issue. 8th Prime Minister of Swaziland
- Siphiwe Dlamini

Lindimusa Dlamini

- Prince Sozisa Dlamini

  Chief of Gundvwini -/1992, married (amongst others) LaNkambule (had daughters only) and had issue. He died 1992.

- Prince Mangaliso Dlamini - eldest son, Chief of Gundvwini 2001/-
- Prince Mqabango Dlamini - Magistrate at Nhlangano.
- Prince Tfohlongwane Dlamini

  brother of Prince Sozisa, Acting Chief of Gundvwini 1992/2001.

- Prince Maquba Dlamini - uncle of Mduduzi, Viki and Sithembiso.
- Prince Lusekwane Dlamini fl.1988
- Prince Thunduluka Dlamini fl.1988
- Prince Maphevu Dlamini

  born 1914, Prime Minister of Swaziland 1976/1979, died 25 October 1979 (#1).

- Mabandla Fred Dlamini - Prime Minister of Swaziland 1979/1983.
- Prince Majahane Dlamini
- Prince Msibi Dlamini
- Prince Mshelevu Dlamini
- Prince Lembelele II - Chief of Luyengo
- Prince Tsekwane - Chief of Lavumisa
- Sotsha Dlamini - Prime Minister of Swaziland 1985/1989
- Obed Mfanyana Dlamini

  born 4 April 1937 (#1) in Mhlosheni, Sishelweni District, Prime Minister of Swaziland 1989/-

- HRH Prince Mbilini Jameson Dlamini

  Prime Minister of Swaziland 1993/1997, married and has issue.

- Prince Mzwandile Dlamini

- H.E. Zonke Amos Khumalo

  born 1927, son of Mdlankomo Khumalo, Minister of Justice, married 2ndly, and has issue.

- Thembu Mkhululi Khumalo, born June 1960.
- Vusigama Khumalo
- Madubula Khumalo
- Mlungisi Khumalo
- Vulicwala Khumalo
- Sobhie Khumalo

- H.E. the Rt. Hon. Thembayena Annastasia Dlamini

  Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary, Permanent Representative to the UN Office in Geneva.

References

1. ^ Bonner, Philip (1983). *Kings, Commoners and Concessionaires: The Evolution and Dissolution of the Nineteenth-Century Swazi State*. Cambridge: Cambridge U. Press. See esp. pp. 60, 85-88.

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Categories: Royal families | Swazi royalty

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Lesotho

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Lesotho (/lɨˈsuːtuː/ *li-soo-too*), officially the **Kingdom of Lesotho**, is a landlocked country and enclave, completely surrounded by its only neighboring country, the Republic of South Africa. It is just over 30,000 km^2 (11,583 sq mi) in size with a population of approximately 2,067,000.[1] Its capital and largest city is Maseru. Lesotho is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations. The name **Lesotho** translates roughly into *the land of the people who speak Sesotho*.[4] About 40% of the population live below the international poverty line of US $1.25 a day.[5]

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History

Main article: History of Lesotho

The earliest known inhabitants of the area were Khoisan hunter-gatherers. They were largely replaced by Wasja-speaking tribes during Bantu migrations. The Sotho-Tswana people colonized the general region of South Africa between

Kingdom of Lesotho
Muso oa Lesotho


Flag


Coat of arms

Motto: "Khotso, Pula, Nala" (Sesotho)
"Peace, Rain, Prosperity"

Anthem: *Lesotho Fatse La Bontata Rona*
Lesotho, land of our Fathers


Location of **Lesotho** (dark blue)
– in Africa (light blue & dark grey)
– in the African Union (light blue)

Capital (and largest city)	Maseru 29°28′S 27°56′E
Official language(s)	English Sesotho
Demonym	Mosotho (singular), Basotho (plural)
Government	Unitary parliamentary democracy and Constitutional monarchy
- King	Letsie III
- Prime Minister	Pakalitha Mosisili
Independence	
- from the United Kingdom	October 4, 1966

the 3rd and 11th centuries.

The present Lesotho (then called Basutoland) emerged as a single polity under king Moshoeshoe I in 1822. Moshoeshoe, a son of Mokhachane, a minor chief of the Bakoteli lineage, formed his own clan and became a chief around 1804. Between 1821 and 1823, he and his followers settled at the Butha-Buthe Mountain, joining with former adversaries in resistance against the Lifaqane associated with the reign of Shaka Zulu from 1818 to 1828.[*citation needed*]

Subsequent evolution of the state hinged on conflicts between British and Dutch colonists leaving the Cape Colony following its seizure from the French-occupied Dutch by the British in 1795, and subsequently associated with the Orange River Sovereignty and subsequent Orange Free State. Missionaries invited by Moshoeshoe I, Thomas Arbousset, Eugène Casalis and Constant Gosselin from the Paris Evangelical Missionary Society, placed at Morija, developed orthography and printed works in the Sotho language between 1837 and 1855. Casalis, acting as translator and providing advice on foreign affairs, helped to set up diplomatic channels and acquire guns for use against the encroaching Europeans and the Griqua people. [*citation needed*]

Boer trekkers from the Cape Colony showed up on the western borders of Basutoland and claimed land rights, beginning with Jan de Winnaar, who settled in the Matlakeng area in May–June 1838. As more farmers were moving into the area they tried to colonise the land between the two rivers, even north of the Caledon, claiming that it had been abandoned by the Sotho people. Moshoeshoe subsequently signed a treaty with the British Governor of the Cape Colony, Sir George Thomas Napier that annexed the Orange River Sovereignty that many Boers had settled. These outraged Boers were suppressed in a brief skirmish in 1848. In 1851 a British force was defeated by the Sotho army at Kolonyama, touching off an embarrassing war for the British. After repulsing another British attack in 1852, Moshoeshoe sent an appeal to the British commander that settled the dispute diplomatically, then defeated the Tlokoa in 1853.[*citation needed*]

Area	
- Total	30,355 km^2 (140th) 12,727 sq mi
- Water (%)	negligible
Population	
- 2009 estimate	2,067,000[1] (144th)
- 2004 census	2,031,348
- Density	68.1/km^2 (138th) 162.4/sq mi
GDP (PPP)	2011 estimate
- Total	$3.444 billion[2]
- Per capita	$1,666[2]
GDP (nominal)	2010 estimate
- Total	$2.127 billion[2]
- Per capita	$1,029[2]
Gini (1995)	63.2 (very high)
HDI (2010)	▲ 0.427[3] (low) (141st)
Currency	Lesotho loti (LSL)
Time zone	SAST (UTC+2)
Drives on the	left
ISO 3166 code	LS
Internet TLD	.ls
Calling code	+266

[1] Estimates for this country explicitly take into account the effects of excess mortality due to AIDS; this can result in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality and death rates, lower population and growth rates, and changes in the distribution of population by age and sex than would otherwise be expected.

In 1854 the British pulled out of the region, and in 1858 Moshoeshoe fought a series of wars with the Boers in the Free State-Basotho War, losing a great portion of the western lowlands. The last war in 1867 ended when Moshoeshoe appealed to Queen Victoria, who agreed to make Basutoland a British protectorate in 1868. In 1869, the British signed a treaty at Aliwal North with the Boers that defined the boundaries of Basutoland and later Lesotho, which by ceding the western territories effectively reduced Moshoeshoe's kingdom to half its previous size.[*citation needed*]

Following the cession in 1869, the British initially transferred functions from Moshoeshoe's capital in Thaba Bosiu to a police camp on the northwest border, Maseru, until administration of Basutoland was transferred to

the Cape Colony in 1871. Moshoeshoe died on March 11, 1870, marking the end of the traditional era and the beginning of the colonial era, and was buried at Thaba Bosiu. During their rule between 1871 and 1884, Basutoland was treated similarly to territories that had been forcefully annexed, much to the chagrin of the Basotho.[6] This led to the Gun War in 1881.[7] In 1884, Basutoland was restored its status as a Crown colony, with Maseru again its capital, but remained under direct rule by a governor, though effective internal power was wielded by traditional chiefs.

Basutoland gained its independence from Britain and became the Kingdom of Lesotho in 1966.[8]

In January 1970 the ruling Basotho National Party (BNP) lost the first post-independence general elections, with 23 seats to the Basutoland Congress Party's 36. Prime Minister Leabua Jonathan refused to cede power to the Basotho Congress Party (BCP), declared himself Tona Kholo (Sesotho translation of prime minister), [*citation needed*] and imprisoned the BCP leadership.

BCP began a rebellion and then received training in Libya for its Lesotho Liberation Army (LLA) under the pretense of being Azanian People's Liberation Army (APLA) soldiers of the Pan Africanist Congress (PAC). Deprived of arms and supplies by the Sibeko faction of the PAC in 1978, the 178-strong LLA was rescued from their Tanzanian base by the financial assistance of a Maoist PAC officer but launched the guerrilla war with only a handful of old weapons. The main force was defeated in northern Lesotho and later guerrillas launched sporadic but usually ineffectual attacks. The campaign was severely compromised when BCP's leader, Ntsu Mokhehle, went to Pretoria. In the early 1980s, several Basotho who sympathized with the exiled BCP were threatened with death and attacked by the government of Leabua Jonathan. In September 1981 the family of Benjamin Masilo was attacked. A few days later, Edgar Mahlomola Motuba was taken from his home and murdered.

The BNP ruled from 1966 till January 1970. What later ensued was a "de facto" government led by Dr Leabua Jonathan until 1986 when a military coup forced it out of office. The Military Council that came to power granted executive powers to King Moshoeshoe II, who was until then a ceremonial monarch. But in 1987 the King was forced into exile after coming up with a six-page memorandum on how he wanted the Lesotho's constitution to be, which would have given him more executive powers had the military government agreed. His son was installed as King Letsie III.

The chairman of the military junta, Major General Justin Metsing Lekhanya, was ousted in 1991 and replaced by Major General Elias Phisoana Ramaema, who handed over power to a democratically elected government of the BCP in 1993. Moshoeshoe II returned from exile in 1992 as an ordinary citizen. After the return to democratic government, King Letsie III tried unsuccessfully to persuade the BCP government to reinstate his father (Moshoeshoe II) as head of state.

In August 1994, Letsie III staged a military-backed coup that deposed the BCP government, after the BCP government refused to reinstate his father, Moshoeshoe II, according to Lesotho's constitution. The new government did not receive full international recognition. Member states of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) engaged in negotiations to reinstate the BCP government. One of the conditions Letsie III put forward for this was that his father should be re-installed as head of state. After protracted negotiations, the BCP government was reinstated and Letsie III abdicated in favor of his father in 1995, but he ascended the throne again when Moshoeshoe II died at the age of fifty-seven in a road accident, when his car plunged off a mountain road during the early hours of 15 January 1996. According to a government statement, Moshoeshoe had set out at 1 a.m. to visit his cattle at Matsieng and was returning to Maseru through the Maluti Mountains when his car left the road.[9]

In 1997, the ruling BCP split over leadership disputes. Prime Minister Ntsu Mokhehle formed a new party, the

Lesotho Congress for Democracy (LCD), and was followed by a majority of Members of Parliament, which enabled him to form a new government. Pakalitha Mosisili succeeded Mokhehle as party leader and the LCD won the general elections in 1998. Although the elections were pronounced free and fair by local and international observers and a subsequent special commission appointed by SADC, the opposition political parties rejected the results.



Makhaleng River Gorges in the Highlands of Lesotho, 2003.

Opposition protests in the country intensified, culminating in a peaceful demonstration outside the royal palace in August 1998. Exact details of what followed are greatly disputed, both in Lesotho and South Africa. While the Botswana Defence Force troops were welcomed, tensions with South African National Defence Force troops were high, resulting in fighting. Incidences of sporadic rioting intensified when South African troops hoisted a South African flag over the Royal Palace. By the time the SADC forces withdrew in May 1999, much of Maseru lay in ruins, and the southern provincial capital towns of Mafeteng and Mohale's Hoek had seen the loss of over a third of their commercial real estate. A number of South Africans and Basotho also died in the fighting.

An Interim Political Authority (IPA), charged with reviewing the electoral structure in the country, was created in December 1998. The IPA devised a proportional electoral system to ensure that the opposition would be represented in the National Assembly. The new system retained the existing 80 elected Assembly seats, but added 40 seats to be filled on a proportional basis. Elections were held under this new system in May 2002, and the LCD won again, gaining 54% of the vote. But for the first time, opposition political parties won significant numbers of seats, and despite some irregularities and threats of violence from Major General Lekhanya, Lesotho experienced its first peaceful election. Nine opposition parties now hold all 40 of the proportional seats, with the BNP having the largest share (21). The LCD has 79 of the 80 constituency-based seats. Although its elected members participate in the National Assembly, the BNP has launched several legal challenges to the elections, including a recount; none have been successful.

Politics

Main article: Politics of Lesotho

The Lesotho Government is a parliamentary or constitutional monarchy. The Prime Minister, Pakalitha Bethuel Mosisili, is head of government and has executive authority. The king serves a largely ceremonial function; he no longer possesses any executive authority and is prohibited from actively participating in political initiatives.

The Democratic Congress (DC) controls a slim majority in the National Assembly (the lower house of parliament) with 46 seats. The Lesotho Congress for Democracy (LCD), the former party in power, has become the main opposition. The All Basotho Convention. (ABC), Basotho National Party (BNP), the Alliance of Congress Parties (ACP) and the newly formed Basotho Batho Democratic Party (BBDP) and the Basotho Democratic National Party (BDNP) Lesotho are among the other six opposition parties represented.

The ABC has brought a dramatic change in the Lesotho's politics, because of its having won 17, mainly urban, seats out of 80 Constituency seats, only a few months after it was formed in September 2006. Of the 40 Proportional Representation (PR) seats, the National Independent Party (NIP), a parliamentary ally of the ruling party, has the highest number of seats at 21. The Lesotho Workers Party has the next highest number of proportional seats with 10. The BNP is the opposition party with the biggest loss in the February 2007 election with its representation reduced from 21 to 3 seats. A total of 12 political parties are represented in the

120-member parliament.

The upper house of parliament, called the Senate, is composed of twenty-two principal chiefs whose membership is hereditary, and eleven appointees of the king, acting on the advice of the prime minister.

The constitution provides for an independent judicial system, made up of the High Court, the Court of Appeal, Magistrate's Courts, and traditional courts that exist predominantly in rural areas. All but one of the Justices on the Court of Appeal are South African jurists. There is no trial by jury; rather, judges make rulings alone, or, in the case of criminal trials, with two other judges as observers.

The constitution also protects basic civil liberties, including freedom of speech, freedom of association, freedom of the press, freedom of peaceful assembly and freedom of religion. Lesotho was ranked 12th out of 48 sub-Saharan African countries in the 2008 Ibrahim Index of African Governance.[10]

However there is a growing movement, the *People's Charter Movement*, calling for the practical annexation of the country by South Africa due to the AIDS epidemic which infects a third of the population. The country faces high unemployment, economic collapse, a weak currency and poor travel documents restricting their movement. An African Union report called for economic integration of Lesotho with South Africa but stopped short of suggesting annexation. In May 2010 the Charter Movement delivered a petition to the South African High Commission requesting integration. South Africa's home affairs spokesman Ronnie Mamoepa rejected the idea that Lesotho should be treated as a special case. Quoting, "It is a sovereign country like South Africa. We sent envoys to our neighbours – Botswana, Zimbabwe, Swaziland and Lesotho – before we enforced the passport rule. When you travel from Britain to South Africa, don't you expect to use a passport?"[11]

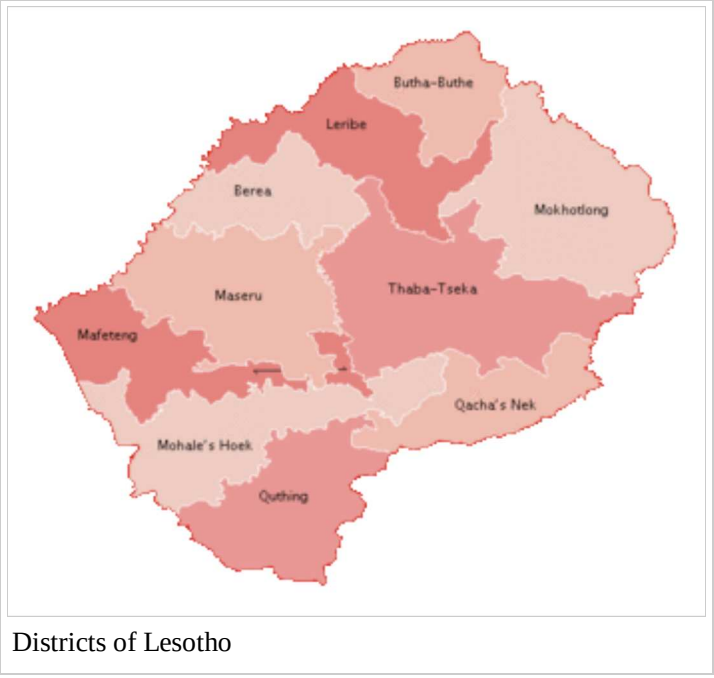
Districts

Main article: Districts of Lesotho

For administrative purposes, Lesotho is divided into ten districts, each headed by a district administrator. Each district has a capital known as a *camptown*.

- Berea
- Butha-Buthe
- Leribe
- Mafeteng
- Maseru
- Mohale's Hoek
- Mokhotlong
- Qacha's Nek
- Quthing
- Thaba-Tseka

The districts are further subdivided into 80 constituencies, which consist of 129 local community councils.



Districts of Lesotho

Geography

Main article: Geography of Lesotho

Lesotho covers 30,355 km^2 (11,720 sq mi). It is the only independent state in the world that lies entirely above 1,000 metres (3,281 ft) in elevation. Its lowest point of 1,400 metres (4,593 ft) is thus the highest in the world. Over 80% of the country lies above 1,800 metres (5,906 ft). Lesotho is also the southernmost landlocked country in the world and is entirely surrounded by the country of South Africa. It lies between latitudes 28° and 31°S, and longitudes 27° and 30°E.


Satellite image of Lesotho

Climate

Main article: Climate of Lesotho

Because of its altitude, Lesotho remains cooler throughout the year than other regions at the same latitude. Most of the rain falls as summer thunderstorms. Maseru and surrounding lowlands often reach 30 °C (86 °F) in summer. Winters can be cold with the lowlands getting down to −7 °C (19 °F) and the highlands to −18 °C (−0 °F) at times. Snow is common in the highlands between May and September; the higher peaks can experience snowfalls year-round.


Landscape of Lesotho

Economy

Main article: Economy of Lesotho

Lesotho is geographically surrounded by South Africa and economically integrated with it as well. The economy of Lesotho is based on agriculture, livestock, manufacturing and mining, and depends heavily on inflows of workers' remittances and receipts from the Southern African Customs Union (SACU).[12] [13] The majority of households subsist on farming. The formal sector employment consist of mainly the female workers in the apparel sector, the male migrant labor, primarily miners in South Africa for 3 to 9 months and employment in the Government of Lesotho (GOL) . The western lowlands form the main agricultural zone. Almost 50% of the population earn income through informal crop cultivation or animal husbandry with nearly two-thirds of the country's income coming from the agricultural sector. The percentage of the population living below USD Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) US$1.25/day fell from 48 percent to 44 percent between 1995 and 2003. [12] The country is still among the "Low Human Development" countries (rank 160 of 187 on the Human Development Index) as classified by the UNDP, with 48.2 years of life expectancy at birth.[14] However, adult literacy is very high - 82% and children under weight aged under 5 is only 20%.[15]

Lesotho has taken advantage of the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) to become the largest exporter of garments to the US from sub-Saharan Africa.[16] American Brands and retailers sourcing from Lesotho include: Foot Locker, Gap, Gloria Vanderbilt, JCPenny, Levi Strauss, Saks, Sears, Timberland and Wal-Mart.[17] In mid 2004 its employment reached over 50,000 mainly female workers, marking the first time that manufacturing sector workers outnumbered government employees. In 2008 it exported 487 million dollars mainly to the U.S.A. Since 2004 employment in the sector was somehow reduced to about 45,000, in mid 2011, due to intense international competition in the garment sector. It was the largest formal sector employer in Lesotho in


The Afri-Ski resort in the Maloti Mountains of Lesotho.

2011. [18] In 2007, the average earnings of an employee in the textile sector were $103 per month, and the official minimum wage for a general textile worker was $93 per month. The average gross national income per capita in 2008 was $83 per month.[19] The sector initiated a major program to fight HIV/AIDS called Apparel Lesotho Alliance to Fight AIDS (ALAFA). It is an industry-wide program providing prevention and treatment for the workers. (see below HIV)[20]

Water and diamonds are Lesotho's significant natural resources.[12] Water is utilized through the 21-year, multi-billion-dollar Lesotho Highlands Water Project (LHWP), under the authority of the Lesotho Highlands Development Authority. The project commenced in 1986.[21] The LHWP is designed to capture, store, and transfer water from the Orange River system to South Africa's Free State and greater Johannesburg area, which features a large concentration of South African industry, population, and agriculture. Completion of the first phase of the project has made Lesotho almost completely self-sufficient in the production of electricity and generated approximately $70 million in 2010 from the sale of electricity and water to South Africa.[22] The World Bank, African Development Bank, European Investment Bank, and many other bilateral donors financed the project.

Diamonds are produced in Leteng, Mothae, Liqhobong and Kao mines. The sector suffered a set back in 2008 as the result of the world recession but rebounded in 2010 and 2011. Export of diamonds reached $230 million in 2010/11.[23] In 1957, a South African adventurer, colonel Jack Scott, accompanied by a young man named Keith Whitelock, set out prospecting for diamonds. They found their diamond mine at 3,100 m altitude, on top of the Maluti Mountains in northeastern Lesotho, some 70 km from Mokhotlong at Letseng. In 1967, a fabulous 601-carat (120 g) diamond (Lesotho Brown) was discovered in the mountains by a Mosotho woman. In August 2006, a 603-carat (121 g) white diamond (Lesotho Promise) was discovered at the Letseng-la-Terae mine. Another 478-carat (96 g) diamond was discovered at the same location in 2008.[24]

Lesotho’s progress in moving from a predominantly subsistence-oriented economy to a lower middle income, diversified economy exporting natural resources and manufacturing goods has brought higher, more secure incomes to a significant portion of the population.[12]

The global economic crisis hit the Lesotho economy hard through loss of textile exports and jobs in the sector due largely to the economic slowdown in the United States which is a major export destination, reduced diamond mining and exports, including weak prices for diamonds; drop in SACU revenues due to the economic slowdown in the South African economy, and reduction in worker remittances due to weakening of the South African economy and contraction of the mining sector and related job losses in South Africa. In 2009, GDP growth slowed to 0.9 percent.[12]

The official currency is the loti (plural: maloti), but can be used interchangeably with the South African rand. Lesotho, Swaziland, Namibia, and South Africa also form a common currency and exchange control area known as the Common Monetary Area (CMA). The loti is at par with the rand. One hundred **lisente** equal one loti.

Lesotho is a member of the Southern African Customs Union (SACU), in which tariffs have been eliminated on the trade of goods between other member countries Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, and Swaziland.

Lesotho has received economic aid from a variety of sources, including the United States, the World Bank, Ireland, the United Kingdom, the European Union, and Germany.

Social issues

Significant levels of child labor exist in Lesotho, and the country is in the process of formulating an Action

Program on the Elimination of Child Labor (APEC). According to the UN, Lesotho has the highest rape rate of any country (91.6 out of 100,000 people)[1] (http://www.nationmaster.com/graph/cri_rap_rat-crime-rape-rate)

Demographics

See also: Demographics of Lesotho

Population


Mosotho horseman.

Lesotho has a population of approximately 2,067,000.[1] The population distribution of Lesotho is 25% urban and 75% rural. However, it is estimated that annual increase of urban population is 3.5%.[25] Population density is lower in the highlands than in the western lowlands. Although the majority of the population—60.2%—is between 15 and 64 years of age, Lesotho has a substantial youth population numbering around 34.8%.[25]

Ethnic groups and languages

Lesotho's ethno-linguistic structure consists almost entirely of the Basotho, a Bantu-speaking people: an estimate of 99.7% of the people identify as Basotho.[25] Other ethnic groups include Europeans, numbering in the thousands, and an estimated 5,000 Chinese.[26] Basotho subgroups include the Bakuena (Kuena), Batloung (the Tlou), Baphuthi (the Phuti), Bafokeng, Bataung (the Tau), Batšoeneng (the Tšoene), Matebele, etc.

The main language, Sesotho (or Sotho), is also the first official and administrative language, and it is what Basotho speak on an ordinary basis. English is the other official and administrative language.

Religion

Main article: Religion in Lesotho

The population of Lesotho is estimated to be around 90% Christian. Protestants represent 45% of the population (Evangelicals 26%, and Anglican and other Protestant groups an additional 19%), and Roman Catholics represent 45 percent of the population. Members of other religions (Muslims, Hindus, Buddhists, Baha'i, and members of traditional indigenous religions) comprise the remaining 10% of the population. In Maseru, there is a church in the centre of the city on the way to very famous mall Pioneer, and also a mosque. [27]

Education and literacy



An estimated 85% of the population 15 and over is literate, according to recent estimates. As such, Lesotho boasts one of the highest literacy rates in Africa,[25] in part because Lesotho invests over 12% of its GDP in education.[28] Contrary to most countries, in Lesotho female literacy (94.5%) is higher than male literacy. According to a study by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality in 2000, 37% of grade 6 pupils in Lesotho (average age 14 years) are at or above reading level 4, "Reading for Meaning."[29] A pupil at this level of literacy can read ahead or backwards through various parts of

text to link and interpret information. Although education is not compulsory, the Government of Lesotho is incrementally implementing a program for free primary education.[30]

Children in class at Ha Nqabeni primary school

Despite having a highly literate population, Lesotho's residents struggle to access vital services, such as healthcare, travel, and educational resources, as according to the International Telecommunication Union, only 3.4% of the population use the Internet. A service from Econet Telecom Lesotho expanded the country's access to email via entry level, low end mobile phones and consequently improved access to educational information. The African Library Project works to establish school and village libraries in partnership with US Peace Corps Lesotho[31] and the Butha Buthe District of Education.

Health

Infant mortality is at about 8.3 %.[32] There are 5 physicians per 100,000 persons.[33]

HIV/AIDS

Main article: HIV/AIDS in Lesotho

Lesotho is severely afflicted by HIV/AIDS. According to 2009 estimates, the prevalence is about 23.6%, one of the highest in the world.[34] In urban areas, about 50% of women under 40 have HIV. The UNDP stated that in 2006 life expectancy in Lesotho was estimated at 42 years for men and women.[15]

The country regards HIV as one of its most important development issues, and the Government is addressing the pandemic through its HIV/AIDS National Strategic Plan. Coverage of some key HIV/AIDS interventions has improved, including prevention of mother to child transmission and antiretroviral therapy. Prevention of mother to child transmission coverage increased from about 5 percent in 2005, to 31 percent in 2007. The roll-out of antiretroviral therapy has made good progress, with 38,586 people receiving treatment by 2008. [12]

The "Know Your Status" campaign boosted the number of people being tested for HIV to 229,092 by the end of 2007, 12 percent of the population and three times the number tested in 2005. The program is funded by the Clinton Foundation and started in June 2006. Bill Clinton and Microsoft chairman Bill Gates visited Lesotho in July 2006 to assess its fight against AIDS.[35] As a result, the annual rate at which adults in the population who are HIV-negative become HIV-positive declined from 2.9 percent in 2005 to 2.3 percent in 2007, lowering the estimated annual number of new infections from 26,000 to 21,560. These are the first signs of a decline in the HIV epidemic.[12]

The Apparel Lesotho Alliance to Fight AIDS (ALAFA) is an industry-wide program providing prevention and treatment, including ARVs when these are necessary, for the 46,000 mainly women workers in the Lesotho apparel industry. It was launched in May 2006. The program is helping to combat two of the key drivers of the HIV/AIDS epidemic: poverty and gender inequality. Surveys within the industry by ALAFA show that 43% of the employees have HIV.[20]

Foreign relations

Main article: Foreign relations of Lesotho

Lesotho's geographic location makes it extremely vulnerable to political and economic developments in South

Africa. It is a member of many regional economic organizations, including the Southern African Development Community (SADC),[36] and the Southern African Customs Union (SACU).[37] It is also active in the United Nations (UN), the African Union, the Non-Aligned Movement, the Commonwealth, and many other international organizations.[*citation needed*]



The flag used by Lesotho until October 2006.

Prince Seeiso Hirohr Seeiso is the present High Commissioner of the Kingdom of Lesotho to the Court of St. James's. The UN is represented by a resident mission as well, including UNDP, UNICEF, WHO, FAO, WFP, and UNAIDS.

Historically, Lesotho has maintained generally close ties with Ireland.[38]

Lesotho also has maintained ties with the United Kingdom (Wales in particular), Germany, the United States and other Western states. Although in 1990 it broke relations with the People's Republic of China (PRC) and re-established relations with the Republic of China (Taiwan), it later restored ties with the PRC.

Lesotho also recognizes the State of Palestine.[39]

In the past, it was a strong public supporter of the end of apartheid in South Africa and granted a number of South African refugees political asylum during the apartheid era.[39]

Law

Lesotho does not have a single code containing its laws; it draws them from a variety of sources including: Constitution, Legislation, Common Law, Judicial precedent, Customary Law, and Authoritative texts.[40]

The Constitution of Lesotho came into force after the publication of the Commencement Order. Constitutionally, legislation refers to laws that have been passed by both houses of parliament and have been assented to by the King (section 78(1)). Subordinate legislation refers to laws passed by other bodies to which parliament has by virtue of section 70(2) of the Constitution validly delegated such legislative powers. These include government gazettes, ministerial orders, ministerial regulations and municipal bye-laws.

Although Lesotho shares with South Africa, Botswana, Swaziland, Namibia and Zimbabwe a mixed general legal system which resulted from the interaction between the Roman-Dutch Civilian law and the English Common Law, its general law operates independently. Lesotho also applies the common law, which refers to unwritten law or law from non-statutory sources, but excludes customary law. Decisions from South African courts are only persuasive, and courts refer to them in formulating their decisions. Decisions from similar jurisdictions can also be cited for their persuasive value. Magistrates' courts decisions do not become precedent since these are lower courts. They are however bound by decisions of the High Court and the Court of Appeal. At the apex of the Lesotho justice system is the Court of Appeal, which is the final appellate forum on all matters. It has a supervisory and review jurisdiction over all the courts of Lesotho.

Lesotho has a dual legal system consisting of customary and general laws operating side by side. Customary law is made up of the customs of the Basotho, written and codified in the Laws of Lerotholi whereas general law consists of Roman Dutch Law imported from the Cape and the Lesotho statutes. The codification of customary law came about after a council was appointed in 1903 to advise the British Resident Commissioner on what was best for the Basotho in terms of laws that would govern them. Until this time, the Basotho customs and laws

were passed down from generation to generation through oral tradition. The council was then given the task of codifying them, came up with the Laws of Lerotholi which are applied by customary courts today (local courts). Written works of eminent authors have persuasive value in the courts of Lesotho. These include writings of the old authorities as well as contemporary writers from similar jurisdictions.

Culture

See also: Music of Lesotho and List of African writers (by country)

Traditional musical instruments include *lekolulo*, a kind of flute used by herding boys, *setolo-tolo*, played by men using their mouth, and the woman's stringed *thomo*.

The national anthem of Lesotho is "*Lesotho Fatše La Bo-ntata Rona*", which literally translates into "Lesotho, Land Of Our Fathers".

The traditional style of housing in Lesotho is called a *rondavel*.

Traditional attire revolves around the Basotho blanket, a thick covering made primarily of wool. The blankets are ubiquitous throughout the country during all seasons.



Retsilisitsoe Nthunya wrapped in a Basotho blanket. [*citation needed*]

The Morija Arts & Cultural Festival is a prominent Sesotho arts and music festival. It is held annually in the historical town of Morija, where the first missionaries arrived in 1833.

See also

- Outline of Lesotho
- Index of Lesotho-related articles

- Commonwealth of Nations
- Communications in Lesotho
- Lesotho Cycling Association (Federation)
- Lesotho Scouts Association
- List of Basotho companies
- Military of Lesotho
- National University of Lesotho
- National University of Lesotho International School
- Transportation in Lesotho

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2. ^ ***a b c d*** "Lesotho" (http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2011/01/weodata/weorept.aspx?sy=2008&ey=2011&scsm=1&ssd=1&sort=country&ds=.&br=1&c=666&s=NGDPD%2CNGDPDPC%2CPPPGDP%2CPPPPC%2CLP&grp=0&a=&pr.x=40&pr.y=12) . International

History of Lesotho

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia



Flag of Lesotho

The area now known as **Lesotho** (/lɪˈsuːtuː/) goes back as many as 40,000 years. The present Lesotho (then called Basutoland) emerged as a single polity under paramount chief Moshoeshoe I in 1822. Under Mashoeshoe I, Basutoland joined other tribes in their struggle against the Lifaqane associated with the reign of Shaka Zulu from 1818 to 1828.

Subsequent evolution of the state was shaped by contact with the British and Dutch colonists from Cape Colony. Missionaries invited by Moshoeshoe I developed orthography and printed works in the Sotho language between 1837 and 1855. The country set up diplomatic channels and acquired guns for use against the encroaching Europeans and the Korana people. Territorial conflicts with both British and Boer settlers arose periodically, including Moshoeshoe's notable victory over the Boers in the Free State-Basotho War, but the final war in 1867 with an appeal to Queen Victoria, who agreed to make Basutoland a British protectorate. In 1869, the British signed a treaty at Aliwal with the Boers that defined the boundaries of Basutoland and later Lesotho, which by ceding the western territories effectively reduced Moshoeshoe's kingdom to half its previous size.

The extent to which the British exerted direct control over Basutoland waxed and waned until Basutoland's independence in 1966, when it became the Kingdom of Lesotho. However, when the ruling Basotho National Party (BNP) lost the first post-independence general elections to the Basotho Congress Party (BCP), Leabua Jonathan refused to cede and declared himself Tona Kholo (Sesotho translation of prime minister). The BCP began an insurrection that culminated in a January 1986 military coup forced the BNP out of office. Power was transferred to King Moshoeshoe II, until then a ceremonial monarch, but forced into exile when he lost favour with the military the following year. His son was installed as King Letsie III. Conditions remained tumultuous, including an August 1994 coup by Letsie III, until 1998 when the Lesotho Congress for Democracy (LCD) came to power in elections which were deemed fair by international observers. Despite protests from opposition parties, the country has remained relatively stable since.

Contents

- 1 Ancient history
- 2 Basutoland
- 3 Kingdom of Lesotho
- 4 See also
- 5 References
- 6 External links

Ancient history

At some stage during their migration south from a tertiary dispersal area Bantu speaking peoples came to settle the lands that now make up Lesotho as well as a more extensive territory of fertile lands that surround modern day Lesotho. These people spoke a unique "South Sotho" dialect seSotho and called themselves the Basotho. There were several severe disruptions to the Basotho peoples in the early 19th century. Firstly marauding Zulu

clans, displaced from Zululand as part of the Lifaqane (or Mfecane), wrought havoc on the Basotho peoples they encountered as they moved first west and then north. Secondly no sooner than the Zulu has passed to the north than the first Voortrekkers arrived, some of whom obtained hospitality during their difficult trek north. Early Voortrekker accounts describe how the lands surrounding the mountain retreat of the Basotho had been burnt and destroyed, in effect leaving a vacuum that subsequent Voortrekkers began to occupy.

However, this interpretation of history for the entire southern region of Africa has been refuted by Norman Etherington in *The Great Treks: The Transformation of Southern Africa, 1815-1854* (Longman, 2001). Etherington argues that no such thing as the Mfecane occurred, the Zulu were no more marauding than any other group in the region, and the land the Voortrekkers saw as empty was not settled by either Zulu or Basotho because those people did not value open lowland plains as pasture.

Basutoland

See also: Basutoland

In 1818, Moshoeshoe I (/mɵˈʃweɪʃweɪ/) consolidated various Basotho groupings and became their King. During Moshoeshoe's reign (1823-1870), a series of wars (1856-68) were fought with the Boers who had settled in traditional Basotho lands. These wars resulted in the extensive loss of land, now known as the "Lost Territory".



South Africa, Lesotho and Swazuiland in 1885.

A treaty had been signed with the Boer of Griqualand in 1843 and an agreement made with the British in 1853 following a minor war. However, the disputes with the Boer over land were revived in 1858 and more seriously in 1865. The Boer had a number of military successes, killing possibly 1,500 Basotho soldiers, and annexed an expanse of arable land which they were able to retain following a treaty at Thaba Bosiu. In order to protect his people, Moshoeshoe appealed to the British for assistance, and in March 1868 the land was placed under British protection and the Boer were ordered to leave. A treaty was signed at Aliwal in 1869 between the British and the Boer defining the boundaries of the protectorate, the arable land west of the Caledon River remained in Boer hands and is referred to as the Lost or Conquered Territory. Moshoeshoe died in 1870.

In 1871 the protectorate was annexed to Cape Colony. The Basotho resisted the British and in 1879 a southern chief, Moorosi, rose in revolt. The rising was crushed and Moorosi was killed in the fighting. The Basotho then began to fight amongst themselves over the division of Moorosi's lands. The British extended the Cape Peace Preservation Act of 1878 to cover Basutoland and attempted to disarm the natives. Much of the colony rose in revolt in the Gun War (1880-1881), inflicting significant casualties upon the colonial British forces sent to subdue it. An 1881 peace treaty failed to quell sporadic fighting.

Cape Town's inability to control the territory led to its return to crown control in 1884 as the Territory of Basutoland. The colony was bound by the Orange River Colony, Natal Colony, and Cape Colony it was divided into seven administrative districts - Berea, Leribe, Maseru, Mohales Hock, Mafeteng, Qacha's Nek and Quthing. The colony was ruled by the British Resident Commissioner, who worked through the *pitso* (national assembly) of hereditary native chiefs under one paramount chief. Each chief ruled a ward within the territory. The first paramount chief was Lerothodi, the son of Moshoeshoe. During the Second Boer War the colony was neutral. The population was around 125,000 (1875), 310,000 (1901) and 349,000 (1904).

When the Union of South Africa was founded in 1910 the colony was still controlled by the British and moves

were made to transfer it to the Union. However the people of Basutoland opposed this and when the South African Nationalist party put its apartheid policies into place the possibility of annexation was halted. In 1959, a new constitution gave Basutoland its first elected legislature. This was followed in April 1965 with general legislative elections.

The differing fates of the seSotho-speaking peoples in the Protectorate of Basotholand and in the lands that became the Orange Free State are worth noting. The Orange Free State became a Boer-ruled territory. However at the end of the Boer War it was colonised by the British, and this colony was subsequently incorporated by Britain into the Union of South Africa as one of four provinces. It is still part of the modern day Republic of South Africa, now known as the Free State. In contrast Basotholand, along with the two other British Protectorates in the sub-Saharan region (Bechuanaland and Swaziland), was precluded from incorporation into the Union of South Africa. These protectorates were individually brought to independence by Britain in the 1960s in line with the trend towards self-government and independence that swept the British Empire following the close of the Second World War, a trend that reached its peak in Africa in the late 1950s and early 1960s. By becoming a protectorate Basotholand and its inhabitants were not subjected to Afrikaner rule, which saved them from experiencing Apartheid, and so generally prospered under more benevolent British rule. Basotho resident in Basotholand had access to better health services and to education, and came to experience greater political emancipation through independence. These lands protected by the British, however, had a much smaller capacity to generate income and wealth than the "lost territory" had, which had been granted to the Boers.

After a 1955 request by the Basutoland Council to legislate its internal affairs, in 1959 a new constitution gave Basutoland its first elected legislature. This was followed in April 1965 with general legislative elections with universal adult suffrage in which the Basotho National Party (BNP) won 31 and the Basutoland Congress Party (BCP) won 25 of the 65 seats contested.

Kingdom of Lesotho

On October 4, 1966, the Kingdom of Lesotho attained full independence, governed by a constitutional monarchy with a bicameral Parliament consisting of a Senate and an elected National Assembly. Early results of the first post-independence elections in January 1970 indicated that the BNP might lose control. Under the leadership of Prime Minister Chief Leabua Jonathan, the ruling Basotho National Party (BNP) refused to cede power to the rival Basotholand Congress Party (BCP), although the BCP was widely believed to have won the elections. Citing election irregularities, Prime Minister Leabua Jonathan nullified the elections, declared a national state of emergency, suspended the constitution, and dissolved the Parliament. In 1973, an appointed Interim National Assembly was established. With an overwhelming progovernment majority, it was largely the instrument of the BNP, led by Prime Minister Jonathan. In addition to the Jonathan regime's alienation of Basotho powerbrokers and the local population, South Africa had virtually closed the country's land borders because of Lesotho support of cross-border operations of the African National Congress (ANC). Moreover, South Africa publicly threatened to pursue more direct action against Lesotho if the Jonathan government did not root out the ANC presence in the country. This internal and external opposition to the government combined to produce violence and internal disorder in Lesotho that eventually led to a military takeover in 1986.

Under a January 1986 Military Council decree, state executive and legislative powers were transferred to the King who was to act on the advice of the Military Council, a self-appointed group of leaders of the Royal Lesotho Defense Force (RLDF). A military government chaired by Justin Lekhanya ruled Lesotho in coordination with King Moshoeshoe II and a civilian cabinet appointed by the King.

In February 1990, King Moshoeshoe II was stripped of his executive and legislative powers and exiled by Lekhanya, and the Council of Ministers was purged. Lekhanya accused those involved of undermining discipline within the armed forces, subverting existing authority, and causing an impasse on foreign policy that had been

damaging to Lesotho's image abroad. Lekhanya announced the establishment of the National Constituent Assembly to formulate a new constitution for Lesotho with the aim of returning the country to democratic, civilian rule by June 1992. Before this transition, however, Lekhanya was ousted in 1991 by a mutiny of junior army officers that left Phisoane Ramaema as Chairman of the Military Council.

Because Moshoeshoe II initially refused to return to Lesotho under the new rules of the government in which the King was endowed only with ceremonial powers, Moshoeshoe's son was installed as King Letsie III. In 1992, Moshoeshoe II returned to Lesotho as a regular citizen until 1995 when King Letsie abdicated the throne in favor of his father. After Moshoeshoe II died in a car accident in 1996, King Letsie III ascended to the throne again.

In 1993, a new constitution was implemented leaving the King without any executive authority and proscribing him from engaging in political affairs. Multiparty elections were then held in which the BCP ascended to power with a landslide victory. Prime Minister Ntsu Mokhehle headed the new BCP government that had gained every seat in the 65-member National Assembly. In early 1994, political instability increased as first the army, followed by the police and prisons services, engaged in mutinies. In August 1994, King Letsie III, in collaboration with some members of the military, staged a coup, suspended Parliament, and appointed a ruling council. As a result of domestic and international pressures, however, the constitutionally elected government was restored within a month.

In 1995, there were isolated incidents of unrest, including a police strike in May to demand higher wages. For the most part, however, there were no serious challenges to Lesotho's constitutional order in the 1995-96 period. In January 1997, armed soldiers put down a violent police mutiny and arrested the mutineers.

In 1997, tension within the BCP leadership caused a split in which Dr. Mokhehle abandoned the BCP and established the Lesotho Congress for Democracy (LCD) followed by two-thirds of the parliament. This move allowed Mokhehle to remain as Prime Minister and leader of a new ruling party, while relegating the BCP to opposition status. The remaining members of the BCP refused to accept their new status as the opposition party and ceased attending sessions. Multiparty elections were again held in May 1998.

Although Mokhehle completed his term as Prime Minister, due to his failing health, he did not vie for a second term in office. The elections saw a landslide victory for the LCD, gaining 79 of the 80 seats contested in the newly expanded Parliament. As a result of the elections, Mokhehle's Deputy Prime Minister, Pakalitha Mosisili, became the new Prime Minister. The landslide electoral victory caused opposition parties to claim that there were substantial irregularities in the handling of the ballots and that the results were fraudulent. The conclusion of the Langa Commission, a commission appointed by Southern African Development Community (SADC) to investigate the electoral process, however, was consistent with the view of international observers and local courts that the outcome of the elections was not affected by these incidents. Despite the fact that the election results were found to reflect the will of the people, opposition protests in the country intensified. The protests culminated in a violent demonstration outside the royal palace in early August 1998 and in an unprecedented level of violence, looting, casualties, and destruction of property. In early September, junior members of the armed services mutinied. The Government of Lesotho requested that a SADC task force intervene to prevent a military coup and restore stability to the country. To this end, Operation Boleas, consisting of South African and (later) Botswana troops, entered Lesotho on September 22, 1998 to put down the mutiny and restore the democratically elected government. The army mutineers were brought before a court-martial.

After stability returned to Lesotho, the SADC task force withdrew from the country in May 1999, leaving only a small task force (joined by Zimbabwean troops) to provide training to the LDF. In the meantime, an Interim Political Authority (IPA), charged with reviewing the electoral structure in the country, was created in December 1998 and devised a proportional electoral system to ensure that there be opposition in the National Assembly. The new system retained the existing 80 elected Assembly seats, but added 40 seats to be filled on a proportional

basis. Elections were held under this new system in May 2002, and the LCD won again, gaining 54% of the vote. For the first time, however, opposition political parties won significant numbers of seats, and despite some irregularities and threats of violence from Major General Lekhanya, Lesotho experienced its first peaceful election. Nine opposition parties now hold all 40 of the proportional seats, with the BNP having the largest share (21). The LCD has 79 of the 80 constituency-based seats.

See also

- History of Africa
- History of South Africa
- History of Southern Africa
- History of Swaziland
- List of heads of government of Lesotho
- List of Kings of Lesotho
- Politics of Lesotho

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External links

- Background Note: Lesotho (http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2831.htm)
- History of Lesotho (http://www.historyofnations.net/africa/lesotho.html)

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Categories: History of Lesotho

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List of kings of Lesotho

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- 1 Paramount Chiefs of Basutoland
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King of Lesotho

MONARCHY



Coat of arms of Lesotho

Incumbent:
Letsie III

Style:	His Royal Majesty
Heir apparent:	Lerotholi Seeiso
First monarch:	Moshoeshoe I (as paramount chief)
Formation:	1822

Paramount Chiefs of Basutoland

Name	Lifespan	Reign start	Reign end	Notes	Family	Image
Moshoeshoe I		1822	18 January 1870		House of Moshesh	
Letsie I Moshoeshoe		18 January 1870	20 November 1891		House of Moshesh	
Lerotholi		20 November 1891	19 August 1905		House of Moshesh	
Letsie II Lerotholi		21 August 1905	28 January 1913		House of Moshesh	
Nathaniel Griffith Lerotholi		11 April 1913	July 1939		House of Moshesh	
Seeiso		3 August 1939	26 December 1940		House of Moshesh	
Gabasane Masopha (acting)		26 December 1940	28 January 1941		House of Moshesh	
Mantsebo Amelia 'Matsaba (acting)		28 January 1941	12 March 1960		House of Moshesh	

Moshoeshoe II		12 March 1960	4 October 1966	Became king of Lesotho in 1966.	House of Moshesh	

Kings of Lesotho

Name	Lifespan	Reign start	Reign end	Notes	Family	Image
Moshoeshoe II	2 May 1938 - 15 January 1996	4 October 1966	12 November 1990		House of Moshesh	
Letsie III	b. 17 July 1963	12 November 1990	25 January 1995		House of Moshesh	
Moshoeshoe II	2 May 1938 - 15 January 1996	25 January 1995	15 January 1996		House of Moshesh	
Letsie III	b. 17 July 1963	7 February 1996	incumbent		House of Moshesh	

Royal Standards



Royal Standard of Lesotho 1966–1987.



Royal Standard of Lesotho 1987–2006.



Royal Standard of Lesotho from October 4, 2006.

See also

- Line of succession to the Lesothan throne
- List of heads of government of Lesotho

Letsie III of Lesotho

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Letsie III (born **David Mohato Bereng Seeiso**; 17 July 1963) is the reigning king of Lesotho. He succeeded his father, Moshoeshoe II, when the latter was forced into exile in 1990. His father was briefly restored in 1995 but soon died in a car crash in early 1996, and Letsie became king again. As a constitutional monarch, most of King Letsie's duties as monarch of Lesotho are ceremonial.

He was educated in the United Kingdom at Ampleforth College. From there he went on to study at the National University of Lesotho where he graduated with a Bachelor of Arts Degree in Law. He then went on to study at the University of Bristol, the University of Cambridge, and the University of London. He completed his studies in 1989, when he returned to Lesotho.

Marriage and children

King Letsie married in 2000 to Karabo Motšoeneng, with whom he has two daughters and one son:

- Princess Mary Senate Mohato Seeiso, born 7 October 2001 and
- Princess 'M'aSeeiso, born 20 November 2004.
- Prince Lerotholi David Mohato Bereng Seeiso, born 18 April 2007

External links

- Official Biography of King Letsie III (http://www.lesotho.gov.ls/articles/2004/King_Birth_2004/king.html)

Letsie III	
King of Lesotho	
Reign	7 February 1996 – present
Predecessor	Mamohato (Regent)
Heir apparent	Lerotholi Seeiso
Prime Ministers	*See list*
Reign	12 November 1990 – 25 January 1995
Predecessor	Mamohato (Regent)
Successor	Moshoeshoe II
Prime Ministers	*See list*
Spouse	Anna Motšoeneng
Issue	*Detail*
Senate Seeiso 'M'aSeeiso Seeiso Lerotholi Seeiso	
House	House of Moshesh
Father	Moshoeshoe II
Mother	Mamohato
Born	17 July 1963 Morija, Lesotho
Religion	Roman Catholicism

Monarchical styles of

King Letsie III of Lesotho



Reference style	His Majesty
Spoken style	Your Majesty
Alternative style	*Sir*

Letsie III of Lesotho
House of Moshesh
Born: 17 July 1963

Regnal titles		
Preceded by **Mamohato** **Regent**	**King of Lesotho** 1990–1995	Succeeded by **Moshoeshoe II**
	King of Lesotho 1996–present	**Incumbent** *Heir apparent: Lerotholi Seeiso*

Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Letsie_III_of_Lesotho&oldid=472351056"
Categories: 1963 births | 20th-century Roman Catholics | 21st-century Roman Catholics | Alumni of the University of Bristol | Alumni of the University of Cambridge | Alumni of the University of London | Current national leaders | House of Moshesh | Kings of Lesotho | Living people | Old Amplefordians | Reigning monarchs | Roman Catholic monarchs | Lesotho people stubs | African royalty stubs

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Moshoeshoe I

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Moshoeshoe (mɔʊˈʃweɪʃweɪ) (c. 1786[1] – March 11, 1870) was born at Menkhoaneng in the Northern part of present-day Lesotho. He was the first son of Mokhachane, a minor chief of the Bamokoteli lineage- a branch of the Koena (crocodile) clan. In his early childhood, he helped his father gain power over some other smaller clans. At the age of 34 Moshoeshoe formed his own clan and became a chief. He and his followers settled at the Butha-Buthe Mountain.



King Moshoeshoe I

Contents

- 1 King
- 2 Diplomat
- 3 Wars
- 4 Legacy
- 5 See also
- 6 References
- 7 External links

King

Moshoeshoe was the son of Mokhachane, a minor chief of the Bamokoteli sub-clan. He was born at Menkhoaneng in Leribe, Lesotho as Lepoqo. During his youth, he was very brave and once organised a cattle raid against Ramonaheng and captured several herds. As was the tradition, he composed a poem praising himself where, amongst the words he used to refer to himself, said he was "like a razor which has shaved all Ramonaheng's beards", referring to his successful raid. In Sesotho language, a razor makes a "shoe...shoe..." sound, and after that he was affectionately called Moshoeshoe: "the shaver". He also referred himself as the person of Kali, thus showed that he was a descendant of the Great Kali or Monaheng who is said to be the ancestor of most Bakoena people in Lesotho with the exception of the senior BaMolibeli.

Moshoeshoe and his followers, mostly the Bakoena BaMokoteli, some Bafokeng from his maternal side and other relations as well as some clans including the Amazizi, established his village at Butha-Buthe, where his settlement coincided with the growth of Shaka and what came to be called the Lifaqane. Moshoeshoe's reign coincided with the growth in power of the well-known Zulu chief, Shaka. During the early 19th century Shaka raided many smaller clans along the eastern coast of Southern Africa, incorporating parts of them into his steadily growing Zulu chiefdom. Various small clans were forced to flee the Zulu chief. An era of great wars of calamity followed, known as the *Mfecane/lifaqane*. It was marked by aggression against the Sotho people by the invading Nguni clans. The attacks also forced Moshoeshoe to move his settlement to the Qiloane plateau. The name was later changed to Thaba Bosiu or "mountain of the night" because it was believed to be growing during the night and shrinking during day. It proved to be an impassable stronghold against enemies.

Diplomat

The most significant role Moshoeshoe played as a diplomat was his acts of friendship towards his beaten

enemies. He provided land and protection to various people and this strengthened the growing Basotho nation. His influence and followers grew with the integration of a number of refugees and victims of the wars of calamity.

By the latter part of the 19th century, Moshoeshoe established the nation of the Basotho, in Basutoland. He was popularly known as *Morena e Moholo/morena oa Basotho* (Great King/King of the Basotho).

Guns were introduced with the arrival of the Dutch from the Cape Colony and Moshoeshoe determined that he needed these and a white advisor. From other tribes, he heard of the benefits missionaries brought. By chance, three representatives of the Society arrived in the heart of southern Africa : Eugene Casalis, Constant Gosselin and Thomas Arbousset. Moshoeshoe brought them to his kingdom. Later Roman Catholic Missionaries were to have a great influence on the shape of Basotho History (the first being, Bishop M.F. Allard O.M.I. and Fr. Joseph Gerard O.M.I.).

From 1837 to 1855 Casalis played the role of Moshoeshoe's Foreign Advisor. With his knowledge of the non-African world, he was able to inform and advise the king in his dealings with hostile foreigners. He also served as an interpreter for Moshoeshoe in his dealings with white people, and documented the Sesotho language.

In the late 1830s, Boer trekkers from the Cape Colony showed up on the western borders of Basutoland and subsequently claimed land rights. The trekkers' pioneer in this area was Jan de Winnaar, who settled in the Matlakeng area in May–June 1838. As more farmers were moving into the area they tried to colonise the land between the two rivers, even north of the Caledon, 'claiming' that it had been abandoned by the Sotho people. Moshoeshoe, when hearing of the trekker settlement above the junction, stated that "... the ground on which they were belonged to me, but I had no objections to their flocks grazing there until such time as they were able to proceed further; on condition, however, that they remained in peace with my people and recognised my authority."

Eugene Casalis later remarked that the trekkers had humbly asked for temporary rights while they were still few in number, but that when they felt "strong enough to throw off the mask" they went back on their initial intention.

The next 30 years were marked by conflicts.

Wars

Moshoeshoe signed a treaty with the British Governor, Sir George Thomas Napier. Among the provisions of this treaty was the annexation of a tract of land (now called the Orange River Sovereignty) that many Boers had settled. The outraged Boers were suppressed in a brief skirmish in 1848, but remained bitter at both the British and the Sotho.

The situation erupted in 1851. A British force was defeated by the Sotho army at Kolonyama, touching off an embarrassing war for the British. After repulsing another British attack in 1852, Moshoeshoe sent an appeal to the British commander that allowed him to save face. Once again, diplomacy saved the Sotho kingdom. After a final defeat of the Tloka in 1853, Moshoeshoe reigned supreme.

However, the British pulled out of the region in 1854, causing the de facto formation of two independent states: the Boer Orange Free State and the Sotho Kingdom.

In 1858 Moshoeshoe defeated the Boers in the Free State-Basotho War and in 1865 Moshoeshoe lost a great portion of the western lowlands. The last war in 1867 ended only when the British and Moshoeshoe appealed to

Queen Victoria, who agreed to make Basutoland a British protectorate in 1868. The British were eager to check Boer advances, and Moshoeshoe, with advice from Eugene Casalis, realized that continued pressure from the Boers would lead to the destruction of his kingdom.

In 1869, the British signed a treaty at Aliwal with the Boers. It defined the boundaries of Basutoland and later Lesotho; those boundaries have not changed. The arable land west of the Caledon River remained in Boer hands, and is referred to as the Lost or Conquered Territory. This effectively reduced Moshoeshoe's kingdom to half its previous size.

Legacy

Although he had ceded much territory, Moshoeshoe never suffered a major military defeat and retained most of his kingdom and all of his culture. His death in 1870 marked the end of the traditional era and the beginning of the modern colonial period. Moshoeshoe Day is a national holiday in Lesotho celebrated every year on March 11 to commemorate the day of Moshoeshoe's death.

Moshoeshoe I International Airport is named in his honour.



Grave of Moshoeshoe I atop Thaba Bosiu.

See also

- List of Zulu kings
- Shaka Zulu - contemporary
- Lesotho
- History of Lesotho
- Basutoland
- Sesotho language

References

1. ^ Mshweshwe. (2008). In Encyclopædia Britannica. Retrieved April 7, 2008, from Encyclopædia Britannica Online Library Edition: http://library.eb.co.uk/eb/article-9054098

External links

- http://www.lesotho.gov.ls/goverview.htm

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Categories: 1786 births | 1870 deaths | Kings of Lesotho | Lesotho royalty

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Vatican City

Coordinates: 41.904°N 12.453°E

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Vatican City /ˈvætɨkən ˈsɪti/, or **Vatican City State**,[14] in Italian officially **Stato della Città del Vaticano** (pronounced ['staːto della tʃit'ta del vati'kaːno]),[15] is a landlocked sovereign city-state whose territory consists of a walled enclave within the city of Rome, Italy. It has an area of approximately 44 hectares (110 acres), and a population of just over 800.[6][16] This makes Vatican City the smallest independent state in the world by both area and population.

Vatican City was established in 1929 by the Lateran Treaty, signed by Cardinal Secretary of State Pietro Gasparri, on behalf of the Holy See and by Prime Minister Benito Mussolini on behalf of the Kingdom of Italy. Vatican City State is distinct from the Holy See,[17] which dates back to early Christianity and is the main episcopal see of 1.2 billion Latin and Eastern Catholic adherents around the globe. Ordinances of Vatican City are published in Italian; official documents of the Holy See are issued mainly in Latin. The two entities have distinct passports: the Holy See, not being a country, issues only diplomatic and service passports, whereas Vatican City State issues normal passports. In each case very few passports are issued.

The Lateran Treaty in 1929, which brought the city-state into existence, spoke of it as a new creation (Preamble and Article III), not as a vestige of the much larger Papal States (756–1870) that had previously encompassed much of central Italy. Most of this territory was absorbed into the Kingdom of Italy in 1860, and the final portion, namely the city of Rome with Lazio, ten years later, in 1870.

Vatican City is an ecclesiastical[6] or sacerdotal-monarchical[7] state, ruled by the Bishop of Rome—the Pope. The highest state functionaries are all Catholic clergymen of various national origins. It is the sovereign territory of the Holy See (*Sancta Sedes*) and the location of the Pope's residence, referred to as the Apostolic Palace.

The Popes have generally resided in the area that in 1929 became Vatican City since the return from Avignon in 1377, but have also at times resided in the Quirinal Palace in Rome and elsewhere. Previously, they resided in the Lateran Palace on the Caelian Hill on the far side of Rome from the Vatican. Emperor Constantine gave this site to Pope Miltiades in 313. The signing of the agreements that established the new state took place in the latter building, giving rise to the name of

Vatican City State[1]

Stato della Città del Vaticano[2]

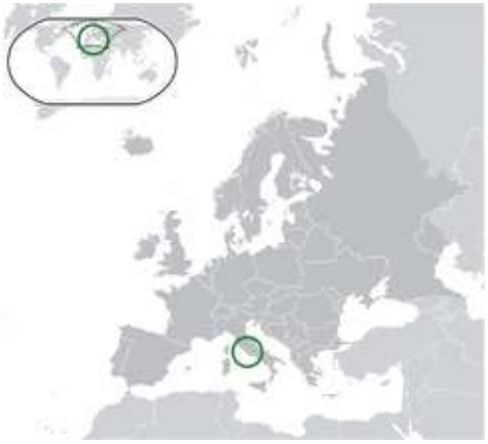


Flag



Coat of arms

Anthem: "Inno e Marcia Pontificale" (Italian)
"Pontifical Anthem and March"



Location of **Vatican City** (green)
in Europe (dark grey) — [Legend]

Capital	Vatican City[3] 41°54.2′N 12°27.2′E
Official language(s)	Italian[4][5]
Ethnic groups	Italians, Swiss (Swiss Guards), other[6]
Government	ecclesiastical,[6] sacerdotal-monarchical,[7] absolute, and elective monarchy[8] or theocracy[9]
- Sovereign	Benedict XVI

Lateran Pacts, by which they are known.

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- President of the Governorate	Giuseppe Bertello
Legislature	Pontifical Commission
Independence	from the Kingdom of Italy
- Lateran Treaty	11 February 1929
Area	
- Total	0.44 km^2 (250th) 0.17 sq mi
- Water (%)	0
Population	
- July 2011 estimate	832[10] (236th)
- Density	1877/km^2 (6th) 4,859/sq mi
Currency	Euro (€)[11][12] (EUR)
Time zone	CET (UTC+1)
- Summer (DST)	CEST (UTC+2)
Drives on the	right[note 1]
Internet TLD	.va
Calling code	+379[13]

Geography

Main article: Geography of Vatican City

The Vatican climate is the same as Rome's; a temperate, Mediterranean climate with mild, rainy winters from September to mid-May and hot, dry summers from May to August. There are some local features, principally mists and dews, caused by the anomalous bulk of St Peter's Basilica, the elevation, the fountains and the size of the large paved square.



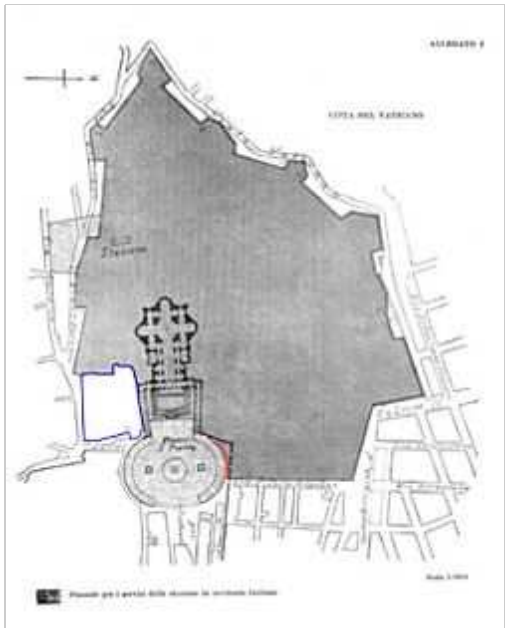
A panorama of the country from atop St. Peter's Basilica.

The Vatican City is the world's smallest state, being only around 44 ha (110 acres).

In July 2007, the Vatican agreed to become the first carbon neutral state. They plan to accomplish this by offsetting carbon dioxide emissions with the creation of a Vatican Climate Forest in Hungary.[18]

Territory

The name "Vatican" predates Christianity and comes from the Latin *Mons Vaticanus*, meaning Vatican Mount.[19] The territory of Vatican City is part of the *Mons Vaticanus*, and of the adjacent former Vatican Fields. It is in this territory that St. Peter's Basilica, the Apostolic Palace, the Sistine Chapel, and museums were built, along with various other buildings. The area was part of the Roman *rione* of Borgo until 1929. Being separated from the city, on the west bank of the Tiber river, the area was an outcrop of the city that was protected by being included within the walls of Leo IV (847–55), and later expanded by the current fortification walls, built under Paul III (1534–49), Pius IV (1559–65) and Urban VIII (1623–44).



Territory of Vatican City according to the Lateran Treaty

When the Lateran Treaty of 1929 that gave the state its present form was being prepared, the boundaries of the proposed territory were influenced by the fact that much of it was all but enclosed by this loop. For some tracts of the frontier, there was no wall, but the line of certain buildings supplied part of the boundary, and for a small part of the frontier a modern wall was constructed.

The territory includes St. Peter's Square, distinguished from the territory of Italy only by a white line along the limit of the square, where it touches Piazza Pio XII. St. Peter's Square is reached through the Via della Conciliazione which runs from close to the Tiber River to St. Peter's. This grand approach was constructed by Benito Mussolini after the conclusion of the Lateran Treaty.

According to the Lateran Treaty, certain properties of the Holy See that are located in Italian territory, most notably Castel Gandolfo and the major basilicas, enjoy extraterritorial status similar to that of foreign embassies.[20][21] These properties, scattered all over Rome and Italy, house essential offices and institutions necessary to the character and mission of the Holy See.[21] Castel Gandolfo and the named basilicas are patrolled internally by police agents of Vatican City State and not by Italian police. St. Peter's Square is ordinarily policed jointly by both.[20]



St. Peter's Square, the basilica and obelisk, from Piazza Pio XII

Gardens

Main article: Gardens of Vatican City


Part of the Vatican Gardens

Within the territory of Vatican City are the Vatican Gardens (Italian: *Giardini Vaticani*),[22] which account for more than half of this territory. The gardens, established during the Renaissance and Baroque era, are decorated with fountains and sculptures.

The gardens cover approximately 23 hectares (57 acres) which is most of the Vatican Hill. The highest point is 60 metres (200 ft) above mean sea level. Stone walls bound the area in the North, South and West.

The gardens date back to medieval times when orchards and vineyards extended to the north of the Papal Apostolic Palace.[23] In 1279 Pope Nicholas III (Giovanni Gaetano Orsini, 1277–1280) moved his residence back to the Vatican from the Lateran Palace and enclosed this area with walls.[24] He planted an orchard *(pomerium)*, a lawn *(pratellum)* and a garden *(viridarium)*.[24]

History

Predecessor states

Main articles: Papal States and History of the Papacy

In this originally uninhabited area (the *ager vaticanus*) on the opposite side of the Tiber from the city of Rome, Agrippina the Elder (14 BC – 18 October AD 33) drained the hill and environs and built her gardens in the early 1st century AD. Emperor Caligula (31 August AD 12 – 24 January AD 41; r. 37–41) started construction of a circus (AD 40) that was later completed by Nero, the *Circus Gaii et Neronis*,[25] usually called, simply, the Circus of Nero. In AD 69, the Year of the Four Emperors, when the northern army that brought Aulus Vitellius to power arrived in Rome, "a large proportion camped in the unhealthy districts of the Vatican, which resulted in many deaths among the common soldiery; and the Tiber being close by, the inability of the Gauls and Germans to bear the heat and the consequent greed with which they drank from the stream weakened their bodies, which were already an easy prey to disease".[26]

The Vatican obelisk was originally taken by Caligula from Heliopolis, Egypt to decorate the spina of his circus and is thus its last visible remnant. This area became the site of martyrdom of many Christians after the Great Fire of Rome in AD 64. Ancient tradition holds that it was in this circus that Saint Peter was crucified upside-down.

Vatican City *

UNESCO World Heritage Site



Country	Holy See
Type	Cultural
Criteria	i, ii, iv, vi
Reference	286 (http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/286)
Region **	Europe

Inscription history

Inscription	1984 (8th Session)

* Name as inscribed on World Heritage List (http://whc.unesco.org/en/list)
** Region as classified by UNESCO (http://whc.unesco.org

/en/list/?search=&search_by_country=&type=&media=&region=&order=region)

Opposite the circus was a cemetery separated by the Via Cornelia. Funeral monuments and mausoleums and small tombs as well as altars to pagan gods of all kinds of polytheistic religions were constructed lasting until before the construction of the Constantinian Basilica of St. Peter's in the first half of the 4th century. Remains of this ancient necropolis were brought to light sporadically during renovations by various popes throughout the centuries increasing in frequency during the Renaissance until it was systematically excavated by orders of Pope Pius XII from 1939 to 1941.

In 326, the first church, the Constantinian basilica, was built over the site that early Roman Catholic apologists (from the first century on) as well as noted Italian archaeologists argue was the tomb of Saint Peter, buried in a common cemetery on the spot. From then on the area started to become more populated, but mostly only by dwelling houses connected with the activity of St. Peter's. A palace was constructed near the site of the basilica as early as the 5th century during the pontificate of Pope Symmachus (reigned 498–514).[27]

Popes in their secular role gradually came to govern neighbouring regions and, through the Papal States, ruled a large portion of the Italian peninsula for more than a thousand years until the mid 19th century, when all of the territory of the Papal States was seized by the newly created Kingdom of Italy. For much of this time the Vatican was not the habitual residence of the Popes, but rather the Lateran Palace, and in recent centuries, the Quirinal Palace, while the residence from 1309–77 was at Avignon in France.

Italian unification

Main article: Roman Question

In 1870, the Pope's holdings were left in an uncertain situation when Rome itself was annexed by the Piedmont-led forces which had united the rest of Italy, after a nominal resistance by the papal forces. Between 1861 and 1929 the status of the Pope was referred to as the "Roman Question". The successive Popes were undisturbed in their palace, and certain prerogatives recognized by the Law of Guarantees, including the right to send and receive ambassadors. But the Popes did not recognise the Italian king's right to rule in Rome, and they refused to leave the Vatican compound until the dispute was resolved in 1929. Other states continued to maintain international recognition of the Holy See as a sovereign entity.



View of the dome of Saint Peter's Basilica from *Borgo Santo Spirito*.

In practice Italy made no attempt to interfere with the Holy See within the Vatican walls. However, they confiscated church property in many other places, including, perhaps most notably, the Quirinal Palace, formerly the pope's official residence. Pope Pius IX (1846–78), the last ruler of the Papal States, claimed that after Rome was annexed he was a "Prisoner in the Vatican".

Lateran treaties

Main article: Lateran Treaty

This situation was resolved on 11 February 1929 between the Holy See and the Kingdom of Italy. The Lateran Treaty was signed by Benito Mussolini on behalf of King Victor Emmanuel III and by Cardinal Secretary of State Pietro Gasparri for Pope Pius XI. The treaty, which became effective on 7 June 1929, and the Concordat

established the independent State of the Vatican City and granted Roman Catholicism special status in Italy.


The Apostolic Palace.

World War II

Main article: Vatican City during World War II

Vatican City officially pursued a policy of neutrality during World War II, under the leadership of Pope Pius XII. Although the city of Rome was occupied by Germany from 1943 and the Allies from 1944, Vatican City itself was not occupied. One of Pius XII's main diplomatic priorities was to prevent the bombing of Rome; so sensitive was the pontiff that he protested even the British air dropping of pamphlets over Rome, claiming that the few landing within the city-state violated the Vatican's neutrality.[28] Before the American entry into the war, there was little impetus for such a bombing, as the British saw little strategic value in it.[29]

After the American entry, the US opposed such a bombing, fearful of offending Catholic members of its military forces, while the British then supported it.[30] Pius XII similarly advocated for the declaration of Rome as an "open city", but this occurred only on 14 August 1943, after Rome had already been bombed twice.[31] Although the Italians consulted the Vatican on the wording of the open city declaration, the impetus for the change had little to do with the Vatican.[32]

Recent history

In 1984, a new concordat between the Holy See and Italy modified certain provisions of the earlier treaty, including the position of Roman Catholicism as the Italian state religion.

Governance

Main article: Politics of Vatican City

The politics of Vatican City takes place in an absolute elective monarchy, in which the head of the Roman Catholic Church takes power. The Pope exercises principal legislative, executive, and judicial power over the State of Vatican City (an entity distinct from the Holy See), which is a rare case of a non-hereditary monarchy.[33]

Vatican City is currently the only widely recognised independent state that has not become a member of the UN. The Holy See, which is distinct from Vatican City State, has permanent observer status with all the rights of a full member except for a vote in the UN General Assembly.

Political system

The government of Vatican City has a unique structure. The Pope is the sovereign of the state. Legislative authority is vested in the Pontifical Commission for Vatican City State, a body of cardinals appointed by the Pope for five-year periods. Executive power is in the hands of the President of that commission, assisted by the General Secretary and Deputy General Secretary. The state's foreign relations are entrusted to the Holy See's Secretariat of State and diplomatic service. Nevertheless, the pope has full and absolute executive, legislative and judicial power over Vatican City. He is currently the only absolute monarch in Europe.

There are specific departments that deal with health, security, telecommunications, etc.[34]

The Cardinal Camerlengo presides over the Apostolic Camera to which is entrusted the administration of the property and the protection of the temporal rights of the Holy See during a papal vacancy. Those of the Vatican State remain under the control of the Pontifical Commission for the State of Vatican City. Acting with three other cardinals chosen by lot every three days, one from each order of cardinals (cardinal bishop, cardinal priest, and cardinal deacon), he in a sense performs during that period the functions of head of state. All the decisions these four cardinals take must be approved by the College of Cardinals as a whole.

The nobility that was closely associated with the Holy See at the time of the Papal States continued to be associated with the Papal Court after the loss of these territories, generally with merely nominal duties (see Papal Master of the Horse, Prefecture of the Pontifical Household, Hereditary officers of the Roman Curia, Black Nobility). They also formed the ceremonial Noble Guard. In the first decades of the existence of the Vatican City State, executive functions were entrusted to some of them, including that of Delegate for the State of Vatican City (now denominated President of the Commission for Vatican City). But with the motu proprio *Pontificalis Domus* of 28 March 1968,[35] Pope Paul VI abolished the honorary positions that had continued to exist until then, such as Quartermaster General and Master of the Horse.[36]

The State of the Vatican City, created in 1929 by the Lateran Pacts, provides the Holy See with a temporal jurisdiction and independence within a small territory. It is distinct from the Holy See. The state can thus be deemed a significant but not essential instrument of the Holy See. The Holy See itself has existed continuously as a juridical entity since Roman Imperial times and has been internationally recognised as a powerful and independent sovereign entity since late antiquity to the present, without interruption even at times when it was deprived of territory (e.g. 1870 to 1929). The Holy See has the oldest active continuous diplomatic service in the world, dating back to at least AD 325 with its legation to the Council of Nicea.[37] Ambassadors are accredited to the Holy See, never to the Vatican City State.

Head of state

Main article: Pope


Vatican City

The Pope is *ex officio* head of state[38] of Vatican City, functions dependent on his primordial function as bishop of the diocese of Rome. The term Holy See refers not to the Vatican state but to the Pope's spiritual and pastoral governance, largely exercised through the Roman Curia.[39] His official title with regard to Vatican City is *Sovereign of the State of the Vatican City*.

His principal subordinate government official for Vatican City is the President of the Pontifical Commission for Vatican City State, who since 1952 exercises the functions previously belonging to the Governor of Vatican City. Since 2001, the President of the Pontifical Commission for Vatican City State also has the title of President of the Governorate of the State of Vatican City.

The Pope resides in the Papal Apartments of the Papal Palace overlooking off Saint Peter's Square. It is here he carries out his business and meets foreign representatives.

The current Pope is Benedict XVI, born Joseph Alois Ratzinger in Bavaria, Germany. Italian Cardinal Giovanni Lajolo serves as President of the Pontifical Commission for the State of Vatican City. He was appointed by Pope

Benedict XVI on 11 September 2006.

Administration

Legislative functions are delegated to the unicameral Pontifical Commission for Vatican City State, led by the President of the Pontifical Commission for Vatican City State. Its seven members are cardinals appointed by the Pope for terms of five years. Acts of the commission must be approved by the pope, through the Holy See's Secretariat of State, and before taking effect must be published in a special appendix of the *Acta Apostolicae Sedis*. Most of the content of this appendix consists of routine executive decrees, such as approval for a new set of postage stamps.

Executive authority is delegated to the Governorate of Vatican City. The Governorate consists of the President of the Pontifical Commission—using the title "President of the Governorate of Vatican City"—a General Secretary, and a Vice General Secretary, each appointed by the pope for five year terms. Important actions of the Governorate must be confirmed by the Pontifical Commission and by the Pope through the Secretariat of State.

The Governorate oversees the central governmental functions through several departments and offices. The directors and officials of these offices are appointed by the pope for five year terms. These organs concentrate on material questions concerning the state's territory, including local security, records, transportation, and finances. The Governorate oversees a modern security and police corps, the *Corpo della Gendarmeria dello Stato della Città del Vaticano*.

Judicial functions are delegated to a supreme court, an appeals court, a tribunal (Tribunal of Vatican City State), and a trial judge.[40] In all cases, the pope may choose at any time to exercise supreme legislative, executive, or judicial functions in the state.

The Country code prefix is *SCV*, and the only postal code is *00120* – altogether *SCV-00120*.[41]

Military and police

Main articles: Military of Vatican City and Crime in Vatican City

Though, like various European powers, earlier Popes recruited Swiss mercenaries as part of an army, the Pontifical Swiss Guard was founded by Pope Julius II on 22 January 1506 as the personal bodyguard of the Pope and continues to fulfil that function. It is listed in the Annuario Pontificio under "Holy See", not under "State of Vatican City". At the end of 2005, the Guard had 134 members. Recruitment is arranged by a special agreement between the Holy See and Switzerland. All recruits must be Catholic, unmarried males with Swiss citizenship who have completed their basic training with the Swiss Army with certificates of good conduct, be between the ages of 19 and 30, and be at least 175 cm (5 ft 9 in) in height. Members are armed with small arms and the traditional halberd (also called the Swiss voulge), and trained in bodyguarding tactics.

The Palatine Guard and the Noble Guard were disbanded by Pope Paul VI in 1970.[42] While the first body was founded as a militia at the service of the Papal States, its functions within the Vatican State, like those of the Noble Guard, were merely ceremonial.

The Corpo della Gendarmeria acts as a police force. Its full name is Corpo della Gendarmeria dello Stato della Città del Vaticano (which means "Gendarmerie Corps of the Vatican City State"), although it is sometimes referred to as the *Vigilanza*, as a shortening of an earlier name. The Gendarmeria is responsible for public order, law enforcement, crowd and traffic control, and criminal investigations in Vatican City.[42]

The military defence of the Vatican City is provided by Italy and its armed forces, given the fact that Vatican City is an enclave within the Italian Republic. Vatican City has no armed force of its own, the Swiss Guard being a corps responsible for the security of the Pope.



Swiss Guards in their traditional uniform

Foreign relations

See also: Foreign relations of the Holy See

Vatican City State is a recognised national territory under international law, but it is the Holy See that conducts diplomatic relations on its behalf, in addition to the Holy See's own diplomacy, entering into international agreements in its regard. The Vatican City State thus has no diplomatic service of its own. Because of space limitations, Vatican City is one of the few countries in the world that is unable to host embassies.

Foreign embassies to the Holy See are located in the city of Rome; only during the Second World War were the staff of some embassies accredited to the Holy See given what hospitality was possible within the narrow confines of Vatican City—embassies such as that of the United Kingdom while Rome was held by the Axis Powers and Germany's when the Allies controlled Rome.



Palace of the Governorate of Vatican City State

The size of Vatican City is thus unrelated to the large global reach exercised by the Holy See as an entity quite distinct from the state.[43]

However, Vatican City State itself participates in some international organizations whose functions relate to the state as a geographical entity, distinct from the non-territorial legal persona of the Holy See.

These organizations are much less numerous than those in which the Holy See participates either as a member or with observer status.

They include the following seven, in each of which Vatican City State holds membership:[44][45]

- European Conference of Postal and Telecommunications Administrations (CEPT)
- European Telecommunications Satellite Organization (Eutelsat IGO)
- International Grains Council (IGC)
- International Institute of Administrative Sciences (IIAS)
- International Telecommunication Union (ITU)
- International Telecommunications Satellite Organization (ITSO)
- Universal Postal Union (UPU)

It also participates in:[44]

- World Medical Association
- World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)

Economy

Main article: Economy of Vatican City

The Vatican City State budget[46] includes the Vatican museums and post office and is supported financially by the sale of stamps, coins, medals and tourist mementos; by fees for admission to museums; and by publications sales. The incomes and living standards of lay workers are comparable to those of counterparts who work in the city of Rome.[47] Other industries include printing, the production of mosaics, and the manufacture of staff uniforms.

The Institute for Works of Religion, also known as the Vatican Bank, and with the acronym IOR (*Istituto per le Opere di Religione*), is a bank situated in the Vatican that conducts worldwide financial activities. It has an ATM with instructions in Latin, possibly the only such ATM in the world.[48]

Vatican City issues its own coins. It has used the euro as its currency since 1 January 1999, owing to a special agreement with the European Union (council decision 1999/98/CE). Euro coins and notes were introduced in 1 January 2002—the Vatican does not issue euro banknotes. Issuance of euro-denominated coins is strictly limited by treaty, though somewhat more than usual is allowed in a year in which there is a change in the papacy.[49] Because of their rarity, Vatican euro coins are highly sought by collectors.[50] Until the adoption of the Euro, Vatican coinage and stamps were denominated in their own Vatican lira currency, which was on par with the Italian lira.

The Vatican City State, which employs nearly 2000 people, had a surplus of 6.7 million euros in 2007 but ran a deficit in 2008 of over 15 million euros.[51]

In 2012, the U.S. State Department's International Narcotics Control Strategy Report listed Vatican City for the first time among the nations of concern for money-laundering, placing it in the middle category, which includes countries such as Ireland, but not among the most vulnerable countries, which include the United States itself, Germany, Italy and Russia.[52]

Demographics

Population and languages

Main article: Languages of Vatican City



Vatican Museums

Almost all of Vatican City's 826 (2009 est.)[53] citizens either live inside the Vatican's walls or serve in the Holy See's diplomatic service in embassies (called "nunciatures"; a papal ambassador is a "nuncio") around the world. The Vatican citizenry consists almost entirely of two groups: clergy, most of whom work in the service of the Holy See, and a very few as officials of the state; and the Swiss Guard. Most of the 2,400 lay workers who comprise the majority of the Vatican workforce reside outside the Vatican and are citizens of Italy, while a few are citizens of other nations. As a result, all of the City's actual citizens are Catholic as are all the places of worship.

Vatican City has no formally enacted official language, but, unlike the Holy See, which most often uses Latin for the authoritative version of its official documents, Vatican City uses only Italian in its legislation and official communications.[54] Italian is also the everyday language used by most of those who work in the state. In the Swiss Guard, German is the language used for giving commands, but the individual guards take their oath of

loyalty in their own languages, German, French, Romansh or Italian. Vatican City's official website languages are Italian, English, French, German, and Spanish. (This site should not be confused with that of the Holy See, which uses all these languages, along with Portuguese, with Latin since 9 May 2008 and Chinese since 18 March 2009.)



The Seal of Vatican City. Note the use of the Italian language.

Citizenship

Pre-March 2011

Unlike citizenship of other states, which is based either on *jus sanguinis* (birth from a citizen, even outside the state's territory) or on *jus soli* (birth within the territory of the state), citizenship of Vatican City is granted *jus officii*, namely on the grounds of appointment to work in a certain capacity in the service of the Holy See. It usually ceases upon cessation of the appointment. Citizenship is extended also to the spouse, parents and descendants of a citizen, provided they are living with the person who is a citizen.[55][56]

Anyone who loses Vatican citizenship and does not possess other citizenship automatically becomes an Italian citizen as judged by Italian law.[20]

As of 31 December 2005, there were, apart from the Pope himself, 557 people with Vatican citizenship, while there were 246 residents in the state who did not have its citizenship.

Of the 557 citizens, 74% were clergy:

- 58 cardinals, resident in Rome, mostly outside the Vatican;
- 293 clergy, members of the Holy See's diplomatic missions, resident in other countries, and forming well over half the total of the citizens;
- 62 other clergy, working but not necessarily living in the Vatican.

The 101 members of the Papal Swiss Guard constituted 18% of the total, and there were only 43 other lay persons with Vatican citizenship.[57]

Post-February 2011

On 22 February 2011, Pope Benedict XVI promulgated a new "Law concerning citizenship, residency and access" to Vatican City, which became effective on 1 March. It replaced the 1929 "Law concerning citizenship and residence".[58] There are 16 articles in the new law, whereas the old law had 33 articles.[59] Vatican citizenship now has four categories: (1) the pope, (2) cardinals residing in Vatican City, (3) active members of the Holy See's diplomatic corps, and (4) other directors of Vatican offices and services.[59] The new law created a new status, that of official Vatican "residents", i.e., people who live in Vatican City but are not citizens.[59] As of 1 March 2011, the Vatican had 572 citizens, but only 220 of them were living in Vatican City.[59] The other 352 citizens were apostolic nuncios and diplomatic staff.[59] The 220 citizens living in Vatican City were among more than 800 people living in the Vatican.[59]



360-degree view from the dome of St. Peter's Basilica, looking over the Vatican's Saint Peter's Square (center) and out into Rome, showing most of Vatican City

Culture

Main article: Culture of Vatican City



Michelangelo's *Pietà* is one of the Vatican's best known artworks.

Vatican City is home to some of the most famous art in the world. St. Peter's Basilica, whose successive architects include Bramante, Michelangelo, Giacomo della Porta, Maderno and Bernini is a renowned work of Renaissance architecture. The Sistine Chapel is famous for its frescos, which include works by Perugino, Domenico Ghirlandaio and Botticelli as well as the ceiling and Last Judgement by Michelangelo. Artists who decorated the interiors of the Vatican include Raphael and Fra Angelico.

The Vatican Library and the collections of the Vatican Museums are of the highest historical, scientific and cultural importance. In 1984, the Vatican was added by UNESCO to the List of World Heritage Sites; it is the only one to consist of an entire state.[60] Furthermore, it is the only site to date registered with the UNESCO as a *centre containing monuments* in the "International Register of Cultural Property under Special Protection" according to the 1954 Hague Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict.[60]

Infrastructure

Transport

Main article: Transport in Vatican City



Vatican's Railway Station

Vatican City has a reasonably well developed transport network considering its size (consisting mostly of a plaza and walkways). As a country that is 1.05 kilometres (0.6 mi) long and 0.85 kilometres (0.5 mi) wide,[61] it has a small transportation system with no airports or highways. There is one heliport and a standard gauge railway connected to Italy's network at Rome's Saint Peter's station by an 852-metre-long (932 yd) spur, only 300 metres (330 yd) of which is within Vatican territory.[62]

Pope John XXIII was the first Pope to make use of this railway, and Pope John Paul II used it as well, albeit very rarely. The railway is mainly used to transport freight.[62] As Vatican City has no airports (it is one of the few

independent states in the world without one, except for the aforementioned heliport), it is served by the airports that serve the city of Rome, within which the Vatican is located, namely: Leonardo da Vinci-Fiumicino Airport and to a lesser extent, Ciampino Airport, which both serve as the departure gateway for the Pope's international visits.[62]



The stamp vending machine of the Vatican Postal Service.

Communications

The City is served by an independent, modern telephone system,[63] the Vatican Pharmacy, and post office. The postal system was founded on 11 February 1929, and two days later became operational. On 1 August, the state started to release its own postal stamps, under the authority of the Philatelic and Numismatic Office of the Vatican City State.[64] The City's postal service is sometimes recognised as "the best in the world"[65] and mail has been noted to get to its target before the postal service in Rome.[65]

The Vatican also controls its own Internet TLD, which is registered as (.va). Broadband service is widely provided within Vatican City. Vatican City has also been given a radio ITU prefix, HV, and this is sometimes used by amateur radio operators.

Vatican Radio, which was organised by Guglielmo Marconi, broadcasts on short-wave, medium-wave and FM frequencies and on the Internet.[66] Its main transmission antennae are located in Italian territory. Television services are provided through another entity, the Vatican Television Center.[67]

L'Osservatore Romano is the multilingual semi-official newspaper of the Holy See. It is published by a private corporation under the direction of Roman Catholic laymen but reports on official information. However, the official texts of documents are in the *Acta Apostolicae Sedis*, the official gazette of the Holy See, which has an appendix for documents of the Vatican City State.

Vatican Radio, the Vatican Television Center, and L'Osservatore Romano are organs not of the Vatican State but of the Holy See, and are listed as such in the Annuario Pontificio, which places them in the section "Institutions linked with the Holy See", ahead of the sections on the Holy See's diplomatic service abroad and the Diplomatic Corps accredited to the Holy See, after which is placed the section on the State of Vatican City.

Crime

Main article: Crime in Vatican City

In accordance with Article 22 of the 1929 Lateran Treaty between the Holy See and Italy, the Italian government, when requested by the Holy See, handles the prosecution and detention of criminal suspects, at the expense of the Vatican.[20] Capital punishment was envisaged in the legislation adopted in 1929 on the basis of Italian law, but the Vatican state never exercised it and abolished it in 1969.

See also

- Outline of Vatican City
- Index of Vatican City-related articles
- List of diplomatic missions of the Holy See

Papal States

Coordinates: 42°49′16″N 12°36′10″E

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Papal State(s)**, the **Popedom**, the **State(s) of the Church**, the **Pontifical States**, the **Ecclesiastical States**, or the **Roman States** (Italian: *Stato Pontificio*, also *Stato della Chiesa*, *Stati della Chiesa*, *Stati Pontifici*, and *Stato Ecclesiastico*; Latin: *Status Pontificius*, also *Dicio Pontificia*)[1] were among the major historical states of Italy from roughly the 6th century until the Italian peninsula was unified in 1861 by the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia (after which the Papal States, in less territorially extensive form, continued to exist until 1870).

The Papal States comprised territories under direct sovereign rule of the papacy, and at its height it covered most of the modern Italian regions of Romagna, Marche, Umbria and Lazio. This governing power is commonly called the temporal power of the Pope, as opposed to his ecclesiastical primacy.

The plural *Papal States* is usually preferred; the singular *Papal State* (equally correct since it was not a mere personal union) tends to be used (normally with lower-case letters) for the modern State of Vatican City, an enclave within Italy's national capital, Rome. The Vatican City was founded in 1929, again allowing the Holy See the political benefits of territorial sovereignty.

Contents

- 1 Origins
- 2 Donation of Pepin
- 3 Relationship with the Holy Roman Empire
- 4 Period of the Avignon papacy
- 5 Renaissance
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Origins

Main articles: Duchy of Rome and Patrimony of Saint Peter

States of the Church
Stati della Chiesa
Status Pontificius

754–1870



Flag



Coat of arms

Anthem
Noi vogliam Dio, Vergine Maria (- 1857)
(Italian)
"We want God, Virgin Mary"
Marcia trionfale (1857 - 1870)
(Italian)
"Great Triumphal March"



Map of the Papal States (green) in 1700 (around its greatest extent), including its exclaves of Benevento and Pontecorvo in Southern Italy, and the Comtat Venaissin and Avignon in Southern France.

Capital	Rome
Language(s)	Latin, Italian
Religion	Roman Catholicism
Government	ecclesiocratic elective monarchy
Pope	
- 752	Stephen (elect)
- 1846–1878	Pius IX

> It would, however, be wrong to suppose that all papal claims of secular jurisdiction, taxation and service, etc. were exactly defined, or that they applied with equal force all over a large region of central Italy, or that local warlords or others readily conceded obedience to Rome. This was no modern state yet, no equivalent to the contemporary strong monarchies of France or England. Force of tradition and forceful possession counted more than written deeds of donation.
>
> –D.S. Chambers[2]

History	
- Establishment	754
- Codification	781
- 1st Disestablishment	February 15, 1798
- 2nd Disestablishment	September 20, 1870
- Vatican City	February 11, 1929
Currency	Papal States scudo (–1866) Papal States lira (1866–1870)
Today part of	France Italy San Marino Vatican City

The Church spent its first three centuries as an outlawed organization and was thus unable to hold or transfer property. Early churches congregated in special rooms of well-to-do individuals set aside for that purpose, and a number of early churches built round the edges of Ancient Rome were ascribed to patrons who held the property in custody for the Church: see *titulus*. After the ban was lifted by the Emperor Constantine I, the Church's private property grew quickly through the donations of the pious and the wealthy; the Lateran Palace was the first significant donation, a gift of Constantine himself.

Other donations soon followed, mainly in mainland Italy but also in the provinces, but the Church held all of these lands as a private landowner, not as a sovereign entity. When in the fifth century the Italian peninsula passed under the control of first Odoacer and then the Ostrogoths, the church organization in Italy, and the bishop of Rome as its head, submitted to their sovereign authority while asserting their spiritual primacy over the whole Church.

The seeds of the Papal States as a sovereign political entity were planted in the sixth century. The Eastern Roman (or Byzantine) government in Constantinople launched a reconquest of Italy that took decades and devastated the country's political and economic structures; just as those wars wound down, the Lombards entered the peninsula from the north and conquered much of the countryside. By the seventh century, Byzantine authority was largely limited to a diagonal band running roughly from Ravenna, where the Emperor's representative, or Exarch, was located, to Rome and south to Naples (the "Rome-Ravenna corridor").

With effective Byzantine power weighted at the northeast end of this territory, the Bishop of Rome, as the largest landowner and most prestigious figure in Italy, began by default to take on much of the ruling authority that Byzantines were unable to project to the area around the city of Rome. While the Bishops of Rome — now beginning to be referred to as the Popes — remained *de jure* Byzantine subjects, in practice the Duchy of Rome, an area roughly equivalent to modern-day Latium, became an independent state ruled by the Church.

The Church's independence, combined with popular support for the Papacy in Italy, enabled various Popes to defy the will of the Byzantine emperor; Pope Gregory II even excommunicated Emperor Leo III the Isaurian during the Iconoclast Controversy. Nevertheless the Pope and the Exarch still worked together to control the rising power of the Lombards in Italy. As Byzantine power weakened, though, the Papacy took an ever larger role in defending Rome from the Lombards, usually through diplomacy, threats and bribery[*citation needed*]. In practice, the papal efforts served to focus Lombard aggrandizement on the Exarch and Ravenna. A climactic moment in the founding of the Papal States was the agreement over boundaries embodied in the Lombard king Liutprand's *Donation of Sutri* (728) to Pope Gregory II [1] (http://www.romeartlover.it/Civita3.html) .

Donation of Pepin

Main article: Donation of Pepin

When the Exarchate of Ravenna finally fell to the Lombards in 751, the Duchy of Rome was completely cut off from the Byzantine Empire, of which it was theoretically still a part. Pope Stephen II acted to neutralize the Lombard threat by courting the de facto Frankish ruler, Pepin the Short. With the urging of Pope Zachary to depose the Merovingian figurehead Childeric III, Pepin was crowned in 751 by Saint Boniface.



The Quirinal Palace, papal residence and home to the civil offices of the Papal States from the Renaissance until their annexation.

Stephen later granted Pepin the title *Patrician of the Romans*. Pepin led a Frankish army into Italy in 754 and 756. Pepin defeated the Lombards — taking control of northern Italy — and made a gift (called the Donation of Pepin) of the properties formerly constituting the Exarchate of Ravenna to the Pope.

In 781, Charlemagne codified the regions over which the Pope would be temporal sovereign: the Duchy of Rome was key, but the territory was expanded to include Ravenna, the Pentapolis, parts of the Duchy of Benevento, Tuscany, Corsica, Lombardy and a number of Italian cities. The cooperation between the Papacy and the Carolingian dynasty climaxed in 800, when Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne the first "Emperor of the Romans" ('Augustus Romanorum').

Relationship with the Holy Roman Empire

The precise nature of the relationship between the Popes and Emperors — and between the Papal States and the Empire — was disputed. Was the Pope a sovereign ruler of a separate realm in central Italy, or were the Papal States just a part of the Frankish Empire over which the Popes had administrative control? (This last was the view of the late 9th-century *Libellus de imperatoria potestate in urbe Roma*.) Or were the Holy Roman Emperors vicars of the Pope (as a sort of Archemperor) ruling Christendom, with the Pope directly responsible only for the environs of Rome and spiritual duties?

Events in the 9th century postponed the conflict: the Holy Roman Empire in its Frankish form collapsed as it was subdivided among Charlemagne's grandchildren. Imperial power in Italy waned and the papacy's prestige declined. This led to a rise in the power of the local Roman nobility, and the control of the Papal States during the early tenth century by a powerful and corrupt aristocratic family, the Theophylacti. This period was later dubbed the Saeculum obscurum or "dark age of the papacy", and sometimes as the "rule by harlots".[3] In practice, the Popes were unable to exercise effective sovereignty over the extensive and mountainous territories of the Papal States, and the region preserved its old system of government, with many small countships and marquisates, each centered upon a fortified *rocca*.

Over several campaigns in the mid-tenth century, the German ruler Otto I conquered northern Italy; Pope John XII crowned him emperor (the first so crowned in more than forty years), and the two of them ratified the Diploma Ottonianum, which guaranteed the independence of the Papal States. Yet over the next two centuries, Popes and Emperors squabbled over a variety of issues, and the German rulers routinely treated the Papal States as part of their realms on those occasions when they projected power into Italy. A major motivation for the

Gregorian Reform was to free the administration of the Papal States from imperial interference, and after the extirpation of the Hohenstaufen dynasty, the German emperors rarely interfered in Italian affairs. By 1300, the Papal States, along with the rest of the Italian principalities, were effectively independent. During the Renaissance the Spanish Emperors fought wars over the Papal States, often against the Pope.

Period of the Avignon papacy

Main article: Avignon Papacy

From 1305 to 1378, the Popes lived in the papal enclave of Avignon, surrounded by Provence, and were under the influence of the French kings in the 'Babylonian Captivity'. During this Avignon Papacy, local despots took advantage of the absence of the popes, to establish themselves in nominally papal cities: the Pepoli in Bologna, the Ordelaffi in Forlì, the Manfredi in Faenza, the Malatesta in Rimini all gave nominal acknowledgement to their papal overlords and were declared vicars of the Church.

In Ferrara, the death of Azzo VIII d'Este without legitimate heirs (1308) encouraged Clement to bring Ferrara under his direct rule: for only nine years, however, was it governed by his appointed vicar, Robert d'Anjou, King of Naples, before the citizens recalled the Este from exile (1317); interdiction and excommunications were in vain: in 1332 John XXII was obliged to name three Este brothers as his vicars in Ferrara.

In Rome itself the Orsini and the Colonna struggled for supremacy, dividing the city's *rioni* between them. The resulting aristocratic anarchy in the city provided the setting for the fantastic dreams of universal democracy of Cola di Rienzo, who was acclaimed Tribune of the People in 1347 and met a violent death in 1354.

The Rienzo episode engendered renewed attempts from the absentee papacy to re-establish order in the dissolving Papal States, resulting in the military progress of Cardinal Egidio Albornoz, who was appointed papal legate, and his condottieri heading a small mercenary army. Having received the support of the archbishop of Milan and Giovanni Visconti, he defeated Giovanni di Vico, lord of Viterbo, moving against Galeotto Malatesta of Rimini and the Ordelaffi of Forlì, the Montefeltro of Urbino and the da Polenta of Ravenna, and against the cities of Senigallia and Ancona. The last holdouts against full papal control were Giovanni Manfredi of Faenza and Francesco II Ordelaffi of Forlì. Albornoz, at the point of being recalled in 1357, in a meeting with all the Papal vicars, 29 April 1357, promulgated the *Constitutiones Sanctæ Matris Ecclesiæ*, which replaced the mosaic of local law and accumulated traditional 'liberties' with a uniform code of civil law. These *Constitutiones Egidiane* mark a watershed in the legal history of the Papal States; they remained in effect until 1816. Pope Urban V ventured a return to Italy in 1367 that proved premature; he returned to Avignon in 1370

During this period the city of Avignon itself was added to the Papal States; it remained a papal possession even after the popes returned to Rome, being seized and incorporated into the by then unitary French state only during the French Revolution.

Renaissance

During the Renaissance, the papal territory expanded greatly, notably under Popes Alexander VI and Julius II. The Pope became one of Italy's most important secular rulers as well as the head of the Church, signing treaties with other sovereigns and fighting wars. In practice, though, most of the Papal States was still only nominally controlled by the Pope, and much of the territory was ruled by minor princes. Control was always contested; indeed it took until the 16th century for the Pope to have any genuine control over all his territories.

Papal responsibilities were often (as in the early 16th century) in conflict. The Papal States were involved in at



Antichristus (1521) by Lucas Cranach the Elder is a woodcut of the Papal States at war during the Renaissance.

least 3 wars in the first 2 decades.[4][5] Pope Julius II, the "Warrior Pope", fought on their behalf. The Reformation began in 1517. Before the Holy Roman Empire fought the Protestants, its soldiers (including many Protestants), sacked Rome as a side effect of battles over the Papal States.[6] A generation later the armies of Emperor Philip II of Spain stomped those of Pope Paul IV over the same issues.[7]

At its greatest extent, in the 18th century, the Papal States included most of Central Italy — Latium, Umbria, Marche and the Legations of Ravenna, Ferrara and Bologna extending north into the Romagna. It also included the small enclaves of Benevento and Pontecorvo in southern Italy and the larger Comtat Venaissin around Avignon in southern France.

French Revolution and Napoleonic era

The French Revolution proved as disastrous for the temporal territories of the Papacy as it was for the Roman Church in general. In 1791 the Comtat Venaissin and Avignon were annexed by France. Later, with the French invasion of Italy in 1796, the Legations were seized and became part of the revolutionary Cisalpine Republic.



Map of Italy in 1796, showing the Papal States before the Napoleonic wars changed the face of Italy

Two years later, the Papal States as a whole were invaded by French forces, who declared a Roman Republic. Pope Pius VI died in exile in France in 1799. The Papal States were restored in June 1800 and Pope Pius VII returned, but the French again invaded in 1808, and this time the remainder of the States of the Church were annexed to France, forming the *départements* of *Tibre* and *Trasimène*.

With the fall of the Napoleonic system in 1814, the Papal States were restored once more. From 1814 until the death of Pope Gregory XVI in 1846, the Popes followed a reactionary policy in the Papal States. For instance, the city of Rome maintained the last Jewish ghetto in Western Europe. There were hopes that this would change when Pope Pius IX was elected to succeed Gregory and began to introduce liberal reforms.

Italian nationalism and the end of the Papal States

Main article: Papal States under Pope Pius IX

Italian nationalism had been stoked during the Napoleonic period but dashed by the settlement of the Congress of Vienna (1814–15), which left Italy divided: aside from Sardinia-Piedmont, Tuscany and the north were under

rule of junior cadet branches of the Habsburgs and in the south the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies was under Bourbon rule. In 1848, nationalist and liberal revolutions began to break out across Europe; in 1849, a Roman Republic was declared and Pope Pius IX fled the city.

A view of the Papal States from the perspective of the mid 19th century is readily available.[8]

After the Austro-Sardinian War of 1859, much of northern Italy was unified under the House of Savoy, and Giuseppe Garibaldi led a revolution that overthrew the Bourbon monarchy in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Afraid that Garibaldi would set up a republican government in the south, the Sardinians petitioned Emperor Napoleon III of France for permission to send troops through the Papal States to gain control of the Two Sicilies, which was granted on the condition that Rome was left undisturbed. In 1860, with much of the region already in rebellion against Papal rule, Sardinia-Piedmont conquered the eastern two-thirds of the Papal States and cemented its hold on the south. Bologna, Ferrara, Umbria, the Marches, Benevento and Pontecorvo were all formally annexed by November of the same year, and a unified Kingdom of Italy was declared.

The Papal States were reduced to Latium, the immediate neighbourhood of Rome, which was declared Capital of Italy in March 1861, when the first Italian Parliament met in the Piedmontese kingdom's old capital, Turin. However, the Italian Government could not take possession of its capital because Napoleon III kept a French garrison in Rome in order to protect Pope Pius IX. The opportunity to eliminate the Papal States came when the Franco-Prussian War began in July 1870, and Napoleon III had to recall his garrison from Rome. Following the collapse of the Second French Empire at the Battle of Sedan, widespread public demonstrations demanded that the Italian Government take Rome. King Victor Emmanuel II sent Count Gustavo Ponza di San Martino to Pius IX with a personal letter offering a face-saving proposal that would have allowed the peaceful entry of the Italian Army into Rome, under the guise of offering protection to the pope.



The Breach of Porta Pia, on the right, in a contemporary photograph.

On September 10, 1870, Italy declared war on the Papal States, and the Italian Army, commanded by General Raffaele Cadorna, crossed the frontier of the then remaining papal territory on 11 September and advanced slowly toward Rome. The Italian Army reached the Aurelian Walls on 19 September and placed Rome under a state of siege. Although the pope's tiny army was incapable of defending the city, Pius IX ordered it to put up at least a token resistance to emphasize that Italy was acquiring Rome by force and not consent. This incidentally served the purposes of the Italian State and gave rise to the myth of the Breach of Porta Pia, in reality a tame affair involving a cannonade at close range that demolished without much fuss a 1600-year-old wall in poor repair. The city was captured on September 20, 1870. Rome and Latium were annexed to the Kingdom of Italy as a result of a plebiscite the following October.

Despite the fact that the traditionally Catholic powers did not come to the Pope's aid, the papacy rejected any substantial accommodation with the Italian Kingdom, especially any proposal which required the Pope to become an Italian subject. Instead the papacy confined itself (see Prisoner in the Vatican) to the Apostolic Palace and adjacent buildings in the loop of the ancient fortifications known as the Leonine City, on Vatican Hill. From there it maintained a number of features pertaining to sovereignty, such as diplomatic relations, since in canon law these were inherent in the papacy. In the 1920s, the papacy — then under Pius XI — renounced the bulk of the Papal States and the Lateran Treaty (or Concordat) with Italy was signed on February 11, 1929, creating the State of the Vatican City, forming the sovereign territory of the Holy See, which was also indemnified to some degree for loss of territory.

Institutions

- As the *plural* name Papal States indicates, the various regional components, usually former independent states, retained their identity under papal rule. The Pope was represented in each province by a governor, either styled papal legate, as in the former principality of Benevento, or Bologna, Romagna, and the March of Ancona; or papal delegate, as in the former duchy of Pontecorvo and in the Campagne and Maritime Province.
- The police force, known as *sbirri* ("cops" in modern Italian slang), was billeted in private houses (normally a practice of military occupation) and enforced order quite rigorously.
- For the defence of the states against the nascent Italian state in the last years of papal territorial autonomy, an international Catholic volunteer corps, called Papal Zouaves after a kind of French colonial native Algerian infantry, and imitating their uniform type, was created and fought in many engagements with great courage against superior odds in men and equipment.[9]



Papal Zouaves pose in 1869.

See also

- Avignon Papacy
- Donation of Constantine
- History of Rome
- Holy Roman Empire
- Italian unification
- Prisoner in the Vatican
- War of the Eight Saints
- Captain General of the Church

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Footnotes

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2. ^ Chambers, 2006, p. xv
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History of the papacy

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

See also: List of popes



According to Catholic doctrine, popes are successors to Saint Peter.

The **history of the papacy**, the office held by the pope as head of the Catholic Church, spans from the time of Saint Peter to present day.

During the Early Church, the bishops of Rome enjoyed no temporal power until the time of Constantine. After the fall of Rome (the "Middle Ages"), the papacy was influenced by the temporal rulers of and surrounding the Italian Peninsula; these periods are known as the Ostrogothic Papacy, Byzantine Papacy, and Frankish Papacy. Over time, the papacy consolidated its territorial claims to a portion of the peninsula known as the Papal States. Thereafter, the role of neighboring sovereigns was replaced by powerful Roman families during the *saeculum obscurum*, the Crescentii era, and the Tusculan Papacy.

From 1048 to 1257, the papacy experienced increasing conflict with the leaders and churches of the Holy Roman Empire and the Byzantine Empire. The latter culminated in the East-West Schism, dividing the Catholic Church and Eastern Orthodox Church. From 1257–1377, the pope, though the bishop of Rome, resided in Viterbo, Orvieto, and Perugia, and then Avignon. The return of the popes to Rome after the Avignon Papacy was followed by the Western Schism: the division of the western church between two, and for a time three, competing papal claimants.

The Renaissance Papacy is known for its artistic and architectural patronage, forays into European power politics, and theological challenges to papal authority. After the start of the Protestant Reformation, the Reformation Papacy and Baroque Papacy lead the Catholic Church through the Counter Reformation. The popes during the Age of Revolution witnessed the largest expropriation of wealth in the church's history, during the French Revolution and those that followed throughout Europe. The Roman Question, arising from Italian unification, resulted in the loss of the Papal States and the creation of Vatican City.

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During the Roman Empire (until 493)

Early Christianity

Further information: Primacy of Simon Peter and Persecution of Christians in the Roman Empire

Catholics recognize the pope as a successor to Saint Peter, whom, according to the Roman Catholic interpretation of the bible, Jesus named as the "shepherd" and "rock" of the Church (see Matthew 16:18–9).[1][2] Although Peter never bore the title of "pope", which came into use much later, Catholics recognize him as the first pope,[3] while official declarations of the Church speak of the popes as holding within the college of the Bishops a position analogous to that held by Peter within the college of the Apostles, namely Prince of the Apostles, of which the college of the Bishops, a distinct entity, is the successor.[4][5][6]

Many popes in the first three centuries of the Christian era are obscure figures. Several suffered martyrdom along with members of their flock in periods of persecution. Most of them engaged in intense theological arguments with other bishops.

From Constantine (312–493)

Main article: Bishops of Rome under Constantine I

The legend surrounding Constantine I's victory in the Battle of the Milvian Bridge (312) relates his vision of the Chi Rho and the text in hoc signo vinces in the sky, and reproducing this symbol on the shields of his troops. The following year, Constantine and Licinius proclaimed the toleration of Christianity with the Edict of Milan, and in 325 Constantine convened and presided over the First Council of Nicaea, the first ecumenical council. None of this, however, has particularly much to do with the popes, who did not even attend the Council; in fact, the first bishop of Rome to be contemporaneously referred to as "pope" (παππας, or *pappas*) is Damasus I (366–84).[7] Moreover, between 324 and 330, Constantine built Constantinople as a new capital for the empire, and—with no apologies to the Roman community of Christians—relocated key Roman families and translated many Christian relics to the new churches he built from the ground up.



Raphael's *The Baptism of Constantine* depicts Sylvester I instead of his actual baptizer Eusebius of Nicomedia, an Arian bishop.

The "Donation of Constantine", an 8th century forgery used to enhance the prestige and authority of popes, places the pope more centrally in the narrative of Constantinian Christianity. The legend of the Donation claims

that Constantine offered his crown to Sylvester I (314–35), and even that Sylvester baptized Constantine. In reality, Constantine was baptized (nearing his death in May 337) by Eusebius of Nicomedia, an Arian bishop, unlike the pope. Nicomedia had been the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire since 286. Sylvester was succeeded by Mark (336) and Julius I (337–52) during the life of Constantine.

Although the "Donation" never occurred, Constantine did hand over the Lateran Palace to the bishop of Rome, and begin the construction of Old Saint Peter's Basilica (the "Constantinian Basilica"). The gift of the Lateran probably occurred during the reign of Miltiades (311–14), Sylvester I's predecessor, who began using it as his residence. Old St. Peter's was begun between 326 and 330 and would have taken three decades to complete, long after the death of Constantine. Constantine's legalization of Christianity, combined with the donation of these properties, gave the pope an unprecedented level of temporal power, for the first time creating an incentive for secular leaders to interfere with papal succession.

Middle Ages (493–1417)

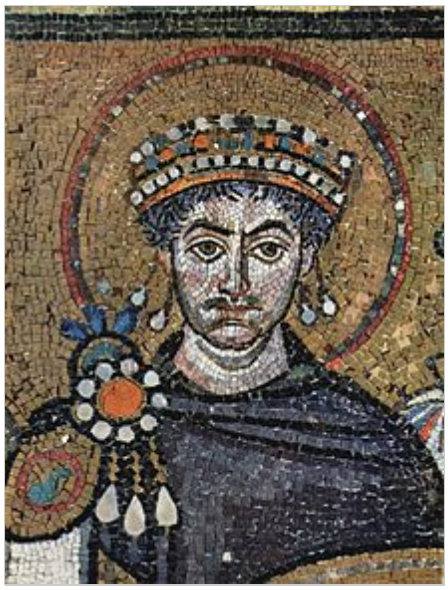
Further information: Papal States

Ostrogothic Papacy (493–537)

Main article: Ostrogothic Papacy

Byzantine Papacy (537–752)

Main article: Byzantine Papacy



Justinian I re-conquered Rome and appointed the next three popes.

The Byzantine Papacy was a period of Byzantine domination of the papacy from 537 to 752, when popes required the approval of the Byzantine Emperor for episcopal consecration, and many popes were chosen from the *apocrisiarii* (liaisons from the pope to the emperor) or the inhabitants of Byzantine Greece, Syria, or Sicily. Justinian I conquered the Italian peninsula in the Gothic War (535–54) and appointed the next three popes, a practice that would be continued by his successors and later be delegated to the Exarchate of Ravenna.

With the exception of Pope Martin I, no pope during this period questioned the authority of the Byzantine monarch to confirm the election of the bishop of Rome before consecration could occur; however, theological conflicts were common between pope and emperor in the areas such as monotheletism and iconoclasm. Greek speakers from Greece, Syria, and Byzantine Sicily replaced members of the powerful Roman nobles in the papal chair during this period. Rome under the Greek popes constituted a "melting pot" of Western and Eastern Christian traditions, reflected in art as well as liturgy.

Pope Gregory I (590–604) was a major figure in asserting papal primacy and gave the impetus to missionary activity in northern Europe, including England.

Frankish influence (756–857)

Main article: Frankish Papacy

In 751, Aistulf took Ravenna and threatened Rome. In response to this threat, Pope Stephen II made an unusual journey north of the Alps to visit the Frankish king, Pepin III, to seek his help against the invading Lombards.

The pope anointed Pepin at the abbey of St Denis, near Paris, together with Pepin's two young sons Charles and Carloman. Pepin duly invaded northern Italy in 754, and again in 756. Pepin was able to drive the Lombards from the territory belonging to Ravenna but he did not restore it to its rightful owner, the Byzantine emperor. Instead, perhaps accepting the validity of the Donation of Constantine, he handed over large areas of central Italy to the pope and his successors.

The land given to pope Stephen in 756, in the so-called Donation of Pepin, made the papacy a temporal power. This territory would become the basis for the Papal States, over which the popes ruled until the Papal States were incorporated into the new Kingdom of Italy in 1870. For the next eleven centuries, the story of Rome will be almost synonymous with the story of the papacy.

The Lombard kingdom reached its height in the 7th and 8th century. Paganism and Arianism were at first prevalent among the Lombards but were gradually supplanted by Catholicism. Roman culture and Latin speech were gradually adopted and the Catholic bishops emerged as chief magistrates in the cities. Lombard law combined Germanic and Roman traditions. After Aistulf's death King Desiderius renewed the attack on Rome. In 772, Pope Adrian I enlisted the support of Charlemagne, Pepin's successor, who intervened, and, after defeating the Lombards, added their kingdom to his own.

After being physically attacked by his enemies in the streets of Rome, Pope Leo III made his way in 799 through the Alps to visit Charlemagne at Paderborn.

It is not known what was agreed between the two, but Charlemagne traveled to Rome in 800 to support the pope. In a ceremony in St Peter's Basilica, on Christmas Day, Leo was supposed to anoint Charlemagne's son as his heir. But unexpectedly (it is maintained), as Charlemagne rose from prayer, the pope placed a crown on his head and acclaimed him emperor. It is reported that Charlemagne expressed displeasure but nevertheless accepted the honour. The displeasure was probably diplomatic, for the legal emperor was supposed to be seated in Constantinople. Nevertheless this public alliance between the pope and the ruler of a confederation of Germanic tribes was a reflection of the reality of political power in the west. This coronation launched the concept of the new Holy Roman Empire which would play an important role throughout the Middle Ages. The Holy Roman Empire only became formally established in the next century. But the concept is implicit in the title adopted by Charlemagne in 800: 'Charles, most serene Augustus, crowned by God, great and pacific emperor, governing the Roman empire.'

Influence of powerful Roman families (904–1048)

Main articles: Saeculum obscurum, Crescentii, and Tusculan Papacy

The period beginning with the installation of Pope Sergius III in 904 and lasting for sixty years until the death of Pope John XII in 964 is sometimes referred to as Saeculum obscurum or the "dark age." Historian Will Durant refers to the period from 867 to 1049 as the "nadir of the papacy".[8]

During this period, the popes were controlled by a powerful and corrupt aristocratic family, the Theophylacti, and their relatives.[9]

Conflicts with the Emperor and East (1048–1257)

Main article: History of the papacy (1048–1257)

The Imperial crown once held by the Carolingian emperors was disputed between their fractured heirs and local overlords; none emerged victorious until Otto I, Holy Roman Emperor invaded Italy. Italy became a constituent kingdom of the Holy Roman Empire in 962, from which point the emperors were Germanic. As emperor's consolidated their position, northern Italian city-states would become divided by Guelphs and Ghibellines. Henry III, Holy Roman Emperor found three rival popes when he visited Rome in 1048 because of the unprecedented actions of Pope Benedict IX. He deposed all three and installed his own preferred candidate: Pope Clement II.

The history of the papacy from 1048 to 1257 would continue to be marked by conflict between popes and the Holy Roman Emperor, most prominently the Investiture Controversy, a dispute over who—pope or emperor—could appoint bishops within the Empire. Henry IV's Walk to Canossa in 1077 to meet Pope Gregory VII (1073–85), although not dispositive within the context of the larger dispute, has become legendary. Although the emperor renounced any right to lay investiture in the Concordat of Worms (1122), the issue would flare up again.

Long-standing divisions between East and West also came to a head in the East-West Schism and the Crusades. The first seven Ecumenical Councils had been attended by both Western and Eastern prelates, but growing doctrinal, theological, linguistic, political and geographic differences finally resulted in mutually denunciations and excommunications. Pope Urban II (1088–99) speech at the Council of Clermont in 1095 became the rallying cry of the First Crusade.

Unlike the previous millennium, the process for papal selection became somewhat fixed during this period. Pope Nicholas II promulgated *In Nomine Domini* in 1059, which limited suffrage in papal elections to the College of Cardinals. The rules and procedures of papal elections evolved during this period, laying the groundwork for the modern papal conclave. The driving force behind these reforms was Cardinal Hildebrand, who later became Gregory VII.

The wandering popes (1257–1309)

Main articles: Viterbo Papacy, Orvieto Papacy, and Perugia Papacy



The papal palace in Viterbo...



...and Orvieto

The pope is the bishop of Rome, but it is nowhere written that he has to stay there (in fact, only 200 years prior, cardinals would have been required to reside in Rome). Political instability in thirteenth-century Italy forced the papal court to move to several different locations. Frequent destinations include Viterbo, Orvieto, and Perugia. The popes brought the Roman Curia with them, and the College of Cardinals met in the city where the last pope had died to hold papal elections. Host cities enjoyed boosts their prestige and certain economic advantages, but the municipal authorities risked being subsumed into the administration of the Papal States if they allowed the pope to overstay his welcome.

According to Eamon Duffy, "aristocratic factions within the city of Rome once again made it an insecure base for a stable papal government. Innocent IV was exiled from Rome and even Italy for six years, and all but two of the papal elections of the thirteenth century had to take place outside Rome. The skyline of Rome itself was now dominated by the fortified war-towers of the aristocracy (a hundred were built in Innocent IV's pontificate alone) and the popes increasingly spent their time in the papal palaces at Viterbo and Orvieto."[10]

Avignon Papacy (1309–1377)

Main article: Avignon Papacy

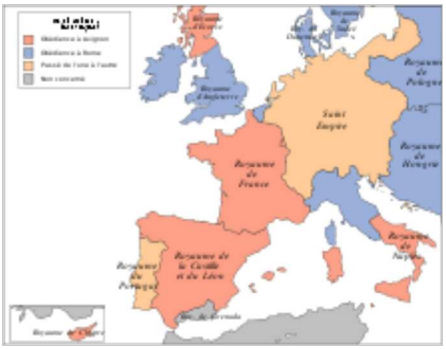


The Palais des Papes in Avignon

During this period, seven popes, all French, resided in Avignon starting in 1309: Pope Clement V (1305–14), Pope John XXII (1316–34), Pope Benedict XII (1334–42), Pope Clement VI (1342–52), Pope Innocent VI (1352–62), Pope Urban V (1362–70), Pope Gregory XI (1370–78). In 1378, Gregory XI moved the papal residence back to Rome and died there.

Western schism (1378–1417)

Main article: Western schism



The division of European allegiances at a point during the Western Schism

After seventy years in France the papal curia was naturally French in its ways and, to a large extent, in its staff. Back in Rome some degree of tension between French and Italian factions was inevitable. This tension was brought to a head by the death of the French pope Gregory XI within a year of his return to Rome. The Roman crowd, said to be in threatening mood, demanded a Roman pope or at least an Italian one. In 1378 the conclave elected an Italian from Naples, Pope Urban VI. His intransigence in office soon alienated the French cardinals. And the behaviour of the Roman crowd enabled them to declare, in retrospect, that his election was invalid, voted under duress.

The French cardinals withdrew to a conclave of their own, where they elected one of their number, Robert of Geneva. He took the name Clement VII. By 1379, he was back in the palace of popes in Avignon, while Urban VI remained in Rome.

This was the beginning of the period of difficulty from 1378 to 1417 which Catholic scholars refer to as the "Western schism" or, "the great controversy of the antipopes" (also called "the second great schism" by some secular and Protestant historians), when parties within the Catholic Church were divided in their allegiances among the various claimants to the office of pope. The Council of Constance, in 1417, finally resolved the controversy.

For nearly forty years the Church had two papal curias and two sets of cardinals, each electing a new pope for Rome or Avignon when death created a vacancy. Each pope lobbied for support among kings and princes who played them off against each other, changing allegiance when according to political advantage.

In 1409 a council was convened at Pisa to resolve the issue. The council declared both existing popes to be schismatic (Gregory XII from Rome, Benedict XIII from Avignon) and appointed a new one, Alexander V. But the existing popes had not been persuaded to resign so the church had three popes.

Another council was convened in 1414 at Constance. In March 1415 the Pisan pope, John XXIII, fled from Constance in disguise; he was brought back a prisoner and deposed in May. The Roman pope, Gregory XII, resigned voluntarily in July.

The Avignon pope, Benedict XIII, refused to come to Constance. In spite of a personal visit from the emperor Sigismund, he would not consider resignation. The council finally deposed him in July 1417. Denying their right to do so, he withdrew to an impregnable castle on the coast of Spain. Here he continued to act as pope, creating

new cardinals and issuing decrees, until his death in 1423.

The council in Constance, having finally cleared the field of popes and antipopes, elected Pope Martin V as pope in November.

Early Modern and Modern Era (1417–present)

Renaissance Papacy (1417–1534)

Main article: Renaissance Papacy

From the election of Pope Martin V of the Council of Constance in 1417 to the Reformation, Western Christianity was largely free from schism as well as significant disputed papal claimants. Martin V returned the papacy to Rome in 1420. Although there were important divisions over the direction of the religion, these were resolved through the then-settled procedures of the papal conclave



Pope Leo X with his cousins Giulio de' Medici *(left, the future Pope Clement VII)* and Luigi de' Rossi *(right)*, whom he appointed as cardinal-nephews.

Unlike their European peers, popes were not hereditary monarchs, so they could only promote their family interests through nepotism.[11] The word *nepotism* originally referred specifically to the practice of creating cardinal-nephews, when it appeared in the English language about 1669.[12] According to Duffy, "the inevitable outcome of all of this was a creation of a wealthy cardinalatial class, with strong dynastic connections."[13] The College was dominated by cardinal-nephews —relatives of the popes that elevated them, crown-cardinals —representatives of the Catholic monarchies of Europe, and members of the powerful Italian families. The wealthy popes and cardinals increasingly patronized Renaissance art and architecture, (re)building the landmarks of Rome from the ground up.

The Papal States began to resemble a modern nation-state during this period, and the papacy took an increasingly active role in European wars and diplomacy. Pope Julius II become known as "the Warrior Pope" for his use of bloodshed to increase the territory and property of the papacy.[14] The popes of this period used the papal military not only to enrich themselves and their families, but also to enforce and expand upon the longstanding territorial and property claims of the papacy as an institution.[15] Although before the Western Schism the papacy had derived much of its revenue from the "vigorous exercise of its spiritual office," during this period the popes were financially dependent on the revenues from the Papal States themselves. With ambitious expenditures on war and construction projects, popes turned to new sources of revenue from the sale of indulgences and bureaucratic and ecclesiastical offices.[16] Pope Clement VII's diplomatic and military campaigns resulted in the Sack of Rome in 1527.[17]

Popes were more frequently called upon to arbitrate disputes between competing colonial powers than to resolve complicated theological disputes. Columbus' discovery in 1492 upset the unstable relations between the kingdoms of Portugal and Castile, whose jockeying for possession of colonial territories along the African coast had for many years been regulated by the papal bulls of 1455, 1456, and 1479. Alexander VI responded with three bulls, dated May 3 and 4, which were highly favorable to Castile; the third *Inter caetera* (1493), awarded Spain the sole right to colonize most of the New World.

According to Eamon Duffy, "the Renaissance papacy invokes images of a Hollywood spectacular, all decadence and drag. Contemporaries viewed Renaissance Rome as we now view Nixon's Washington, a city of expense-account whores and political graft, where everything and everyone had a price, where nothing and nobody could be trusted. The popes themselves seemed to set the tone."[13] For example, Leo X was said to have remarked: "Let us enjoy the papacy, since God has given it to us."[11] Several of these popes took mistresses and fathered children and engaged in intrigue or even murder.[13] Alexander VI had four acknowledged children: Cesare Borgia, Lucrezia Borgia, Gioffre Borgia, and Giovanni Borgia.

Reformation and Counter-Reformation (1517–1585)

Main article: Reformation Papacy

Baroque Papacy (1585–1689)

Main article: Baroque Papacy

During the Age of Revolution (1775–1848)

Main article: Popes during the Age of Revolution

Roman Question (1870–1929)

Main article: Roman Question

The provisional capital of Italy had been Florence since 1865. After defeating the papal forces in 1870, the Italian government moved to the banks of the Tiber a year later. Victor Emmanuel installed himself in the Quirinale Palace. Rome became once again, for the first time in thirteen centuries, the capital city of a united Italy. Rome was unusual among capital cities only in that it contained the power of the pope and a small parcel of land (Vatican City) beyond national control. This anomaly was not formally resolved until the Lateran pacts of 1929.



The breach of the Porto Pio during the Capture of Rome

The last eight years of his long pontificate — the longest in Church history — Pope Pius IX spent as prisoner of the Vatican. Catholics were forbidden to vote or being voted in national elections. However, they were permitted to participate in local elections, where they achieved successes.[18] Pius himself was active, during those years, by creating new diocesan seats and appointing bishops to numerous dioceses, which had been unoccupied for years. Asked if he wanted his successor to follow his Italian policies, the old pontiff replied:

> My successor may be inspired by my love to the Church and my wish to do the right thing. Everything changed around me. My system and my policies had their time, I am too old to change direction. This will be the task of my successor.[19]

Pope Leo XIII, considered a great diplomat, managed to improve relations with Russia, Prussia, German France, England and other countries. However, in light of a hostile anti-Catholic climate in Italy, he continued the policies of Pius IX towards Italy, without major modifications.[20] He had to defend the freedom of the Church against Italian persecutions and attacks in the area of education, expropriation and violation of Catholic Churches, legal measures against the Church and brutal attacks, culminating in anticlerical groups attempting to

throw the body of the deceased Pope Pius IX into the Tiber river on July 13, 1881.[21] The pope even considered moving the papacy to Trieste or Salzburg, two cities under Austrian control, an idea which the Austrian monarch Franz Josef I gently rejected.[22]

His encyclicals changed Church positions on relations with temporal authorities, and, in the 1891 encyclical Rerum Novarum addressed for the first time social inequality and social justice issues with Papal authority. He was greatly influenced by Wilhelm Emmanuel von Ketteler, a German bishop who openly propagated siding with the suffering working classes[23] Since Leo XIII, Papal teachings expand on the right and obligation of workers and the limitations of private property: Pope Pius XI Quadragesimo Anno, the Social teachings of Pope Pius XII on a huge range of social issues, John XXIII Mater et Magistra in 1961, Pope Paul VI, the encyclical Populorum Progressio on World development issues, and Pope John Paul II, Centesimus Annus, commemorating the 100th anniversary of Rerum Novarum of Pope Leo XIII.

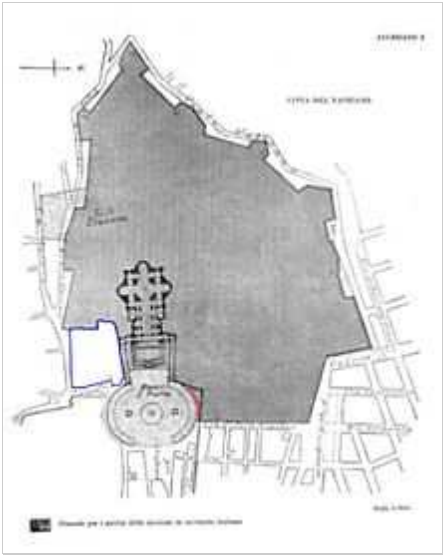
The eclipse of papal temporal power during the 19th century was accompanied by a recovery of papal prestige. The monarchist reaction in the wake of the French Revolution and the later emergence of constitutional governments served alike, though in different ways, to sponsor that development. The reinstated monarchs of Catholic Europe saw in the papacy a conservative ally rather than a jurisdictional rival. Later, when the institution of constitutional governments broke the ties binding the clergy to the policies of royal regimes, Catholics were freed to respond to the renewed spiritual authority of the pope.

The popes of the 19th and 20th centuries exercised their spiritual authority with increasing vigor and in every aspect of religious life. By the crucial pontificate of Pope Pius IX (1846–1878), for example, papal control over worldwide Catholic missionary activity was firmly established for the first time in history.

From the creation of Vatican City (1929)

Further information: Vatican City

The pontificate of Pope Pius XI was marked by great diplomatic activity and the issuance of many important papers, often in the form of encyclicals. In diplomatic affairs, Pius was aided at first by Pietro Gasparri and after 1930 by Eugenio Pacelli (who succeeded him as Pope Pius XII). Cardinal Gasparri's masterpiece was the Lateran Treaty (1929), negotiated for the Vatican by Francesco Pacelli. Nevertheless, the Fascist government and the pope were in open disagreement over the restriction of youth activities; this culminated in a strong papal letter (Non abbiamo bisogno, 1931), arguing the impossibility of being at once a Fascist and a Catholic. Relations between Mussolini and the Holy See were cool ever after.



A map of Vatican City, as established by the Lateran Treaty (1929)

Negotiations for the settlement of the Roman Question began in 1926 between the government of Italy and the Holy See, and in 1929 they culminated in the agreements of the three Lateran Pacts, signed for King Victor Emmanuel III of Italy by Prime Minister Benito Mussolini and for Pope Pius XI by Cardinal Secretary of State Pietro Gasparri in the Lateran Palace (hence the name by which they are known).

The Lateran treaty included a political treaty, which created the state of the Vatican City and guaranteed full and independent sovereignty to the Holy See. The pope was pledged to perpetual neutrality in international relations and to abstention from mediation in a controversy unless specifically requested by all parties. The concordat

established Catholicism as the religion of Italy. And the financial agreement was accepted as settlement of all the claims of the Holy See against Italy arising from the loss of temporal power in 1870.

The sum thereby given to the Holy See was actually less than Italy declared it would pay under the terms of the Law of Guarantees of 1871, by which the Italian government guaranteed to Pope Pius IX and his successors the use of, but not sovereignty over, the Vatican and Lateran Palaces and a yearly income of 3,250,000 lire as indemnity for the loss of sovereignty and territory. The Holy See, on the grounds of the need for clearly manifested independence from any political power in its exercise of spiritual jurisdiction, refused to accept this settlement, and the popes thereafter considered themselves prisoners in the Vatican, a small, limited area inside Rome.

The *Reichskonkordat*, signed on July 20, 1933, between Germany and the Holy See remains the most important and controversial of Pacelli's concordats. A national concordat with Germany was one of Pacelli's main objectives as secretary of state. As nuncio during the 1920s, he had made unsuccessful attempts to obtain German agreement for such a treaty, and between 1930 and 1933 he attempted to initiate negotiations with representatives of successive German governments, but the opposition of Protestant and Socialist parties, the instability of national governments and the care of the individual states to guard their autonomy thwarted this aim. In particular, the questions of denominational schools and pastoral work in the armed forces prevented any agreement on the national level, despite talks in the winter of 1932.[24][25]

Adolf Hitler was appointed Chancellor on 30 January 1933 and sought to gain international respectability and to remove internal opposition by representatives of the Church and the Catholic Centre Party. He sent his vice chancellor Franz von Papen, a Catholic nobleman and former member of the Centre Party, to Rome to offer negotiations about a Reichskonkordat.[26] On behalf of Cardinal Pacelli, his long-time associate Prelate Ludwig Kaas, the out-going chairman of the Centre Party, negotiated first drafts of the terms with Papen.[27] The concordat was finally signed, by Pacelli for the Vatican and von Papen for Germany, on 20 July and ratified on September 10, 1933.[28]

Between 1933 to 1939, Pacelli issued 55 protests of violations of the *Reichskonkordat*. Most notably, early in 1937, Pacelli asked several German cardinals, including Cardinal Michael von Faulhaber to help him write a protest of Nazi violations of the *Reichskonkordat*; this was to become Pius XI's encyclical *Mit Brennender Sorge*. The encyclical, condemning the view that "exalts race, or the people, or the State, or a particular form of State ... above their standard value and divinizes them to an idolatrous level", was written in German instead of Latin and read in German churches on Palm Sunday 1937.[29]

World War II (1939-1945)

Main articles: Vatican City during World War II and Pope Pius XII and the Holocaust

When Germany invaded Poland on September 1, 1939, the Vatican declared neutrality to avoid being drawn into the conflict and also to avoid occupation by the Italian military. In 1944, the German Army occupied Rome. Adolf Hitler proclaimed that he would respect Vatican neutrality. However, several incidents, such as giving aid to downed Allied airmen, nearly caused Nazi Germany to invade the Vatican. Rome was liberated by the Allies after several months of occupation.

The Church policies after World War II of Pope Pius XII focused on material aid to war-torn Europe with its 15 million displaced persons and refugees, an internal internationalization of the Roman Catholic Church, and the development of its worldwide diplomatic relations. His encyclicals, *Evangelii Praecones*[30] increased the local decision-making of Catholic missions, many of which became independent dioceses. Pius XII demanded

recognition of local cultures as fully equal to European culture.[31][32] He internationalized the College of Cardinals by eliminating the 1000 year old Italian majority and appointed cardinals from Asia, South America and Australia. In Western Africa[33] Southern Africa[34] British Eastern Africa, Finland, Burma and French Africa Pope Pius established independent dioceses in 1955.

While after years of rebuilding the Church thrived in the West and most of the developing world, it faced most serious persecutions in the East. Sixty million Catholics came under Soviet dominated regimes in 1945, with tens of thousands of priests and religious killed, and millions deported into Soviet and Chinese Gulags. The communist regimes in Albania, Bulgaria, Romania and China practically eradicated the Roman Catholic Church in their countries[35]

From Vatican II (1962-1965)

Further information: Second Vatican Council



The opening of the Second Session of the Second Vatican Council

The continuing strength of the forces within the church favoring theological innovation and energetic reform became unmistakably evident at the Second Vatican Council, convened by Pope John XXIII (1958–1963), and found expression especially in its decrees on ecumenism, religious liberty, the liturgy, and the nature of the church. The ambivalence of some of those decrees, however, and the disciplinary turmoil and doctrinal dissension following the ending of the council, brought about new challenges to papal authority.

On October 11, 1962, Pope John XXIII opened the Second Ecumenical Vatican Council. The 21st ecumenical council of the Catholic Church emphasized the universal call to holiness and brought many changes in practices, including an increased emphasis on ecumenism; fewer rules on penances, fasting and other devotional practices; and initiating a revision of the services, which were to be slightly simplified and made supposedly more accessible by allowing the use of native languages instead of Latin. Opposition to changes inspired by the Council gave rise to the movement of Traditionalist Catholics who disagree with changing the old forms of worship.

On December 7, 1965, a Joint Catholic-Orthodox Declaration of His Holiness Pope Paul VI and the Ecumenical Patriarch Athenagoras I lifted the mutual excommunication against Catholic and Orthodox which had been in force since the Great Schism of 1054.

The bishops agreed that the pope exercises supreme authority over the church, but defined "collegiality", meaning that all bishops share in this authority. Local bishops have equal authority as successors of the Apostles and as members of a larger organization, the Church founded by Jesus Christ and entrusted to the apostles. The pope serves as a symbol of unity and has additional authority to ensure the continuation of that unity.

During the Second Vatican Council, Catholic bishops drew back a bit from statements which might anger Christians of other faiths.[36] Cardinal Augustin Bea, the President of the Christian Unity Secretariat had always the full support of Pope Paul VI in his attempts to ensure that the Council language is friendly and open to the sensitivities of Protestant and Orthodox Churches, whom he had invited to all sessions at the request of Pope John XXIII. Bea also was strongly involved in the passage of Nostra Aetate, which regulates relation of the Church with the Jewish faith and members of other religions[37]

The establishment of national conferences of bishops tended to erode papal authority to some degree, and Pope Paul VI's encyclical Humanae Vitae (1968), reaffirming the prohibition of artificial birth control, was met with

both evasion and defiance in the USA and Western Europe but warmly welcomed in South America, Eastern and Southern Europe.[38]

Pope Paul VI (1963–1978), however, continued the ecumenical efforts of Pope John XXIII in his contacts with Protestant and Orthodox churches. He also continued John XXIII's attempts to make discreet moves in the direction of pragmatic accommodation with the Communist regimes of eastern Europe, a policy that were possible in the eras of Krushchev and Brezhnev. Paul VI also reorganized the curia and spoke strongly for peace and social justice.

Pope Paul VI faced criticism throughout his papacy from both traditionalists and liberals for steering a middle course during Vatican Two and in the course of the implementation of its reforms thereafter.[39] His passion for peace during the Vietnam War was not understood by all. The urgent task of overcoming World poverty and start real development resulted partly in benign neglect of papal teachings by the influential and the rich. On basic Church teachings, this pope was unwavering. On the tenth anniversary of Humanae Vitae, he strongly reconfirmed his teachings.[40] In his style and methodology, he was a disciple of Pius XII, whom he deeply revered.[41] He suffered under the attacks of his predecessor for his alleged silences, knowing from personal association with the late pope the real concerns and compassion of Pius XII.[41] Pope Paul is not credited to have had the encyclopaedic culture of Pius XII, nor his phenomenal memory, his amazing gift for languages, his brilliant style in writing,[42] nor did he have the Charisma and outpouring love, sense of humor and human warmth of John XXIII. *He took on himself the unfinished reform work of these two popes, bringing them diligently with great humility and common sense and without much fanfare to conclusion.*[40] In doing so, Paul VI saw himself following in the footsteps of the Apostle Paul, torn to several directions as *Saint Paul, who always said, I am attracted to two sides at once, because the Cross always divides.*[43]

He became the first pope to visit all five continents.[44] Paul VI systematically continued and completed the efforts of his predecessors, to turn the Euro-centric Church into a Church for the whole world, by integrating the bishops from all continents in its government and in the Synods which he convened. His August 6, 1967 Motu Proprio *Pro Comperto Sane* opened the Roman Curia to the bishops of the world. Until then, only Cardinals could be leading members of the Curia.[44]

An inner joy seems to have been a characteristic of Paul VI. His confessor, the Jesuit Paolo Dezza arrived at the Vatican every Friday evening at seven p.m. to hear confession of Paul VI. The only words he ever spoke about his long service to Paul VI during his pontificate were, *that this pope is a man of great joy.*[45] After the death of Pope Paul VI, Dezza was more outspoken, saying that "if Paul VI was not a saint, when he was elected pope, he became one during his pontificate. I was able to witness not only with what energy and dedication he toiled for Christ and the Church but also and above all, how much he suffered for Christ and the Church. I always admired not only his deep inner resignation but also his constant abandonment to divine providence.".[46] It is this character trait, which led to the opening of the process of beatification and canonization for Paul VI.

With the accession of Pope John Paul II after the mysterious death of John Paul I (who only survived as pope for 33 days), the church had, for the first time since Pope Adrian VI in the 16th century, a non-Italian pope. John Paul II has been credited with helping to bring down communism in eastern Europe by sparking what amounted to a peaceful revolution in his Polish homeland. Lech Wałęsa, one of the several founders of the Solidarity worker movement that ultimately toppled communism, credited John Paul with giving Poles the courage to rise up.[47] The last Soviet premier Mikhail Gorbachev acknowledged



Pope John Paul II (1978-2005)

publicly the role of John Paul II in the fall of Communism.[48] The pope himself stated after the fall of Communism that "the claim to build a world without God has been shown to be an illusion" (Prague, April 21, 1990).

But this world without God exists in Capitalism too. Therefore, as did his predecessors, John Paul repeated the content of Christianity, its religious and moral message, its defense of the human person, and warned against the dangers of capitalism. "Unfortunately, not everything the West proposes as a theoretical vision or as a concrete lifestyle reflects Gospel values."

The long pontificate of John Paul is credited with re-creating a sense of stability and even identity to the Catholic Church after years of questioning and searching.[49] His teaching was firm and unwavering on issues which seemed to be in doubt under his predecessor including the ordination of women, liberation theology and priestly celibacy.[50] He virtually stopped the liberal laicisation of problem priests policy of Pope Paul VI,[51] which inadvertently may have contributed to problems in the USA.[52] His authoritative style was reminiscent of Pope Pius XII, whose teaching he repeated in his own words, such as the identity of the Catholic Church with the Body of Christ and his condemnations of capitalism "viruses": secularism, indifferentism, hedonistic consumerism, practical materialism, and also formal atheism.[53]

As always after a long pontificate, a new page was opened in the history of the Church with the election of a new pope. Pope Benedict XVI was elected in 2005. In his inaugural homily, the new Pontiff explained his view of a relation with Christ:

> “ Are we not perhaps all afraid in some way? If we let Christ enter fully into our lives, if we open ourselves totally to Him, are we not afraid that He might take something away from us?... No! If we let Christ into our lives, we lose nothing, nothing, absolutely nothing of what makes life free, beautiful and great. No! Only in this friendship do we experience beauty and liberation....When we give ourselves to Him, we receive a hundredfold in return. Yes, open, open wide the doors to Christ – and you will find true life.[54] ”

See also

- History of the Catholic Church
- List of popes

Notes

1. ^ *Catechism of the Catholic Church* (http://www.vatican.va/archive/catechism/p123a9p4.htm) , Rome: Vatican Library, pp. 880–4, http://www.vatican.va/archive/catechism/p123a9p4.htm, retrieved 2008-08-02.
2. ^ "St. Peter", *The Catholic Encyclopedia*.
3. ^ Wilken, p. 281, "Some (Christian communities) had been founded by Peter, the disciple Jesus designated as the founder of his church. …Once the position was institutionalized, historians looked back and recognized Peter as the first pope of the Christian church in Rome".
4. ^ "Lumen Gentium" (http://www.vatican.va/archive/hist_councils/ii_vatican_council/documents/vat-ii_const_19641121_lumen-gentium_en.html) , *Second Vatican Council*, p. 22, http://www.vatican.va/archive/hist_councils/ii_vatican_council/documents/vat-ii_const_19641121_lumen-gentium_en.html.
5. ^ Pope John Paul II (7 October 1992), *Talk* (http://www.vatican.va/holy_father/john_paul_ii/audiences/alpha/data/aud19921007en.html) , http://www.vatican.va/holy_father/john_paul_ii

Pope Benedict XVI

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Benedict XVI (Latin: *Benedictus PP. XVI*; Italian: *Benedetto XVI*; German: *Benedikt XVI.*; born **Joseph Aloisius Ratzinger** on 16 April 1927) is the 265th and current Pope,[1] by virtue of his office of Bishop of Rome, the Sovereign of the Vatican City State and the leader of the Catholic Church, which includes the Latin Church and the twenty-two sui iuris Eastern Catholic Churches. Often regarded as the present *Successor to Saint Peter*, Benedict XVI was elected on 19 April 2005 in a papal conclave, celebrated his Papal Inauguration Mass on 24 April 2005, and took possession of his cathedral, the Archbasilica of St. John Lateran, on 7 May 2005. A native of Bavaria, Pope Benedict XVI has both German and Vatican citizenship.

After a long career as an academic, serving as a professor of theology at various German universities—the last being the University of Regensburg—he was appointed Archbishop of Munich and Freising and cardinal by Pope Paul VI in 1977. In 1981, he settled in Rome when he became Prefect of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith, one of the most important dicasteries of the Roman Curia. From 2002 until his election as Pope, he was also Dean of the College of Cardinals, and as such the *primus inter pares* among the cardinals. Prior to becoming Pope, he was "a major figure on the Vatican stage for a quarter of a century" as "one of the most respected, influential and controversial members of the College of Cardinals"; he had an influence "second to none when it came to setting church priorities and directions" as one of Pope John Paul II's closest confidants.[2]

Like his predecessor, Benedict XVI is theologically conservative and his teaching and prolific[3] writings defend traditional Catholic doctrine and values. During his papacy, Benedict XVI has advocated a return to fundamental Christian values to counter the increased secularisation of many developed countries. He views relativism's denial of objective truth, and the denial of moral truths in particular, as the central problem of the 21st century. He teaches the importance of both the Catholic Church and an understanding of God's redemptive love. He has reaffirmed the "importance of prayer in the face of the activism and the growing secularism of many Christians engaged in charitable work."[4] Pope Benedict has also revived a number of traditions including elevating the Tridentine Mass to a more prominent position.[5]

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Benedict XVI



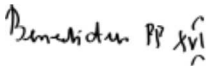
Pope Benedict XVI in St. Peter's Square, Rome. 2010.

Papacy began	19 April 2005
Predecessor	John Paul II
Orders	
Ordination	29 June 1951 by Michael von Faulhaber
Consecration	28 May 1977 by Josef Stangl
Created Cardinal	27 June 1977
Personal details	
Birth name	Joseph Aloisius Ratzinger
Born	16 April 1927 Marktl, Bavaria, Germany
Nationality	German (along with Vatican citizenship)
Denomination	Roman Catholic
Parents	Joseph Ratzinger, Sr., Maria Ratzinger
Previous post	Archbishop of Munich und Freising, Germany *(1977–1982)* Cardinal-Priest of Santa Maria Consolatrice al Tiburtino *(1977–1993)* President of the International Theological Commission *(1981–2005)* Prefect of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith

- 4.5.6 Motu proprio on Tridentine Mass
- 4.5.7 Unicity and Salvific Universality of the Church
- 4.5.8 Consumerism
- 4.6 Ecumenical efforts
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(1981–2005)
President of the Pontifical Biblical Commission *(1981–2005)*
Cardinal-Bishop of Velletri-Segni *(1993–2005)*
Dean of the College of Cardinals *(2002–2005)*
Cardinal-Bishop of Ostia *(2002–2005)*

Motto *cooperatores veritatis*

Signature 

Coat of arms 

Other Popes named Benedict

Part of a series on the

Catholic Church



Organisation

Pope – **Benedict XVI**

College of Cardinals – Holy See

Ecumenical Councils

Episcopal polity · Latin Church

Eastern Catholic Churches

Background

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Four Marks of the Church

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Crucifixion & Resurrection of Jesus

Ascension · Assumption of Mary

Theology

Trinity (Father, Son, Holy Spirit)

Theology · Apologetics

Divine Grace · Sacraments

Purgatory · Salvation

Original sin · Saints · Dogma

Virgin Mary · Mariology

Immaculate Conception of Mary

Liturgy and Worship

Overview



Pope Benedict XVI at a private audience on 20 January 2006

Benedict XVI was elected Pope at the age of 78. He is the oldest person to have been elected Pope since Pope Clement XII (1730–40). He had served longer as a cardinal than any Pope since Benedict XIII (1724–30). He is the ninth German Pope, the eighth having been the Dutch-German Pope Adrian VI (1522–23) from Utrecht. The last Pope named Benedict was Benedict XV, an Italian who reigned from 1914 to 1922, during World War I (1914–18).

Born in 1927 in Marktl, Bavaria, Germany, Ratzinger had a distinguished career as a university theologian before being appointed Archbishop of Munich and Freising by Pope Paul VI (1963–78). Shortly afterwards, he was made a cardinal in the consistory of 27 June 1977. He was appointed Prefect of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith by Pope John Paul II in 1981 and was also assigned the honorific title of the cardinal bishop of Velletri-Segni on 5 April 1993. In 1998, he was elected sub-dean of the College of Cardinals. On 30

November 2002, he was elected dean, taking, as is customary, the title of cardinal bishop of the suburbicarian diocese of Ostia. He was the first Dean of the College elected Pope since Paul IV (1555–59) and the first cardinal bishop elected Pope since Pius VIII (1829–30).

Even before becoming Pope, Ratzinger was one of the most influential men in the Roman Curia, and was a close associate of John Paul II. As Dean of the College of Cardinals, he presided over the funeral of John Paul II and over the Mass immediately preceding the 2005 conclave in which he was elected. During the service, he called on the assembled cardinals to hold fast to the doctrine of the faith. He was the public face of the church in the *sede vacante* period, although, technically, he ranked below the *Camerlengo* in administrative authority during that time. Like his predecessor, Benedict XVI affirms traditional Catholic doctrine.

In addition to his native German, Benedict speaks French and Italian fluently. He also has a very good command of Latin and speaks English and Spanish adequately. Furthermore, he has some knowledge of Portuguese. He can read Ancient Greek and biblical Hebrew.[6] He has stated that his first foreign language is French. He is a member of several scientific academies, such as the French *Académie des sciences morales et politiques*. He plays the piano and has a preference for Mozart and Bach.[7]

Roman Catholic Liturgy · Prayer
Eucharist · Liturgy of the Hours
Liturgical Year · Biblical Canon
Rites
Roman · Armenian · Alexandrian
Byzantine · Antiochian · West Syrian · East Syrian
Controversies
Science · Evolution · Criticism
Sex & gender · Homosexuality
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Prayer · Music · Art
Catholicism portal

Early life: 1927–51

Main article: Early life of Pope Benedict XVI



Marktl am Inn, the house where Ratzinger was born. The building still stands today.

Joseph Aloisius Ratzinger was born on 16 April, Holy Saturday, 1927, at Schulstraße 11, at 8:30 in the morning in his parents' home in Marktl, Bavaria, Germany. He was baptised the same day. He was the third and youngest child of Joseph Ratzinger, Sr., a police officer, and Maria Ratzinger (née Peintner). His mother's family was originally from South Tyrol (now in Italy).[*citation needed*] Pope Benedict XVI's brother, Georg Ratzinger, a priest and former director of the Regensburger Domspatzen choir, is still alive. His sister, Maria Ratzinger, who never married, managed Cardinal Ratzinger's household until her death in 1991. Their grand-uncle was the German politician Georg Ratzinger.

At the age of five, Ratzinger was in a group of children who welcomed the visiting Cardinal Archbishop of Munich with flowers. Struck by the cardinal's distinctive garb, he later announced the very same day that he wanted to be a cardinal.

Ratzinger attended the elementary school in Aschau am Inn, which was renamed in his honour in 2009.[8]

Following his 14th birthday in 1941, Ratzinger was conscripted into the Hitler Youth—as membership was required by law for all 14-year-old German boys after December 1939[9]—but was an unenthusiastic member who refused to attend meetings, according to his brother.[10] In 1941, one of Ratzinger's cousins, a 14-year-old boy with Down syndrome, was taken away by the Nazi regime and killed during the Action T4 campaign of Nazi eugenics.[11] In 1943, while still in seminary, he was drafted into the German anti-aircraft corps as Luftwaffenhelfer (air force child soldier).[10] Ratzinger then trained in the German infantry.[12] As the Allied front drew closer to his post in 1945, he deserted back to his family's home in Traunstein after his unit had ceased to exist, just as American troops established their headquarters in the Ratzinger household.[13] As a German soldier, he was put in a POW camp but was released a few months later at the end of the war in the summer of 1945.[13] He reentered the seminary, along with his brother Georg, in November of that year.

Thus, following repatriation in 1945, the two brothers entered Saint Michael Seminary in Traunstein, later studying at the Ducal Georgianum (*Herzogliches Georgianum*) of the Ludwig-Maximilian University in Munich. They were both ordained in Freising on 29 June 1951 by Cardinal Michael von Faulhaber of Munich. Ratzinger recalled:

> ...at the moment the elderly Archbishop laid his hands on me, a little bird – perhaps a lark – flew up from the altar in the high cathedral and trilled a little joyful song.[14]

Ratzinger's 1953 dissertation was on St. Augustine and was titled *The People and the House of God in Augustine's Doctrine of the Church*. His *Habilitation* (which qualified him for a professorship) was on Bonaventure. It was completed in 1957 and he became a professor of Freising College in 1958.

Pre-papal career

Academic career: 1951–77

Ratzinger became a professor at the University of Bonn in 1959; his inaugural lecture was on "The God of Faith and the God of Philosophy". In 1963, he moved to the University of Münster.

During this period, Ratzinger participated in the Second Vatican Council (1962–65). Ratzinger served as a *peritus* (theological consultant) to Cardinal Frings of Cologne. He was viewed during the time of the Council as a reformer, cooperating with theologians like Hans Küng and Edward Schillebeeckx. Ratzinger became an admirer of Karl Rahner, a well-known academic theologian of the Nouvelle Théologie and a proponent of church reform.

In 1966, Ratzinger was appointed to a chair in dogmatic theology at the University of Tübingen, where he was a colleague of Hans Küng. In his 1968 book *Introduction to Christianity*, he wrote that the pope has a duty to hear differing voices within the Church before making a decision, and he downplayed the centrality of the papacy. During this time, he distanced himself from the atmosphere of Tübingen and the Marxist leanings of the student movement of the 1960s that quickly radicalised, in the years 1967 and 1968, culminating in a series of disturbances and riots in April and May 1968. Ratzinger came increasingly to see these and associated developments (such as decreasing respect for authority among his students) as connected to a departure from traditional Catholic teachings.[15] Despite his reformist bent, his views increasingly came to contrast with the liberal ideas gaining currency in theological circles.[16]

Some voices, among them Hans Küng, deem this a turn towards conservatism, while Ratzinger himself said in a 1993 interview, "I see no break in my views as a theologian [over the years]".[17] Ratzinger has continued to defend the work of the Second Vatican Council, including *Nostra Aetate*, the document on respect of other religions, ecumenism and the declaration of the right to freedom of religion. Later, as the Prefect for the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith, Ratzinger most clearly spelled out the Catholic Church's position on other religions in the 2000 document *Dominus Iesus* which also talks about the Roman Catholic way to engage in "ecumenical dialogue".

During his years at Tübingen University, Ratzinger published articles in the reformist theological journal *Concilium*, though he increasingly chose less reformist themes than other contributors to the magazine such as Hans Küng and Edward Schillebeeckx.

In 1969, he returned to Bavaria, to the University of Regensburg. He founded the theological journal *Communio*, with Hans Urs von Balthasar, Henri de Lubac, Walter Kasper and others, in 1972. *Communio*, now published in seventeen languages, including German, English and Spanish, has become a prominent journal of contemporary Catholic theological thought. Until his election as Pope, he remained one of the journal's most prolific contributors. In 1976, he suggested that the Augsburg Confession might possibly be recognised as a Catholic statement of faith.[18][19]

Archbishop of Munich and Freising: 1977–82

On 24 March 1977, Ratzinger was appointed Archbishop of Munich and Freising. He took as his episcopal motto *Cooperatores Veritatis* (Co-workers of the Truth) from 3 John 8, a choice he comments upon in his autobiographical work, *Milestones*. In the consistory of the following 27 June, he was named Cardinal-Priest of *Santa Maria Consolatrice al Tiburtino* by Pope Paul VI. By the time of the 2005 Conclave, he was one of only 14 remaining cardinals appointed by Paul VI, and one of only three of those under the age of 80. Of these, only he and William Wakefield Baum took part in the conclave.[20]



Palais Holnstein in Munich, the residence of Benedict as Archbishop of Munich and Freising

Prefect of the Sacred Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith: 1981–2005

Main article: Joseph Ratzinger as Prefect of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith

On 25 November 1981, Pope John Paul II named Ratzinger as the Prefect of the Sacred Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith, formerly known as the "Sacred Congregaton of the Holy Office", the historical Inquisition. Consequently, he resigned his post at Munich in early 1982. He was promoted within the College of Cardinals to become Cardinal Bishop of Velletri-Segni in 1993 and was made the college's vice-dean in 1998 and dean in 2002.

Ratzinger defended and reaffirmed Catholic doctrine, including teaching on topics such as birth control, homosexuality, and inter-religious dialogue. The theologian Leonardo Boff, for example, was suspended, while others were censured. Other issues also prompted condemnations or revocations of rights to teach: for instance, some posthumous writings of Jesuit priest Anthony de Mello were the subject of a "notification". Ratzinger and the congregation viewed many of them, particularly the later works, as having an element of religious indifferentism (*i.e.*, Christ was "one master alongside others"). In particular, *Dominus Iesus*, published by the congregation in the jubilee year 2000, reaffirmed many recently "unpopular" ideas, including the Catholic Church's position that "Salvation is found in no one else, for there is no other name under heaven given to men by which we must be saved." The document angered many Protestant churches by claiming that they are not actually churches, but "ecclesial communities".[21]

Ratzinger's 2001 letter *De delictis gravioribus* clarified the confidentiality of internal church investigations, as defined in the 1962 document

Crimen Sollicitationis, into accusations made against priests of certain crimes, including sexual abuse. This became a target of controversy during the sex abuse scandal.[22] While bishops hold the secrecy pertained only internally, and did not preclude investigation by civil law enforcement, the letter was often seen as promoting a coverup.[23] Later, as Pope, he was accused in a lawsuit of conspiring to cover up the molestation of three boys in Texas, but sought and obtained diplomatic immunity from prosecution.[24]

On 12 March 1983, Ratzinger, as prefect, notified the lay faithful and the clergy that archbishop Pierre Martin Ngo Dinh Thuc had incurred excommunication *latae sententiae* for illicit episcopal consecrations without the apostolic mandate.

In 1997, when he turned 70, Ratzinger asked Pope John Paul II for permission to leave the Congregation of the Doctrine of Faith and to become an archivist in the Vatican Secret Archives and a librarian in the Vatican Library, but the pope refused such permission.[25][26]

Papacy



Pope Benedict XVI
in St. Peter's Square, Rome

Election to the papacy

Main article: Papal conclave, 2005

Prediction

On 2 January 2005, *Time* magazine quoted unnamed Vatican sources as saying that Ratzinger was a front runner to succeed John Paul II should the pope die or become too ill to continue as pope. On the death of John Paul II, the *Financial Times* gave the odds of Ratzinger becoming pope as 7–1, the lead position, but close to his rivals on the liberal wing of the church. In April 2005, before his election as pope, he was identified as one of the 100 most influential people in the world by *Time*. While Prefect of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith, Ratzinger repeatedly stated he would like to retire to his house in the Bavarian village of Pentling near Regensburg and dedicate himself to writing books.

Though Ratzinger was increasingly considered the front runner by much of the international media, others maintained that his election was far from certain, since very few papal predictions in modern history had come true. The elections of both John Paul II and his predecessor, John Paul I had been rather unexpected. Despite being the favorite (or perhaps because he was the favorite), it was a surprise to many that he was actually elected, as traditionally the frontrunners are passed over by the conclave for someone else.

Election

On 19 April 2005, Ratzinger was elected as the successor to Pope John Paul II on the second day of the papal conclave after four ballots. Ratzinger had hoped to retire peacefully and said that "At a certain point, I prayed to God 'please don't do this to me'...Evidently, this time He didn't listen to me."[27] Coincidentally, 19 April is the feast of St. Leo IX, the most important German pope of the Middle Ages, known for instituting major reforms during his pontificate.

Before his first appearance at the balcony of Saint Peter's Basilica after becoming pope, he was announced by Jorge Medina Estévez, Cardinal Protodeacon of the Holy Roman Church. Cardinal Medina Estévez first addressed the massive crowd as "dear(est) brothers and sisters" in Italian, Spanish, French, German and English, with each language receiving cheers from the international crowd, before continuing with the traditional *Habemus Papam* announcement in Latin.

At the balcony, Benedict's first words to the crowd, given in Italian before he gave the traditional *Urbi et Orbi* blessing in Latin, were:

> “ Dear brothers and sisters, after the great Pope John Paul II, the Cardinals have elected me, a simple, humble labourer in the vineyard of the Lord. The fact that the Lord knows how to work and to act even with insufficient instruments comforts me, and above all I entrust myself to your prayers. In the joy of the Risen Lord, confident of his unfailing help, let us move forward. The Lord will help us, and Mary, His Most Holy Mother, will be on our side. Thank you.[28] ”

On 24 April, he celebrated the Papal Inauguration Mass in St. Peter's Square, during which he was invested with the Pallium and the Ring of the Fisherman. Then, on 7 May, he took possession of his cathedral church, the Archbasilica of St. John Lateran.

Choice of name

Ratzinger chose the pontifical name Benedict, which comes from the Latin word meaning "the blessed", in honour of both Pope Benedict XV and Saint Benedict of Nursia. Pope Benedict XV was Pope during the First World War, during which time he passionately pursued peace between the warring nations. St. Benedict of Nursia was the founder of the Benedictine monasteries (most monasteries of the Middle Ages

were of the Benedictine order) and the author of the *Rule of Saint Benedict*, which is still the most influential writing regarding the monastic life of Western Christianity.

The pope explained his choice of name during his first General Audience in St. Peter's Square, on 27 April 2005:

> “ Filled with sentiments of awe and thanksgiving, I wish to speak of why I chose the name Benedict. Firstly, I remember Pope Benedict XV, that courageous prophet of peace, who guided the Church through turbulent times of war. In his footsteps I place my ministry in the service of reconciliation and harmony between peoples. Additionally, I recall Saint Benedict of Nursia, co-patron of Europe, whose life evokes the Christian roots of Europe. I ask him to help us all to hold firm to the centrality of Christ in our Christian life: May Christ always take first place in our thoughts and actions![29] ”

Tone of papacy

During his inaugural Mass, the previous custom of every cardinal submitting to the Pope was replaced by having twelve people, including cardinals, clergy, religious, a married couple and their child, and newly confirmed people, greet him. (The cardinals had formally sworn their obedience upon his election.) He began using an open-topped papal car, saying that he wanted to be closer to the people. Pope Benedict has continued the tradition of his predecessor John Paul II and baptises several infants in the Sistine Chapel at the beginning of each year, in his pastoral role as Bishop of Rome.


Pope Benedict XVI's first trip in the Popemobile

Beatifications

On 9 May 2005, Benedict XVI began the beatification process for his predecessor, Pope John Paul II. Normally, five years must pass after a person's death before the beatification process can begin. However, in an audience with Pope Benedict, Camillo Ruini, Vicar General of the Diocese of Rome and the official responsible for promoting the cause for canonization of any person who dies within that diocese, cited "exceptional circumstances" which suggested that the waiting period could be waived. This happened before, when Pope Paul VI waived the five year rule and announced beatification processes for his predecessors, Pope Pius XII and Pope John XXIII. Benedict XVI followed this precedent when he waived the five year rule for John Paul II.[30] The decision was announced on 13 May 2005, the Feast of Our Lady of Fátima and the 24th anniversary of the attempt on John Paul II's life.[31] John Paul II often credited Our Lady of Fátima for preserving him on that day. Cardinal Ruini inaugurated the diocesan phase of the cause for beatification in the Lateran Basilica on 28 June 2005.[32]

The first beatification under the new Pope was celebrated on 14 May 2005, by José Cardinal Saraiva Martins, Cardinal Prefect of the Congregation for the Causes of Saints. The new Blesseds were Mother Marianne Cope and Mother Ascensión Nicol Goñi. Cardinal Clemens August Graf von Galen was beatified on 9 October 2005. Mariano de la Mata was beatified in November 2006 and Rosa Eluvathingal was beatified 3 December of that year, and Fr. Basil Moreau was beatified September 2007.[33] In October 2008 the following beatifications took place: Celestine of the Mother of God, Giuseppina Nicoli, Hendrina Stenmanns, Maria Rosa Flesch, Marta Anna Wiecka, Michael Sopocko, Petrus Kibe Kasui and 187 Companions, Susana Paz-Castillo Ramirez, Maria Isbael Salvat Romero, and John Henry Newman.

Unlike his predecessor, Benedict XVI delegated the beatification liturgical service to a Cardinal. On 29 September 2005, the Congregation for the Causes of Saints issued a communiqué announcing that henceforth beatifications would be celebrated by a representative of the Pope, usually the Prefect of that Congregation.[34]

Canonizations

Pope Benedict XVI celebrated his first canonizations on 23 October 2005 in St. Peter's Square when he canonized Josef Bilczewski, Alberto Hurtado SJ, Zygmunt Gorazdowski, Gaetano Catanoso, and Felice da Nicosia. The canonizations were part of a Mass that marked the conclusion of the General Assembly of the Synod of Bishops and the Year of the Eucharist.[35] Pope Benedict XVI canonized Bishop Rafael Guizar y Valencia, Mother Theodore Guerin, Filippo Smaldone, and Rosa Venerini on 15 October 2006.


Pope Benedict at the canonization of Frei Galvão

During his visit to Brazil in 2007, Pope Benedict XVI presided over the canonization of Frei Galvão on 11 May, while George Preca, founder of the Malta based M.U.S.E.U.M., Szymon of Lipnica, Charles of Mount Argus, and Marie-Eugénie de Jésus were canonized in a ceremony held at the Vatican on 3 June 2007.[36] Preca is the first Maltese saint since the country's conversion to Christianity in 60 A.D. when St. Paul converted the inhabitants.[37] In October 2008 the following canonizations took place: Saint Alphonsa of India,[38] Gaetano Errico, Narcisa

de Jesus Martillo Moran, Maria Bernarda Bütler. In April 2009 he canonized Arcangelo Tadini, Bernardo Tolomei, Nuno Álvares Pereira, Geltrude Comensoli, Caterina Volpicelli.[39] In October of the same year he canonized Jeanne Jugan, Jozef Damian de Veuster, Zygmunt Szczęsny Feliński, Francisco Coll Guitart and Rafael Arnáiz Barón.[40][41]

On 17 October 2010, Pope Benedict XVI formally declared sainthood for Saint André Bessette, a French-Canadian; Stanislaw Soltys, a 15th-century Polish priest; Italian nuns Giulia Salzano and Camilla Battista da Varano; Spanish nun Candida Maria de Jesus Cipitria y Barriola and an Australian nun, Mother Mary MacKillop.[42]

On 23 October 2011, Pope Benedict XVI canonized three saints: a Spanish nun Bonifacia Rodriguez y Castro, Italian archbishop Guido Maria Conforti, and Italian priest Luigi Guanella. [43]

In December 2011, Pope Benedict formally recognized the validity of the miracles necessary to proceed with the canonizations of Kateri Tekakwitha, who will be the first Native American saint, Marianne Cope, a nun working with lepers in what is now the state of Hawaii, Giovanni Battista Piamarta, an Italian priest, Jacques Berthieu a French Jesuit priest and African martyr, Carmen Salles y Barangueras, a Spanish nun and founder of the Sisters of the Immaculate Conception, Peter Calungsod, a lay catechist and martyr from the Philippines, and Anna Schaffer whose desire to be a missionary was unfulfilled on account of her illness. At this time a date of canonization is not set.[44]

Curia reform

Pope Benedict began downsizing the Roman Curia when he merged four existing pontifical councils into two in March 2006. The Pontifical Council for Migrants was merged with the Pontifical Council for Justice and Peace headed by Cardinal Martino. Likewise, Cardinal Poupard, who headed the Pontifical Council for Culture, now also oversees the operations of what had been the Pontifical Council for Interreligious Dialogue, though both Councils maintained separate officials and staffs while their status and competencies continued unchanged. In May 2007 it was decided that Interreligious Dialogue would again become a separate body under a different President. In June 2010 Benedict created the Pontifical Council for the Promotion of the New Evangelisation. He appointed Archbishop Salvatore Fisichella as its first president.

Teachings

See also: Theology of Pope Benedict XVI

As Pope, one of Benedict XVI's main roles is to teach about the Catholic faith and the solutions to the problems of discerning and living the faith,[45] a role that he can play well as a former head of the Church's Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith. The main points of emphasis of his teachings are stated in more detail in Theology of Pope Benedict XVI.

"Friendship with Jesus Christ"

At the conclusion of his first homily as Pope, Benedict referred to both Jesus Christ and John Paul II. Citing John Paul II's well-known words, "Do not be afraid! Open wide the doors for Christ!", Benedict XVI said:

> “Are we not perhaps all afraid in some way? If we let Christ enter fully into our lives, if we open ourselves totally to Him, are we not afraid that He might take something away from us?...And once again the Pope said: No! If we let Christ into our lives, we lose nothing, nothing, absolutely nothing of what makes life free, beautiful and great. No! Only in this friendship do we experience beauty and liberation....When we give ourselves to Him, we receive a hundredfold in return. Yes, open, open wide the doors to Christ – and you will find true life.[46]”



Benedict XVI: "The Eucharist is the

"Friendship with Jesus Christ" is a frequent theme of his preaching.[47][48] He stressed that on this intimate friendship, "everything depends."[49] He has also said: "We are all called to open ourselves to this friendship with God... speaking to him as to a friend, the only One who can make the world both good and happy... That is all we have to do is put ourselves at his disposal...is an extremely important message. It is a message that helps to overcome what can be considered the great temptation of our time: the claim, that after the Big Bang, God withdrew from history."[50] Thus, in his book *Jesus of Nazareth*, his main purpose was "to help foster [in the reader] the growth of a living relationship" with Jesus Christ.[49]

He took up this theme in his first encyclical *Deus Caritas Est*. In his personal explanation and summary of the encyclical, he stated: "If friendship with God becomes for us something ever more important and decisive, then we will begin to love those whom God loves and who are in need of us. God wants us to be friends of his friends and we can be so, if we are interiorly close to them."[51]

enduring presence of Jesus' self-oblation." (*Deus Caritas Est*)

Thus, he said that prayer is "urgently needed...It is time to reaffirm the importance of prayer in the face of the activism and the growing secularism of many Christians engaged in charitable work."

"Dictatorship of Relativism"

Continuing what he said in the pre-conclave Mass about what he has often referred to as the "central problem of our faith today",[52] on 6 June 2005 Pope Benedict also said:

> Today, a particularly insidious obstacle to the task of education is the massive presence in our society and culture of that relativism which, recognising nothing as definitive, leaves as the ultimate criterion only the self with its desires. And under the semblance of freedom it becomes a prison for each one, for it separates people from one another, locking each person into his or her own ego.[53]

He said that "a dictatorship of relativism"[54] was the core challenge facing the church and humanity. At the root of this problem, he said, is Kant's "self-limitation of reason". This, he said, is contradictory to the modern acclamation of science whose excellence is based on the power of reason to know the truth. He said that this self-amputation of reason leads to pathologies of religion such as terrorism and pathologies of science such as ecological disasters.[55] Benedict traced the failed revolutions and violent ideologies of the 20th century to a conversion of partial points of view into absolute guides. He said "Absolutizing what is not absolute but relative is called totalitarianism."[56]

In an address to a conference of the Diocese of Rome held at the basilica of St. John Lateran 6 June 2005, Benedict remarked on the issues of same sex marriage and abortion:

> The various forms of the dissolution of matrimony today, like free unions, trial marriages and going up to pseudo-matrimonies by people of the same sex, are rather expressions of an anarchic freedom that wrongly passes for true freedom of man...from here it becomes all the more clear how contrary it is to human love, to the profound vocation of man and woman, to systematically close their union to the gift of life, and even worse to suppress or tamper with the life that is born.[57]

Christianity as religion according to reason

In the discussion with secularism and rationalism, one of Benedict's basic ideas can be found in his address on the "Crisis of Culture" in the West, a day before Pope John Paul II died, when he referred to Christianity as the Religion of the Logos (the Greek for "word", "reason", "meaning", or "intelligence"). He said:

> From the beginning, Christianity has understood itself as the religion of the *Logos*, as the religion according to reason...It has always defined men, all men without distinction, as creatures and images of God, proclaiming for them...the same dignity. In this connection, the Enlightenment is of Christian origin and it is no accident that it was born precisely and exclusively in the realm of the Christian faith....It was and is the merit of the Enlightenment to have again proposed these original values of Christianity and of having given back to reason its own voice... Today, this should be precisely [Christianity's] philosophical strength, in so far as the problem is whether the world comes from the irrational, and reason is not other than a 'sub-product,' on occasion even harmful of its development—or whether the world comes from reason, and is, as a consequence, its criterion and goal...In the so necessary dialogue between secularists and Catholics, we Christians must be very careful to remain faithful to this fundamental line: to live a faith that comes from the *Logos*, from creative reason, and that, because of this, is also open to all that is truly rational.[58]

Benedict also emphasised that "Only creative reason, which in the crucified God is manifested as love, can really show us the way."

Encyclicals

Pope Benedict has to date written three encyclicals: *Deus Caritas Est* (Latin for "God is Love"), *Spe Salvi* ("Saved by Hope"), and *Caritas in Veritate* ("Love in Truth").

In his first encyclical, *Deus Caritas Est*, he said that a human being, created in the image of God who is love, is able to practice love: to give himself to God and others (agape), by receiving and experiencing God's love in contemplation. This life of love, according to him, is the life of the saints such as Teresa of Calcutta and the Blessed Virgin Mary, and is the direction Christians take when they believe that God loves them in Jesus Christ.[59]

The encyclical contains almost 16,000 words in 42 paragraphs. The first half is said to have been written by Benedict in German, his mother tongue, in the summer of 2005; the second half is derived from uncompleted writings left by his predecessor, Pope John Paul II.[60] The document was signed by Pope Benedict on Christmas Day, 25 December 2005.[61] The encyclical was promulgated a month later in Latin

and was translated into English, French, German, Italian, Polish, Portuguese and Spanish. It is the first encyclical to be published since the Vatican decided to assert copyright in the official writings of the Pope.[62]

Pope Benedict's second encyclical titled *Spe Salvi* ("Saved by Hope"), about the virtue of hope, was released on 30 November 2007.[63][64]

Benedict's third encyclical titled *Caritas in Veritate* ("Love in Truth" or "Charity in Truth"), was signed on 29 June 2009 (the Feast of Sts. Peter and Paul) and released on 7 July 2009.[65] In it, the Pope continued the Church's teachings on social justice. He condemned the prevalent economic system "where the pernicious effects of sin are evident," and called on people to rediscover ethics in business and economic relations.[65]

Post-synodal apostolic exhortation

Sacramentum Caritatis (The Sacrament of Charity) signed 22 February 2007, released in Latin, Italian, English, French, German, Portuguese, Spanish, and Polish. It was made available in various languages 13 March 2007 in Rome. The English edition from *Libera Editrice Vaticana* is 158 pages. This apostolic exhortation "seeks to take up the richness and variety of the reflections and proposals which emerged from the recent Ordinary General Assembly of the Synod of Bishops..." which was held in 2006.[66]

Motu proprio on Tridentine Mass

See also: Summorum Pontificum

On 7 July 2007, Benedict XVI issued the *motu proprio Summorum Pontificum*, declaring that upon "the request of the faithful", celebration of Mass according to the Missal of 1962 (commonly known as the Tridentine Mass), was to be more easily permitted. Stable groups who previously had to petition their bishop to have a Tridentine Mass may now merely request permission from their local priest.[67] While *Summorum Pontificum* directs that pastors should provide the Tridentine Mass upon the requests of the faithful, it also allows for any qualified priest to offer private celebrations of the Tridentine Mass, to which the faithful may be admitted if they wish.[68] For regularly scheduled public celebrations of the Tridentine Mass, the permission of the priest in charge of the church is required.[69]



A pre-1969 Latin Rite altar with reredos.
The high altar of a church was usually preceded by three steps, below which were said the Prayers at the Foot of the Altar. Side altars usually had only one step.

In an accompanying letter, the Pope outlined his position concerning questions about the new guidelines.[68] As there were fears that the move would entail a reversal of the Second Vatican Council,[70] Benedict emphasised that the Tridentine Mass would not detract from the Council, and that the Mass of Paul VI would still be the norm and priests were not permitted to refuse to say the Mass in that form. He pointed out that use of Tridentine Mass "was never juridically abrogated and, consequently, in principle, was always permitted."[68] The letter also decried "deformations of the liturgy ... because in many places celebrations were not faithful to the prescriptions of the new Missal" as the Second Vatican Council was wrongly seen "as authorising or even requiring creativity", mentioning his own experience.[68]

The Pope considered that allowing the Tridentine Mass to those who request it was a means to prevent or heal schism, stating that, on occasions in past history, "not enough was done by the Church's leaders to maintain or regain reconciliation and unity" and that this "imposes an obligation on us today: to make every effort to enable for all those who truly desire unity to remain in that unity or to attain it anew."[68] Many feel the decree aimed at ending the schism between the Holy See and traditionalist groups such as the Society of St. Pius X (SSPX). Cardinal Darío Castrillón Hoyos, the president of the Pontifical Commission established for the purpose of facilitating full ecclesial communion of those associated with that Society,[71] stated that the decree "opened the door for their return". Bishop Bernard Fellay, superior general of the SSPX, expressed "deep gratitude to the Sovereign Pontiff for this great spiritual benefit".[67]

Unicity and Salvific Universality of the Church

Near the end of June 2007, the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith issued a document approved by Benedict XVI "because some contemporary theological interpretations of Vatican II's ecumenical intent had been 'erroneous or ambiguous' and had prompted confusion and doubt."[72] The document has been seen as restating "key sections of a 2000 text the pope wrote when he was prefect of the congregation, *Dominus Iesus*."[72]

Consumerism

Benedict XVI has condemned excessive consumerism, especially among youth. He stated in December 2007 that "[A]dolescents, youths and even children are easy victims of the corruption of love, deceived by unscrupulous adults who, lying to themselves and to them, draw them

into the dead-end streets of consumerism."[73]

In June 2009, he blamed outsourcing for greater availability of consumer goods which lead to downsizing of social security systems.[74]

Ecumenical efforts

Main article: Pope Benedict XVI and Ecumenism

Speaking at his weekly audience in St Peter's Square on 7 June 2006, Pope Benedict asserted that Jesus himself had entrusted the leadership of the Church to his apostle Peter. "Peter's responsibility thus consists of guaranteeing the communion with Christ," said Pope Benedict. "Let us pray so that the primacy of Peter, entrusted to poor human beings, may always be exercised in this original sense desired by the Lord, so that it will be increasingly recognised in its true meaning by brothers who are still not in communion with us."

Dialogue with other religions

Pope Benedict is open to dialogue with other religious groups, and has sought to improve relations with them throughout his pontificate.[75][76] He has, however, generated certain controversies in doing so.

Judaism

Main article: Pope Benedict XVI and Judaism

When Benedict ascended to the Papacy his election was welcomed by the Anti-Defamation League who noted "his great sensitivity to Jewish history and the Holocaust".[77] However, his election received a more reserved response from the United Kingdom's Chief Rabbi Jonathan Sacks, who hoped that Benedict would "continue along the path of Pope John XXIII and Pope John Paul II in working to enhance relations with the Jewish people and the State of Israel."[78] The Foreign Minister of Israel also offered more tentative praise, though the Minister believed that "this Pope, considering his historical experience, will be especially committed to an uncompromising fight against anti-Semitism."[78]

Critics have accused Benedict's papacy of insensitivity towards Judaism. The two most prominent instances were the expansion of the use of the Tridentine Mass and the lifting of the excommunication on four bishops from the Society of St. Pius X (SSPX). In the Good Friday service, the traditional Mass rubrics include a prayer that asks God to lift the veil so *they [Jews] may be delivered from their darkness.* This prayer has historically been contentious in Judaic-Catholic relations and several groups saw the restoration of the Tridentine Mass as problematic.[79][80][81][82][83] Among those whose excommunications were lifted was Bishop Richard Williamson, an outspoken Holocaust denier.[84][85][86][87] The lifting of his excommunication led critics to charge that the Pope was condoning his anti-Semitic views.[88]

Islam

Main article: Pope Benedict XVI and Islam

Pope Benedict's relations with Islam have been strained at times. On 12 September 2006 Pope Benedict XVI delivered a lecture which touched on Islam at the University of Regensburg in Germany. The pope had previously served as professor of theology at the university, and his lecture was entitled "Faith, Reason and the University—Memories and Reflections". The lecture received much attention from political and religious authorities. Many Islamic politicians and religious leaders registered their protest against what they said was an insulting mischaracterisation of Islam, although his focus was aimed towards the rationality of religious violence, and its effect on the religion.[89][90] Muslims were particularly offended by the following quotation from the Pope's speech:

> “ Show me just what Muhammad brought that was new and there you will find things only evil and inhuman, such as his command to spread by the sword the faith he preached.[90] ”

The passage originally appeared in the "*Dialogue Held With A Certain Persian, the Worthy Mouterizes, in Anakara of Galatia*[91][92] written in 1391 as an expression of the views of the Byzantine emperor Manuel II Paleologus, one of the last Christian rulers before the Fall of Constantinople to the Muslim Ottoman Empire, on such issues as forced conversion, holy war, and the relationship between faith and reason. According to the German text, the Pope's original comment was that the emperor "addresses his interlocutor in an astoundingly harsh—to us surprisingly harsh—way" *(wendet er sich in erstaunlich schroffer, uns überraschend schroffer Form)*.[93] Pope Benedict apologised for any offence he had caused and made a point of visiting Turkey, a predominantly Muslim country, and praying in its Blue Mosque.

Pope Benedict XVI planned on 5 March 2008, to meet with Muslim scholars and religious leaders autumn 2008 at a Catholic-Muslim

seminar in Rome.[94] That meeting, the "First Meeting of the Catholic-Muslim Forum," was held from November 4–6, 2008.[95]

On 9 May 2009 H.H. Pope Benedict XVI visited the King Hussein Mosque, Amman, Jordan where he was addressed by H.R.H. Prince Ghazi bin Muhammad bin Talal.[75]

Tibetan Buddhism

The Dalai Lama congratulated Pope Benedict XVI upon his election,[96] and visited him in October 2006 in the Vatican City. In 2007 China was accused of using its political influence to stop a meeting between the Pope and the Dalai Lama.[97]

Indigenous American beliefs

While visiting Brazil in May 2007, "the pope sparked controversy by saying that native populations had been 'silently longing' for the Christian faith brought to South America by colonizers."[98] The Pope continued, stating that "the proclamation of Jesus and of his Gospel did not at any point involve an alienation of the pre-Columbus cultures, nor was it the imposition of a foreign culture."[98] President of Venezuela Hugo Chávez demanded an apology, and an indigenous organisation in Ecuador issued a response which stated that "representatives of the Catholic Church of those times, with honourable exceptions, were accomplices, deceivers and beneficiaries of one of the most horrific genocides of all humanity."[98] Later, the pope, speaking Italian, said at a weekly audience that it was:

> "not possible to forget the suffering and the injustices inflicted by colonizers against the indigenous population, whose fundamental human rights were often trampled."[99]

International Society for Krishna Consciousness

While visiting the United States on 17 April 2008, Benedict met with International Society for Krishna Consciousness representative Radhika Ramana Dasa;[100] a notable Hindu scholar[101] and disciple of Hanumatpreshaka Swami.[102] On behalf of the Hindu American community, Radhika Ramana Dasa presented a gift of an Om symbol to Benedict.[103][104]

Apostolic ministry

Main article: List of journeys of Pope Benedict XVI



Pope Benedict XVI in a Mercedes-Benz popemobile in São Paulo, Brazil

As Pontiff, Benedict XVI carries out numerous Apostolic activities including journeys across the world and in the Vatican.

Benedict travelled extensively during the first three years of his papacy. In addition to his travels within Italy, Pope Benedict XVI has made two visits to his homeland, Germany, one for World Youth Day and another to visit the towns of his childhood. He has also visited Poland and Spain, where he was enthusiastically received.[105] His visit to Turkey, an overwhelmingly Muslim nation, was initially overshadowed by the controversy about a lecture he had given at Regensburg. His visit was met by nationalist and Islamic protesters[106] and was placed under unprecedented security measures.[107] However, the trip went ahead and Benedict made a joint declaration with Ecumenical Patriarch Bartholomew I in an attempt to begin to heal the rift between the Catholic and Orthodox churches.

In 2007, Pope Benedict visited Brazil in order to address the Bishops' Conference there and canonize Friar Antônio Galvão, an 18th century Franciscan. In June 2007, Benedict made a personal pilgrimage and pastoral visit to Assisi, the birthplace of St. Francis. In September, Benedict undertook a three day visit to Austria,[108] during which he joined Vienna's Chief Rabbi, Paul Chaim Eisenberg, in a memorial to the 65,000 Viennese Jews who perished in Nazi death camps.[109] During his stay in Austria, he also celebrated Mass at the Marian shrine Mariazell and visited Heiligenkreuz Abbey.[110]



In April 2008, Pope Benedict XVI made his first visit to the United States since becoming pope.[111] He arrived in Washington, DC where he was formally received at the White House and met privately with U.S. President George W. Bush.[112] While in Washington, the pope addressed representatives of US Catholic universities, met with leaders of other world religions, and celebrated Mass at the Washington Nationals' baseball stadium with 47,000 people.[113] The Pope also met privately with victims of sexual abuse by priests. The pope travelled to New York where he addressed the United Nations General Assembly.[114] Also while in New York, the pope celebrated Mass at St. Patrick's Cathedral, met with disabled children and their families, and attended an event for Catholic youth,

Pope Benedict XVI celebrates his 81st birthday with U.S. President George W. Bush and his wife, Laura.

where he addressed some 25,000 young people in attendance.[115] On the final day of the pope's visit, he visited the World Trade Center site and later celebrated Mass at Yankee Stadium.[116]

In July 2008, the Pope travelled to Australia to attend World Youth Day 2008 in Sydney. On 19 July, in St. Mary's Cathedral, he made an apology for child sex abuse perpetrated by the clergy in Australia.[117][118] On 13 September 2008, at an outdoor Paris Mass attended by 250,000 people, Pope Benedict XVI condemned the modern materialism – the world's love of power, possessions and money as a modern-day plague, comparing it to paganism.[119][120]

In 2009, he visited Africa (Cameroon and Angola) for the first time as a Pope. During his visit, he suggested that altering sexual behavior was the answer to Africa's AIDS crisis, and urged Catholics to reach out and convert believers in sorcery.

He visited the Middle East (Jordan, Israel and Palestine) in May 2009.

Pope Benedict's main arena for pastoral activity is the Vatican itself, his Christmas and Easter homilies and Urbi et Orbi are delivered from St Peter's Basilica. The Vatican is also the only regular place where the Pope travels via motor without the protective bulletproof case common to most popemobiles. Despite the more secure setting Pope Benedict has been victim to security risks several times inside Vatican City. On Wednesday, 6 June 2007 during his General Audience a man lept across a barrier, evaded guards and nearly mounted the Pope's vehicle, although he was stopped and Benedict seemed to be unaware of the event. On Thursday, 24 December 2009, while Pope Benedict was proceeding to the altar to celebrate Christmas Eve Mass at St Peter's Basilica, a woman later identified as 25-year-old Susanna Maiolo, who holds Italian and Swiss citizenships, jumped the barrier and grabbed the pope by his vestments and pulled him to the ground. The 82-year-old fell but was assisted to his feet and he continued to proceed towards the altar to celebrate Mass. Roger Etchegaray, 87, the vice-dean of the College of Cardinals, fell also and suffered a hip fracture. Italian police revealed that the woman had previously attempted to accost the Pope at the previous Christmas Eve Mass, but was prevented from doing so.[121][122]

In his homily, Pope Benedict forgave Susanna Maiolo[123] and urged the world to "wake up" from selfishness and petty affairs, and find time for God and spiritual matters.[121]

Between 17 and 18 April, Pope Benedict made an Apostolic Journey to the Republic of Malta. Following meetings with various dignitaries on his first day on the island, 50,000 people gathered in a drizzle for Papal Mass on the granaries in Floriana. The Pope also met with the Maltese youth at the Valletta Waterfront, where an estimated 10,000 young people turned up to greet him.[124] During his visit the Pope was moved to tears while expressing his shame at cases of abuse on the island during a 20 minute meeting with victims.[125]



Pope Benedict XVI in Balzan, a small village in Malta

Sexual abuse in the Catholic Church

See also: Catholic sex abuse cases

Response

Prior to 2001, the primary responsibility for investigating allegations of sexual abuse and disciplining perpetrators rested with the individual dioceses. In 2001, Ratzinger convinced John Paul II to put the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith in charge of all investigations and policies surrounding sexual abuse in order to combat such abuse more efficiently.[126][127] According to John L. Allen, Jr., Ratzinger in the following years "acquired a familiarity with the contours of the problem that virtually no other figure in the Catholic church can claim" and "driven by that encounter with what he would later refer to as 'filth' in the church, Ratzinger seems to have undergone something of a 'conversion experience' throughout 2003–04. From that point forward, he and his staff seemed driven by a convert's zeal to clean up the mess".[128] In his role as Head of the CFD, he "led important changes made in church law: the inclusion in canon law of internet offences against children, the extension of child abuse offences to include the sexual abuse of all under 18, the case by case waiving of the statute of limitation and the establishment of a fast-track dismissal from the clerical state for offenders."[129] As the Head of the CDF, Ratzinger developed a reputation for handling these cases. According to Charles J. Scicluna, a former prosecutor handling sexual abuse cases, "Cardinal Ratzinger displayed great wisdom and firmness in handling those cases, also demonstrating great courage in facing some of the most difficult and thorny cases, *sine acceptione personarum* (without exceptions)".[128][130]

One of the cases Ratzinger pursued involved Father Marcial Maciel Degollado, a Mexican priest and founder of the Legion of Christ, who had been accused repeatedly of sexual abuse. Biographer Andrea Tornielli suggested that Cardinal Ratzinger had wanted to take action against Marcial Maciel Degollado, but that John Paul II and other high-ranking officials, including several cardinals and notably the pope's influential secretary Stanisław Dziwisz, prevented him from doing so.[127][131] According to Jason Berry, Angelo Sodano "pressured" Cardinal Ratzinger, who was "operating on the assumption that the charges were not justified", to halt the proceedings against Maciel in 1999[132] When Maciel was honored by the Pope in 2004, new accusers came forward[132] and Cardinal Ratzinger "took it on himself to authorize an investigation of Maciel"[127] After Ratzinger became pope he began proceedings against Maciel and the Legion of Christ that

forced Maciel out of active service in the church.[126] On 1 May 2010 the Vatican issued a statement denouncing Maciel's "very serious and objectively immoral acts", which were "confirmed by incontrovertible testimonies" and represent "true crimes and manifest a life without scruples or authentic religious sentiment." Pope Benedict also said he would appoint a special commission to examine the Legionaries' constitution and open an investigation into its lay affiliate Regnum Christi.[133] Cardinal Christoph Schönborn explained that Ratzinger "made entirely clear efforts not to cover things up but to tackle and investigate them. This was not always met with approval in the Vatican".[126][134] According to Schönborn, Cardinal Ratzinger had pressed John Paul II to investigate Hans Hermann Groër, an Austrian cardinal and friend of John Paul accused of sexual abuse, resulting in Groër's resignation.[131]

In March 2010, the Pope sent a Pastoral Letter to the Catholic Church in Ireland addressing cases of sexual abuse by Catholic priests to minors, expressing sorrow, and promising changes in the way accusations of abuse are dealt with.[135] Victim groups claim the letter failed to clarify if secular law enforcement has priority over canon law confidentiality pertaining to internal investigation of abuse allegations.[136][137][138][139] The Pope then promised to introduce measures that would 'safeguard young people in the future' and 'bring to justice' priests who were responsible for abuse.[125] In April, the Vatican issued guidelines on how existing church law should be implemented. The guideline dictates that "Civil law concerning reporting of crimes... should always be followed."[140] The guideline was intended to follow the norms established by U.S. bishops, but it does not require the reporting of "allegations" or crimes where reporting is not required by law.[141]

Attire

Main article: Ceremonial of Benedict XVI



Pope Benedict XVI in choir dress with the red summer papal mozzetta, embroidered red stole, and the red papal shoes.

Pope Benedict XVI has re-introduced several papal garments which had previously fallen into disuse. Pope Benedict XVI resumed the use of the traditional red papal shoes, which had not been used since early in the pontificate of Pope John Paul II. Contrary to the initial speculation of the press that the shoes had been made by the Italian fashion house Prada, the Vatican announced that the shoes were provided by the pope's personal shoemaker.[142]

On 21 December 2005, the pope began wearing the camauro, the traditional red papal hat usually worn in the winter. It had not been seen since the pontificate of Pope John XXIII (1958–1963). On 6 September 2006 the pope began wearing the red cappello romano (also called a saturno), a wide-brimmed hat for outdoor use. Rarely used by John Paul II, it was more widely worn by his predecessors.

Health

Because of age-related health problems, in order to have free time to write, and because he reached the age limit for bishops (75) he had hoped to retire, and submitted his resignation three times, but had continued at his post in obedience to the wishes of Pope John Paul II. In September 1991, Ratzinger suffered a hemorrhagic stroke, which slightly impaired his eyesight temporarily but he recovered completely.[143] This was never affirmed – the official news was that Cardinal Ratzinger fell and struck his head against a radiator – but an open secret known to the Conclave that elected him Pope.[144]

Since he became Pope in April 2005 there were several rumors about his health but none of them was ever confirmed. Early in his pontificate Pope Benedict XVI predicted a short reign which led to concerns about his health.[145] In May 2005, the Vatican revealed that he had subsequently suffered another mild stroke. French Cardinal Philippe Barbarin further revealed that since the first stroke, Ratzinger had been suffering from a heart condition as a result of his age, and is currently on medication. In late November 2006, Vatican insiders told the international press that the Pope had a routine examination of the heart.[144] A few days later an unconfirmed rumor emerged that Pope Benedict had undergone an operation in preparation for an eventual bypass operation but this rumor was only published by a small left-wing Italian newspaper and was never confirmed by any Vatican insider.[146]

On Friday 17 July 2009 Benedict was hospitalised after falling and breaking his right wrist while on vacation in the Alps. His injuries were reported to be minor.[147]

Titles and style

Papal styles of
Pope Benedict XVI

The official style of the Pope is **His Holiness Pope Benedict XVI**; in Latin, **Benedictus XVI**, **Episcopus Romae**. However, his rarely used full title is: *His Holiness Pope Benedict XVI, Bishop of Rome, Vicar of Christ, Successor of the Prince of the Apostles, Supreme Pontiff of the Universal Church, Primate of Italy, Archbishop and Metropolitan*

of the Roman province, Sovereign of the State of the Vatican City, Servant of the Servants of God.



Reference style	His Holiness
Spoken style	Your Holiness
Religious style	Holy Father

Before 1 March 2006, the list of titles also used to contain that of a "Patriarch of the West", which traditionally appeared in that list of titles before "Primate of Italy". The title of "Patriarch of the West" was first adopted in the year 642 by Pope Theodore I, but was rarely used since the East-West Schism of 1054. From the Orthodox perspective, authority in the Church could be traced to the five patriarchates of Rome, Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch and Jerusalem. However, some Catholic theologians have argued that the term "Patriarch of the West" has no clear historical or theological basis and was introduced into the papal court in 1870 at the time of the First Vatican Council. Pope Benedict chose to remove the title at a time when discussions with the Orthodox churches have centred on the issue of papal primacy.

Arms

Positions on moral and political issues

Birth control and HIV/AIDS

In 2005, the Pope listed several ways to combat the spread of HIV, including chastity, fidelity in marriage and anti-poverty efforts; he also rejected the use of condoms.[149] The alleged Vatican investigation of whether there are any cases when married persons may use condoms to protect against the spread of infections surprised many Catholics in the wake of John Paul II's consistent refusal to consider condom use in response to AIDS.[150] However, the Vatican has since stated that no such change in the Church's teaching can occur.[151] *TIME* also reported in its 30 April 2006 edition that the Vatican's position remains what it always has been with Vatican officials "flatly dismiss[ing] reports that the Vatican is about to release a document that will condone any condom use."[151]

In March 2009, the Pope stated:

> I would say that this problem of AIDS cannot be overcome merely with money, necessary though it is. If there is no human dimension, if Africans do not help, the problem cannot be overcome by the distribution of prophylactics: on the contrary, they increase it. The solution must have two elements: firstly, bringing out the human dimension of sexuality, that is to say a spiritual and human renewal that would bring with it a new way of behaving towards others, and secondly, true friendship offered above all to those who are suffering, a willingness to make sacrifices and to practise self-denial, to be alongside the suffering.[152]

In November 2010, in a book-length interview, the Pope, using the example of male prostitutes, stated that the use of condoms, with the intention of reducing the risk of HIV infection, may be an indication that the prostitute is intending to reduce the evil connected with his or her immoral activity.[153] In the same interview, the Pope also reiterated the traditional teaching of the Church that condoms are not seen as a "real or moral solution" to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Further, in December 2010, the Congregation of the Doctrine of the Faith explained that the Pope's statement did not constitute a legitimization of either prostitution or contraception, both of which remain gravely immoral.[153]

Homosexuality

During his time as Prefect of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith (CDF) Benedict XVI made several efforts to tackle the issue of homosexuality within the Church and the wider world. In 1986 the CDF sent a letter to all Bishops entitled: *On the Pastoral Care of Homosexual Persons*. The letter condemned a liberal interpretation of the earlier CDF document *Declaration on Certain Questions Concerning Sexual Ethics*, which had led to a "benign" attitude "to the homosexual condition itself". *On the Pastoral Care of Homosexual Persons* clarified that the Church position on Homosexuality was that "although the particular inclination of the homosexual person is not a sin, it is a more or less strong tendency ordered toward an intrinsic moral evil; and thus the inclination itself must be seen as an objective disorder."[154] However the document also condemned homophobic attacks and violence stating "It is deplorable that homosexual persons have been and are the object of violent malice in speech or in action. Such treatment deserves condemnation from the Church's pastors wherever it occurs."[154]

In 1992 he again approved CDF documents declaring that homosexual "inclination itself must be seen as an objective disorder" and extended this principle to civil law. "Sexual orientation", the document opined, was not equivalent to race or ethnicity, and it declared that it was "not unjust discrimination to take sexual orientation into account."[155]

On 22 December 2008, the Pope gave an end of year message to the Roman Curia in which he talked about gender and the important distinction between men and women. The pope said that the church viewed the distinction as central to human nature, and "asks that this order, set down by creation, be respected". He characterised gender roles which deviated from his view of what gender roles should be as "a

violation of the natural order". The church, he said, "should protect man from the destruction of himself". He said a sort of ecology of man was needed, adding: "The tropical forests do deserve our protection; but man, as a creature, does not deserve any less." He attacked what he described as gender theories which "lead towards the self-emancipation of man from creation and the creator".[156][157]

LGBT groups such as the Italian Arcigay and German LSVD have announced that they found the Pope's comments homophobic.[158] Aurelio Mancuso, head of Arcigay, saying "A divine programme for men and women is out of line with nature, where the roles are not so clear."[156]

Father Federico Lombardi, a Vatican spokesman, claimed the Pope had not wished specifically to attack homosexuality, and had not mentioned gays or lesbians in his text. Father Lombardi insisted, however, that there had been an overreaction to the Pope's remarks. "He was speaking more generally about gender theories which overlook the fundamental difference in creation between men and women and focus instead on cultural conditioning." Nevertheless, the remarks were interpreted as a call to save mankind from homosexuals and transsexuals.[156]

International relations

Main article: Foreign relations of the Vatican

Migrants and refugees

In a message released 14 November 2006, during a Vatican press conference for the 2007 annual observance of World Day for Migrants and Refugees, the pope urged the ratification of international conventions and policies that defend all migrants, including refugees, exiles, evacuees, and internally displaced persons. "The church encourages the ratification of the international legal instruments that aim to defend the rights of migrants, refugees and their families," the pope said. "Much is already being done for the integration of the families of immigrants, although much still remains to be done."[159]


Benedict with then President of Russia Vladimir Putin on 13 March 2007

Pope Benedict has also promoted various UN events, such as World Refugee Day, on which he offered up special prayers for refugees and called for the international community to do more to secure refugees' human rights. He also called on Catholic communities and organizations to offer them concrete help.[160]

China

Main article: People's Republic of China – Holy See relations

In 2007 Benedict sent a letter at Easter to Catholics in China that could have wide-ranging implications for the church's relationship with China's leadership. The letter provides long-requested guidance to Chinese bishops on how to respond to illicitly ordained bishops, as well as how to strengthen ties with the Patriotic Association and the Communist government.[161]

Korea

On 13 November 2006, Benedict said the dispute over the North Korea nuclear weapons program should be resolved through negotiations, in his first public comment on the security issue, a news report said. "The Holy See encourages bilateral or multilateral negotiations, convinced that the solution must be sought through peaceful means and in respect for agreements taken by all sides to obtain the denuclearisation of the Korean Peninsula." Benedict was talking to the new Japanese ambassador to the Vatican.[162]

Turkey

Main article: Holy See – Turkey relations

In a 2004 *Le Figaro* interview, Ratzinger said that Turkey, which is demographically Muslim but governmentally secular by virtue of its state constitution, should seek its future in an association of Muslim nations rather than the European Union, which Ratzinger has stated has Christian roots. He said Turkey had always been "in permanent contrast to Europe and that linking it to Europe would be a mistake.[163]

Later visiting the country to "reiterate the solidarity between the cultures," it was reported that he made a counter-statement backing Turkey's bid to join the EU. Prime Minister of Turkey Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, said that the pope told him in their meeting that while the Vatican seeks to stay out of politics it desires Turkey's membership in the EU.[164][165] However, the Common Declaration of Pope Benedict XVI and Patriarch Bartholomew I of Constantinople implied that support for Turkey's membership in the European Union would be contingent on the establishment of religious freedom in Turkey:[166] "In every step towards unification, minorities must be protected, with

their cultural traditions and the distinguishing features of their religion."[167] The Declaration also reiterates Pope Benedict XVI's call for Europe to preserve its Christian roots.

Israel

Main article: Holy See – Israel relations

In May 2009 he visited Israel.[168][169] This was the third Papal visit to the Holy Land, the previous ones being made by Pope Paul VI in 1964 and Pope John Paul II in 2000.

Vietnam

Main article: Holy See – Vietnam relations

Pope Benedict XVI and Prime Minister Nguyễn Tấn Dũng met at the Vatican on 25 January 2007 in a "new and important step towards establishing diplomatic ties".[170] The Pope met with President Nguyễn Minh Triết on 11 December 2009. Vatican officials called the meeting "a significant stage in the progress of bilateral relations with Vietnam."[171]

Global economy

In 2009 the Pope intervened in global economic and political affairs with his third encyclical, *Charity in Truth* (Latin *Caritas in Veritate*), which can be viewed on the Vatican's web site.[172] The document sets out the Pope's position on the case for worldwide redistribution of wealth in considerable detail and goes on to discuss the environment, migration, terrorism, sexual tourism, bioethics, energy and population issues. *The Financial Times* has reported that the Pope's advocacy for a fairer redistribution of wealth has helped set the agenda for the 2009 July G8 summit.[173][174]

Nuclear energy

Pope Benedict XVI has called for nuclear disarmament. At the same time, he has supported the peaceful use of nuclear energy as a tool for development and the fight against poverty. In his message for the 50th anniversary of the founding of the International Atomic Energy Agency, he confirmed: "The Holy See, fully approving of the IAEA's goal, has been a member from the organisation's foundation and continues to support its activity."[175]

Interests

Pope Benedict is known to be deeply interested in classical music,[7] and is an accomplished pianist.[176] He has a grand piano in his papal quarters. The Pontiff's favorite composer is Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, of whose music the Pope said: "His music is by no means just entertainment; it contains the whole tragedy of human existence."[177] Benedict also stated that Mozart's music affected him greatly as a young man and "deeply penetrated his soul."[177] Benedict's favorite works of music are Mozart's Clarinet Concerto and Clarinet Quintet.[178]

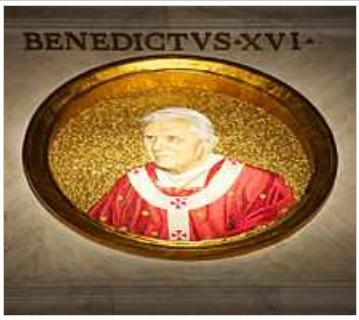
Pope Benedict has recorded an album of contemporary classical music in which Benedict sings and recites prayers to the Blessed Virgin Mary.[179] The album was set for release on 30 November 2009.

Pope Benedict is also known to be fond of cats.[7] As Cardinal Ratzinger he was known to look after stray cats in Rome. A book called "Joseph and Chico: A Cat Recounts the Life of Pope Benedict XVI" was published in 2007 which told the story of the Pope's life from the feline Chico's perspective. This story was inspired by an orange tabby Pentling cat, which belonged to the family next door.[180] During his trip to Australia for World Youth Day in 2008 the media reported that festival organizers lent the Pope a grey cat called Bella[181] in order to keep him company during his stay.[182]

Honours and awards

1977 Grand Cross of the National Order of Merit of the Republic of Ecuador
1977 Bavarian Order of Merit
1985 Great Cross of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany with Star and Sash
1985 Constitutional Medal of the Bavarian state parliament in Gold
1989 Ordine della Minerva at the University of Chieti
1989 Augustin Bea Prize (Rome)
1989 Karl-Valentin-Orden (Munich)

1991 Leopold Kunschak Prize (Vienna)
1991 Georg von Hertling Medal of CT
1992 Grand Gold Medal with Ribbon for Services to the Republic of Austria
1992 Literature Prize Capri S. Michele in Anacapri
1992 Premio Internazionale di Cultura Cattolica, Bassano del Grappa
1993 literary prize Premio Letterario Basilicata per la Letteratura e Poesia religiosa Spirituale in Potenza (Italy)
1996 Bavarian Maximilian Order for Science and the Arts
1998 Commander of the Legion of Honour (Legion d'Honneur) (France)
2002 Liberal Trieste
2004 Literature Prize Capri S. Michele in Anacapri



Medallion in Saint Paul Outside the Walls

See also

- Georg Gänswein – private secretary to Benedict
- List of books by Pope Benedict XVI
- List of encyclicals of Pope Benedict XVI
- List of journeys of Pope Benedict XVI
- Papal regalia and insignia – papal attire
- Pope Benedict – list of other popes and antipopes using the name Benedict
- Three Secrets of Fátima – document on the release of the Third Secret of Fátima
- Works of Pope Benedict XVI – literature written by Pope Benedict XVI

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Pope

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The **Pope** (from Latin: *papa*; from Greek: πάππας (*pappas*),[1] a child's word for *father*)[2] is the Bishop of Rome and the leader of the worldwide Catholic Church. In the Catholic Church, the Pope is regarded as the successor of Saint Peter, the Apostle. The current office-holder is Pope Benedict XVI, who was elected in a papal conclave on 19 April 2005.[nb 1]

The office of the pope is known as the *papacy*. His ecclesiastical jurisdiction is often called the "Holy See" (*Sancta Sedes* in Latin), or the "Apostolic See" based upon the Church tradition that the Apostles Saint Peter and Saint Paul were martyred in Rome. The pope is also head of state of Vatican City,[3] a sovereign city-state entirely enclaved within the city of Rome.

The papacy is one of the most enduring institutions in the world and had a prominent part in human history.[4] The Popes in ancient times helped in the spread of Christianity and resolve various doctrinal disputes. [5] In the Middle Ages they played a role of secular importance in Western Europe, often serving as referees between the monarchs and averting several wars. [6][7][8] Currently, in addition to the expansion of the Christian faith and doctrine, the popes are dedicated to ecumenism and interreligious dialogue, charitable work, and the defense of human rights.[9][10]

Having been gradually forced to give up temporal power, popes now focus almost exclusively on religious matters.[5] Over the centuries, papal claims of spiritual authority have been ever more clearly expressed, culminating in 1870 with the proclamation of the dogma of papal infallibility for rare occasions when the pope speaks *ex cathedra* — literally "from the chair (of St. Peter)" — to issue a formal definition of faith or morals.[5] The first explicit such occasion (after the proclamation), and so far the last, was in 1950, with the definition of the dogma of the Assumption of Mary.

Bishop of Rome

BISHOPRIC
CATHOLIC





Incumbent:
Benedict XVI
Elected: 19 April 2005

Province:	Ecclesiastical Province of Rome
Diocese:	Rome
Cathedral:	Basilica of St. John Lateran
First Bishop:	According to traditional Christianity, Saint Peter
Formation:	According to traditional Christianity, the 1st century
Website:	The Holy Father (http://www.vatican.va/holy_father/index.htm)

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History

Main article: History of the papacy

Part of a series on the

Catholic Church

Title and etymology

The word *pope* derives from Greek **πάππας** meaning "Father".

This title was first assumed by the Patriarchs of Alexandria, long before it was assumed by the Bishops of Rome. In fact, the first to carry the title of pope was the Patriarch of Alexandria, Pope Heracleus (232–49 AD), the 13th Alexandrine Patriarch.[11][12] Papa has been the specific designation for the Archbishop of Alexandria, Patriarch of Egypt, and the See of Saint Mark, whose ecclessiastic title is "Papa Abba", the Abba stands for the devotion of all monastics, from Pentapolis in the West to Constantinople in the East, to his guidance. Abba is the most powerful designation, that for all monks in the East to voluntarily follow his spiritual authority.[11] The first record in history of the term "pope" is assigned to Pope Heraclas of Alexandria in a letter written by the bishop of Rome, Dionysius, to Philemon:

> τοῦτον ἐγὼ τὸν κανόνα καὶ τὸν τύπον παρὰ τοῦ μακαρίου πάπα ἡμῶν Ἡρακλᾶ παρέλαβον.[13]

Which translates into:

> I received this rule and ordinance from our blessed pope, Heraclas.

According to the Oxford English Dictionary, the earliest recorded use of the title 'pope' in English is in an Old English translation (*c*. 950) of Bede's *Ecclesiastical History of the English People*:

> Þa wæs in þa tid Uitalius papa þæs apostolican seðles aldorbiscop.[14]

In Modern English:

> At that time, Pope Vitalian was chief bishop of the apostolic see.

It is difficult to ascertain the identity of the first Bishop of Rome to carry the title Pope of Rome. Some sources suggest that it was Pope Marcellinus (d. 304 AD),[15] while other sources suggest that this did not happen until the 6th century, with Pope John I (523–6 AD) the first to assume this title.[11] Bestowing the title on Rome's Pontiff did not strip it from Alexandria's, and the Roman Catholic Church recognizes this ecclesiastical fact.[11] From the 6th century, the imperial chancery of Constantinople normally reserved this designation for the Bishop of Rome. From the early 6th century, it began to be confined in the West to the Bishop of Rome, a practice that was firmly in place by the 11th century, when Pope Gregory VII declared it reserved for the Bishop of Rome.[15]

Catholics recognize the pope as a successor to Saint Peter, whom, according to Roman Catholic teaching, Jesus named as the



Organisation

Pope – Benedict XVI

College of Cardinals – Holy See

Ecumenical Councils

Episcopal polity · Latin Church

Eastern Catholic Churches

Background

History · Christianity

Catholicism · Apostolic Succession

Four Marks of the Church

Ten Commandments

Crucifixion & Resurrection of Jesus

Ascension · Assumption of Mary

Theology

Trinity (Father, Son, Holy Spirit)

Theology · Apologetics

Divine Grace · Sacraments

Purgatory · Salvation

Original sin · Saints · Dogma

Virgin Mary · Mariology

Immaculate Conception of Mary

Liturgy and Worship

Roman Catholic Liturgy · Prayer

Eucharist · Liturgy of the Hours

Liturgical Year · Biblical Canon

Rites

Roman · Armenian · Alexandrian

Byzantine · Antiochian · West Syrian · East Syrian

Controversies

Science · Evolution · Criticism

Sex & gender · Homosexuality

"shepherd" and "rock" of the Catholic Church, which according to Catholic dogma is the one true Church founded by Christ.[16][17] Peter never bore the *title* of "pope", which came into use three centuries later, but Catholics traditionally recognize him as the first pope,[18] while official declarations of the Church only speak of the popes as holding within the college of the Bishops a role analogous to that held by Peter within the college of the Apostles, of which the college of the Bishops, a distinct entity, is the successor.[19][20][21]

Catholicism topics

Monasticism · Women · Ecumenism

Prayer · Music · Art

Catholicism portal

Protestants generally agree that Jesus singled out Peter as the focal point of the first-century church. However, they contend that the New Testament offers no proof that Jesus established the papacy nor even that he established Peter as the first bishop of Rome.[22] The Catholic Church teaches that Jesus personally appointed Peter as leader of the Church and in its dogmatic constitution *Lumen Gentium* makes a clear distinction between apostles and bishops, presenting the latter as the successors of the former, with the pope as successor of Peter in that he is head of the bishops as Peter was head of the apostles.[23] Some historians have argued that the notion that Peter was the first bishop of Rome and founded the episcopal see there can be traced back no earlier than the 3rd century.[24] The writings of the Church Father Irenaeus who wrote around 180 AD reflect a belief that Peter "founded and organised" the Church at Rome.[25] Moreover, Irenaeus was not the first to write of Peter's presence in the early Roman Church. Clement of Rome wrote in a letter to the Corinthians, *c.* 96[26] about the persecution of Christians in Rome as the "struggles in our time" and presented to the Corinthians its heroes, "first, the greatest and most just columns, the "good apostles" Peter and Paul.[27] St. Ignatius of Antioch wrote shortly after Clement and in his letter from the city of Smyrna to the Romans he said he would not command them as Peter and Paul did.[28] Given this and other evidence, many scholars agree that Peter was martyred in Rome under Nero, although some scholars argue that he may have been martyred in Palestine.[29][30][31]

Various Christian communities would have had a group of presbyter-bishops functioning as leaders of their local churches. Gradually, episcopacies were established in metropolitan areas.[32] It has been conjectured that Antioch, where Peter was before he went to Rome, may have been one of the first Christian communities to have adopted such a structure.[32] In Rome there were many who claimed to be the rightful bishop though again Irenaeus stressed the validity of one line of bishops from the time of St. Peter up to his contemporary Pope Victor I and listed them.[33] Some writers claim that the emergence of a single bishop in Rome probably did not occur until the middle of the 2nd century. In their view, Linus, Cletus and Clement were possibly prominent presbyter-bishops but not necessarily monarchical bishops.[24] This would not affect their authority as popes in Catholic Theology.

The Holy See was accorded prominence in the early Church period in issues related to matters of the whole Catholic Church.[34]

Early Christianity (*c.* 30–325)

It seems that at first the terms 'episcopos' and 'presbyter' were used interchangeably.[35] The consensus among scholars has been that, at the turn of the 1st and 2nd centuries, local congregations were led by bishops and presbyters whose offices were overlapping or indistinguishable.[36] There was probably no single 'monarchical' bishop in Rome before the middle of the 2nd century ... and likely later."[37] Other scholars and historians disagree, citing the historical records of St. Ignatius of Antioch and St. Irenaeus who recorded the linear succession of Bishops of Rome (the popes) up until their own times. They also cite the importance accorded to the popes in the ecumenical councils, including the early ones.[38]

In the early Christian era, Rome and a few other cities had claims on the leadership of worldwide Catholic Church. James the Just, known as "the brother of the Lord", served as head of the Jerusalem church, which is still honored as the "Mother Church" in Orthodox tradition. Alexandria had been a center of Jewish learning and became a center of Christian learning. Rome had a large congregation early in the apostolic period whom Paul the Apostle addressed in his Epistle to the Romans, and according to tradition Paul was martyred there.

During the 1st century of the Church (*ca.* 30–130), the Roman capital became recognized as a Christian center of exceptional importance. Pope Clement I at the end of the 1st century wrote an epistle to the Church in Corinth intervening in a major dispute, and apologizing for not having taken action earlier.[39] However, there are only a few other references of that time to recognition of the authoritative primacy of the Roman See outside of Rome. In the Ravenna Document (http://www.vatican.va/roman_curia/pontifical_councils/chrstuni /ch_orthodox_docs/rc_pc_chrstuni_doc_20071013_documento-ravenna_en.html) of 13 October 2007, theologians chosen by the Roman Catholic and the Eastern Orthodox Churches stated: "41. Both sides agree… that Rome, as the Church that 'presides in love' according to the phrase of St Ignatius of Antioch (*To the Romans* (http://www.crossroadsinitiative.com/library_article/244/Letter_of_Ignatius_of_Antioch_to_the_Romans.html) , Prologue), occupied the first place in the *taxis*, and that the bishop of Rome was therefore the *protos* among the patriarchs. They disagree, however, on the interpretation of the historical evidence from this era regarding the prerogatives of the Bishop of Rome as *protos*, a matter that was already understood in different ways in the first millennium." In addition, in the last years of the 1st century AD the Church in Rome intervened in the affairs of the Christian Church in Corinth to help solve their internal disputes.

Later in the 2nd century AD, there were more manifestations of Roman authority over other churches. In 189 AD, assertion of the primacy of the Church of Rome may be indicated in Irenaeus of Lyons's *Against Heresies* (3:3:2): "With [the Church of Rome], because of its superior origin, all the churches must agree... and it is in her that the faithful everywhere have maintained the apostolic tradition." In 195 AD, Pope Victor I, in what is seen as an exercise of Roman authority over other churches, excommunicated the Quartodecimans for observing Easter on the 14th of Nisan, the date of the Jewish Passover, a tradition handed down by St. John the Evangelist (see Easter controversy). Celebration of Easter on a Sunday, as insisted on by the pope, is the system that has prevailed (see computus).

Early popes helped spread Christianity and resolve doctrinal disputes.[5]

Nicaea to East-West Schism (325–1054)

The Edict of Milan in 313 granted freedom to all religions in the Roman Empire,[40] beginning the Peace of the Church. In 325, the First Council of Nicaea condemned Arianism, declaring trinitarianism dogmatic, and in its sixth canon recognized the special role of the sees of Rome, Alexandria, and Antioch.[41] Great defenders of Trinitarian faith included the Popes, especially Pope Liberius, who was exiled to Berea by Constantius II for his Trinitarian faith,[42] Damasus I, and several other bishops.[43]

In 380 Catholicism was declared the sole state religion of the Roman Empire.[44][45] While the civil power in the East controlled the church and the bishop of Constantinople, the capital, wielded much power,[46] in the West the Bishops of Rome was able to consolidate the influence and power they already possessed.[46] After the fall of the Western Roman Empire, barbarian tribes were converted to Arian Christianity or Catholicism;[47] Clovis I, king of the Franks, was the first important barbarian ruler to convert to Catholicism rather than Arianism, allying himself with the papacy. Other tribes, such as the Visigoths, later abandoned Arianism in favour of Catholicism.[47]

Medieval Age

After the fall of Rome, the pope served as a source of authority and continuity. Gregory the Great (*c* 540–604) administered the church with strict reform. From an ancient senatorial family, Gregory worked with the stern judgement and discipline typical of ancient Roman rule. Theologically, he represents the shift from the classical to the medieval outlook; his popular writings are full of dramatic miracles, potent relics, demons, angels, ghosts, and the approaching end of the world.[48]



Gregory the Great (*c* 540–604) who established medieval themes in the Church, in a painting by Carlo Saraceni, c. 1610, Rome.

Gregory's successors were largely dominated by the Exarch of Ravenna, the Byzantine emperor's representative in Italy. These humiliations, the weakening of the empire in the face of Muslim expansion, and the inability of the emperor to protect the papal estates against the Lombards, made Pope Stephen II turn from Emperor Constantine V. He appealed to the Franks to protect his lands. Pepin the Short subdued the Lombards and donated Italian land to the papacy. When Leo III crowned Charlemagne (800), he established the precedent that, in the West, no man would be emperor without anointment by a pope.[48]

From the seventh century it became common for European monarchies and nobility to found churches and perform investiture or deposition of clergy in their states and fiefdoms, their personal interests causing corruption among the clergy.[49][50] This practice had become common because often the prelates and secular rulers were also participants in public life.[51] To combat this and other practices that had corrupted the Church between the years 900 and 1050, centres emerged promoting ecclesiastical reform, the most important being the Abbey of Cluny, which spread its ideals throughout Europe.[50] This reform movement gained strength with the election of Pope Gregory VII in 1073, who adopted a series of measures in the movement known as the Gregorian Reform, in order to fight strongly against simony and the abuse of civil power and try to restore ecclesiastical discipline, including celibacy.[43] The conflict between popes and secular autocratic rulers such as the Holy Roman Emperor Henry IV and Henry I of England, known as the question of investiture, was only resolved in 1122, by the Concordat of Worms, in which the pope decreed that clerics were to be invested by clerical leaders, and temporal rulers by lay investiture.[49] Soon after, Pope Alexander III began reforms that would lead to the establishment of canon law.[48]

Since the beginning of the seventh century the Islamic Caliphate had conquered much of the southern Mediterranean, and represented a threat to Christianity.[52] In 1095, the Byzantine emperor Alexius I asked for military aid from Pope Urban II against the Muslim invasionns.[53] Urban, at the council of Clermont, called the First Crusade to assist the Byzantine Empire to regain the old Christian territories, especially Jerusalem.[54]

The low point of the papacy was 867–1049.[55] The papacy came under the control of vying political factions. Popes were variously imprisoned, starved, killed, and deposed by force. The family of a certain papal official made and unmade popes for fifty years. The official's great-grandson, Pope John XII, held orgies of debauchery in the Lateran palace. Emperor Otto I of Germany had John accused in an ecclesiastical court, which deposed him and elected a layman as Pope Leo VIII. John mutilated the Imperial representatives in Rome and had himself reinstated as pope. Conflict between the Emperor and the papacy continued, and eventually dukes in league with the emperor were buying bishops and popes almost openly.[55]

In 1049, Leo IX became pope, at last a pope with the character to face the papacy's problems. He traveled to the major cities of Europe to deal with the church's moral problems firsthand, notably simony and clerical marriage and concubinage. With his long journey, he restored the prestige of the papacy in the north.[55]

East–West Schism to Reformation (1054–1517)

The East and West churches split definitively in 1054. This fracture was caused more by political events than by slight diversities of creed. Popes had galled the emperors by siding with the king of the Franks, crowning a rival Roman emperor, appropriating the Exarchate of Ravenna, and driving into Greek Italy.[55]



A historical map of the Mediterranean states in 1400. The Western Schism lasted from 1378 to 1417.

In the Middle Ages, popes struggled with monarchs over power.[5]

From 1309 to 1377, the pope resided not in Rome but in Avignon. The Avignon Papacy was notorious for greed and corruption.[56] During this period, the pope was effectively an ally of France, alienating France's enemies, such as England.[57]

The pope was understood to have the power to draw on the "treasury" of merit built up by the saints and by Christ, so that he could grant indulgences, reducing one's time in purgatory. The concept that a monetary fine or donation accompanied contrition, confession, and prayer eventually gave way to the common assumption that indulgences depended on a simple monetary contribution. The popes condemned misunderstandings and abuses, but were too pressed for income to exercise effective control over indulgences.[56]

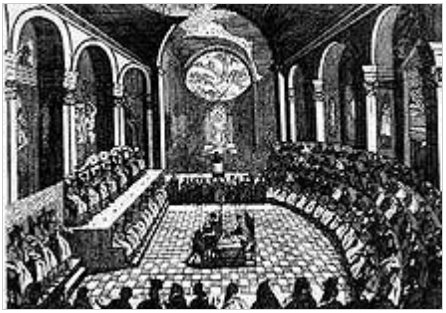
Popes also contended with the cardinals, who sometimes attempted to assert the authority of councils over the pope's. Conciliar theory holds that the supreme authority of the church lies with a General Council, not with the pope. Its foundations were laid early in the 13th century, and it culminated in the 15th century. The failure of the conciliar theory to gain broad acceptance after the 15th century is taken as a factor in the Protestant Reformation.[58]

Various anti-popes challenged papal authority, especially during the Western Schism (1378–1417). In this schism, the papacy had returned to Rome from Avignon, but an anti-pope was installed in Avignon, as if to extend the papacy there.

The Eastern Church continued to decline with the Eastern Roman (Byzantine) Empire, undercutting Constantinople's claim to equality with Rome. Twice an Eastern Emperor tried to force the Eastern Church to reunify with the West. Papal claims of superiority were a sticking point in reunification, which failed in any event. In the 15th century, the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople.

Reformation to present (1517 to today)

Protestant Reformers criticized the papacy as corrupt and characterized the pope as the antichrist.


As part of the Catholic Reformation, Pope Paul III (1534–49) initiated the

Popes instituted a Catholic Reformation[5] (1560–1648), which addressed the challenges of the Protestant Reformation and instituted internal reforms. Pope Paul III initiated the Council of Trent, whose definitions of doctrine and whose reforms sealed the triumph of the papacy over elements in the church that sought conciliation with Protestants and opposed papal claims.[59]

Gradually forced to give up secular power, the popes focused on spiritual

issues.[5]

In 1870, the First Vatican Council proclaimed the dogma of papal infallibility for those rare occasions the pope speaks *ex cathedra* when issuing a solemn definition of faith or morals.[5]

Council of Trent (1545–63), which established the triumph of the papacy over those who sought to reconcile with Protestants or oppose Papal claims.

Later the same year, Victor Emmanuel II seized Rome from the pope's control and substantially completed the unification of Italy.[5]

In 1929, the Lateran Treaty between Italy and Pope Pius XI established the Vatican City State, guaranteeing papal independence from secular rule.[5]

In 1950, the pope defined the Assumption of Mary as dogma, the only time that a pope has spoken *ex cathedra* since papal infallibility was explicitly declared.

The Petrine Doctrine is still controversial as an issue of doctrine that continues to divide the eastern and western churches and separate Protestants from Rome.

Saint Peter and the origin of the office

See also: Primacy of Simon Peter

The dogmas and traditions of the Roman Catholic Church teach that the institution of the papacy was first mandated by interpretations of several Biblical passages, mainly Matthew 16:13–19:[nb 2]

> When Jesus came into the coasts of Caesarea Philippi, he asked his disciples, saying, Whom do men say that I the Son of man am? …And Simon Peter answered and said, Thou art the Christ, the Son of the living God. And Jesus answered and said unto him, Blessed art thou, Simon Bar-Jona: for flesh and blood hath not revealed it unto thee, but my Father which is in heaven. And I also say to you that you are Peter, and upon this rock I will build my church, and the gates of the netherworld will not prevail against it. I will give you the keys of the kingdom of heaven; whatever you bind on earth will be bound in heaven, and whatever you loose on earth will be loosed in heaven.

Catholics believe that this passage shows Jesus establishing his church on the shoulders of Simon son of John (Peter). The Catholic scholarly community agrees with the church's interpretation that the "rock" Jesus refers to in this passage is Peter, an interpretation that some other scholars agree with.[60]

Since the Protestant reformation, Protestant scholars have asserted that the "rock" Jesus referred to was Jesus himself, or Peter's faith. The argument follows that, when Jesus says, "You are Peter (Greek: Πέτροζ(Petros), small stone as a pebble), and upon this rock Greek: πέτρα(petra), a large stone edifice as a cliff or ledge) I will build my Church", Jesus is pointing to something much larger than Peter, based on the clear distinction in the Greek of a small stone and a large rock cliff as well as the Greek grammatical structure, as the basis for his kingdom, not making a pope of Peter as Catholics claim.[61] The truth that Peter affirmed in verse 16 is that Jesus is Christ and faith in Him serves as the foundation of the Church and the whole set of the apostles teaching not solely or even mainly, little pebble, that is Peter.[62][63][64] Others, using Peter's own words, argue that Christ intended himself as the foundation of the church and not Peter.[65] Others have argued that the church is indeed built upon Jesus and faith, but also on the disciples as the roots and foundations of the church on the basis of Paul's teaching in Romans and Ephesians, though not primarily Peter.[66]

The reference to the "keys of the kingdom of heaven" here is the basis for the symbolic keys often found in Catholic papal symbolism, such as in the Vatican Coat of Arms.

Election, death and resignation

Election

Main article: Papal conclave



The Giving of the Keys to Saint Peter painted by Pietro Perugino (1492)

The pope was originally chosen by those senior clergymen resident in and near Rome. In 1059 the electorate was restricted to the Cardinals of the Holy Roman Church, and the individual votes of all Cardinal Electors were made equal in 1179. Pope Urban VI, elected 1378, was the last pope who was not already a cardinal at his election. Canon law requires that if a layman or non-bishop is elected, he receives episcopal consecration from the Dean of the College of Cardinals before assuming the Pontificate. Under present canon law, the pope is elected by the cardinal electors, comprising those cardinals who are under the age of 80.

The Second Council of Lyons was convened on 7 May 1274, to regulate the election of the pope. This Council decreed that the cardinal electors must meet within ten days of the pope's death, and that they must remain in seclusion until a pope has been elected; this was prompted by the three-year *Sede Vacante* following the death of Pope Clement IV in 1268. By the mid-16th century, the electoral process had evolved into its present form, allowing for variation in the time between the death of the pope and the meeting of the cardinal electors.

Traditionally, the vote was conducted by acclamation, by selection (by committee), or by plenary vote. Acclamation was the simplest procedure, consisting entirely of a voice vote, and was last used in 1621. Pope John Paul II abolished vote by acclamation and by selection by committee, and henceforth election will be by full vote by ballot of the Sacred College of Cardinals.



The conclave in Konstanz where Pope Martin V was elected

The election of the pope almost always takes place in the Sistine Chapel, in a sequestered meeting called a "conclave" (so called because the cardinal electors are theoretically locked in, *cum clave*, i.e., with key, until they elect a new pope). Three cardinals are chosen by lot to collect the votes of absent cardinal electors (by reason of illness), three are chosen by lot to count the votes, and three are chosen by lot to review the count of the votes. The ballots are distributed and each cardinal elector writes the name of his choice on it and pledges aloud that he is voting for "one whom under God I think ought to be elected" before folding and depositing his vote on a plate atop a large chalice placed on the altar (in the 2005 conclave, a special urn was used for this purpose instead of a chalice and plate). The plate is then used to drop the ballot into the chalice, making it difficult for electors to insert multiple ballots. Before being read, the ballots are counted while still folded; if the number of ballots does not match the number of electors, the ballots are burned unopened and a new vote is held. Otherwise, each ballot is read aloud by the presiding Cardinal, who pierces the ballot with a needle and thread, stringing all the ballots together and tying the ends of the thread to ensure accuracy and honesty. Balloting continues until someone is elected by a two-thirds majority.[67]

One of the most prominent aspects of the papal election process is the means by which the results of a ballot are

announced to the world. Once the ballots are counted and bound together, they are burned in a special stove erected in the Sistine Chapel, with the smoke escaping through a small chimney visible from St. Peter's Square. The ballots from an unsuccessful vote are burned along with a chemical compound to create black smoke, or *fumata nera*. (Traditionally, wet straw was used to produce the black smoke, but this was not completely reliable. The chemical compound is more reliable than the straw.) When a vote is successful, the ballots are burned alone, sending white smoke (*fumata bianca*) through the chimney and announcing to the world the election of a new pope. At the end of the conclave that elected Pope Benedict XVI, church bells were also rung to signal that a new pope had been chosen.



The formal declaration of "Habemus Papam" after the election of Pope Martin V

The Dean of the College of Cardinals then asks two solemn questions of the cardinal who has been elected. First he asks, "Do you freely accept your election?" If he replies with the word *"Accepto"*, his reign begins at that instant, *not* at the inauguration ceremony several days afterward. The Dean then asks, "By what name shall you be called?" The new pope then announces the regnal name he has chosen. (If the Dean is elected pope, the Vice Dean performs this task.)

The new pope is led through the "Door of Tears" to a dressing room where three sets of white papal vestments (*immantatio*) await: small, medium, and large. Donning the appropriate vestments and reemerging into the Sistine Chapel, the new pope is given the "Fisherman's Ring" by the Camerlengo of the Holy Roman Church, whom he first either reconfirms or reappoints. The pope then assumes a place of honor as the rest of the cardinals wait in turn to offer their first "obedience" (*adoratio*) and to receive his blessing.

The Senior Cardinal Deacon then announces from a balcony over St. Peter's Square the following proclamation: *Annuntio vobis gaudium magnum! Habemus Papam!* ("I announce to you a great joy! We have a pope!"). He then announces the new pope's Christian name along with his newly chosen regnal name.

Until 1978 the pope's election was followed in a few days by the Papal Coronation. A procession with great pomp and circumstance formed from the Sistine Chapel to St. Peter's Basilica, with the newly elected pope borne in the *sedia gestatoria*. There, after a solemn Papal Mass, the new pope was crowned with the *triregnum* (papal tiara) and he gave for the first time as pope the famous blessing *Urbi et Orbi* ("to the City [Rome] and to the World"). Another renowned part of the coronation was the lighting of a bundle of flax at the top of a gilded pole, which would flare brightly for a moment and then promptly extinguish, with the admonition *Sic transit gloria mundi* ("Thus passes worldly glory"). A similar warning against papal hubris made on this occasion was the traditional exclamation *"Annos Petri non videbis"*, reminding the newly crowned pope that he would not live to see his rule lasting as long as that of St. Peter, who according to tradition headed the church for 35 years and has thus far been the longest reigning pope in the history of the Catholic Church.[68]

A traditionalist Catholic belief claims the existence of a Papal Oath sworn, at their coronation, by all popes from Pope Agatho to Pope Paul VI, but which since the abolition of the coronation ceremony is no longer used. There is no reliable authority for this claim.

The Latin term *sede vacante* ("while the see is vacant")[69] refers to a papal interregnum, the period between the death of a pope and the election of his successor. From this term is derived the term sedevacantism, which designates a category of dissident Catholics who maintain that there is no canonically and legitimately elected pope, and that there is therefore a *Sede Vacante*. One of the most common reasons for holding this belief is the

idea that the reforms of the Second Vatican Council and especially the replacement of the Tridentine Mass with the *Mass of Paul VI* are heretical, and that those responsible for initiating and maintaining these changes are heretics and not true popes.[70][71][72] Sedevacantists are considered to be schismatics by the mainstream Roman Catholic Church.

For centuries, from 1378 on, those elected to the papacy were predominantly Italians. Prior to the election of the Polish cardinal Karol Wojtyla as Pope John Paul II in 1978, the last non-Italian was Pope Adrian VI of the Netherlands, elected in 1522. John Paul II was followed by the German-born Benedict XVI, leading some to believe that, although Rome is in Italy, Italian domination of the papacy is over.

Death

The current regulations regarding a papal interregnum—that is, a *sede vacante* ("vacant seat")—were promulgated by John Paul II in his 1996 document *Universi Dominici Gregis*. During the "Sede Vacante", the Sacred College of Cardinals, composed of the pope's principal advisors and assistants, is collectively responsible for the government of the Church and of the Vatican itself, under the direction of the Camerlengo of the Holy Roman Church; however, canon law specifically forbids the cardinals from introducing any innovation in the government of the Church during the vacancy of the Holy See. Any decision that requires the assent of the pope has to wait until the new pope has been elected and accepts office.



Funeral of Pope John Paul II at the Vatican in 2005, presided over by Cardinal Ratzinger, the future Pope Benedict XVI

In recent centuries it was traditional, when a pope was judged to have died, for the Cardinal Chamberlain to confirm the death ceremonially by gently tapping the pope's head thrice with a silver hammer, calling his birth name each time. This custom was not followed at the death of Pope John Paul I[73] and was not revived upon the death of Pope John Paul II.[74] The Cardinal Chamberlain then retrieves the Ring of the Fisherman and cuts it in two in the presence of the Cardinals. The Pope's seals are defaced, to keep them from ever being used again, and his personal apartment is sealed.

The body then lies in state for several days before being interred in the crypt of a leading church or cathedral; all who have died in the 20th and 21st centuries have been interred in St. Peter's Basilica. A nine-day period of mourning (*novendialis*) follows the interment.

Resignation

Main article: Papal resignation

The Code of Canon Law 332 §2 (http://www.vatican.va/archive/ENG1104/_P16.HTM) states, "If it happens that the Roman Pontiff resigns his office, it is required for validity that the resignation is made freely and properly manifested but not that it is accepted by anyone."

Titles

Official list of titles

Papal styles of
Pope

The official list of titles of the Pope, in the order in which they

are given in the Annuario Pontificio, is: Bishop of Rome, Vicar of Jesus Christ, Successor of the Prince of the Apostles, Supreme Pontiff of the Universal Church, Primate of Italy, Archbishop and Metropolitan of the Roman Province, Sovereign of the State of Vatican City, Servant of the Servants of God.[75]

The official list of titles does not include all the titles that are officially used.



Reference style	His Holiness
Spoken style	Your Holiness
Religious style	Holy Father
Posthumous style	NA

Pope

The best-known title, that of "Pope", does not appear in the official list, but is commonly used in the titles of documents, and appears, in abbreviated form, in their signatures. Thus Pope Paul VI signed as "Paulus PP. VI", the "PP." standing for "*Papa*" ("Pope").[76][77][78][79][80]

The title "Pope" was from the early 3rd century an honorific designation used for *any* bishop in the West.[81] In the East it was used only for the Bishop of Alexandria.[81] Pope Marcellinus (d. 304) is the first Bishop of Rome shown in sources to have had the title "Pope" used of him. From the 6th century, the imperial chancery of Constantinople normally reserved this designation for the Bishop of Rome.[81] From the early 6th century, it began to be confined in the West to the Bishop of Rome, a practice that was firmly in place by the 11th century,[81] when Pope Gregory VII declared it reserved for the Bishop of Rome.

In Eastern Christianity, where the title "Pope" is used also of the Bishop of Alexandria, the Bishop of Rome is often referred to as the "Pope of Rome", regardless of whether the speaker or writer is in communion with Rome or not.

Vicar of Jesus Christ

"Vicar of Jesus Christ" (*Vicarius Iesu Christi*) is one of the official titles of the Pope given in the *Annuario Pontificio*. It is commonly used in the slightly abbreviated form "Vicar of Christ" (*Vicarius Christi*). While it is only one of the terms with which the Pope is referred to as "Vicar", it is "more expressive of his supreme headship of the Church on earth, which he bears in virtue of the commission of Christ and with vicarial power derived from him", a vicarial power believed to have been conferred on Saint Peter when Christ said to him: "Feed my lambs. . . . Feed my sheep" (John 21:16-17 (http://bibref.hebtools.com/?book=%20John&verse=21:16-17&src=!)).[82]

The first record of the application of this title to a Bishop of Rome appears in a synod of 495 with reference to Pope Gelasius I.[83] But at that time, and down to the 9th century, other bishops too referred to themselves as vicars of Christ, and for another four centuries this description was sometimes used of kings and even judges,[84] as it had been used in the 5th and 6th centuries to refer to the Byzantine emperor.[85] Earlier still, in the 3rd century, Tertullian used "vicar of Christ" to refer to the Holy Spirit[86][87] sent by Jesus.[88] Its use specifically for the Pope appears in the 13th century in connection with the reforms of Pope Innocent III,[85] as can be observed already in his 1199 letter to Leo I, King of Armenia.[89] Other historians suggest that this title was already used in this way in association with the pontificate of Pope Eugenius III (1145–1153).[83]

This title "Vicar of Christ" is thus not used of the Pope alone and has been used of all bishops since the early centuries.[90] The Second Vatican Council referred to all bishops as "vicars and ambassadors of Christ",[91] and

this description of the bishops was repeated by Pope John Paul II in his encyclical *Ut unum sint*, *(http://www.vatican.va/edocs/ENG0221/__PT.HTM)* 95. The difference is that the other bishops are vicars of Christ for their own local churches, the Pope is vicar of Christ for the whole Church.[92]

On at least one occasion the title "Vicar of God" (a reference to Christ as God) was used of the pope.[82]

The title "Vicar of Peter" (*Vicarius Petri*) is used only of the Pope, not of other bishops. Variations of it include: "Vicar of the Prince of the Apostles" (*Vicarius Principis Apostolorum*) and "Vicar of the Apostolic See" (*Vicarius Sedis Apostolicae*).[82] Saint Boniface described Pope Gregory II as vicar of Peter in the oath of fealty that he took in 722.[93] In today's Roman Missal, the description "vicar of Peter" is found also in the collect of the Mass for a saint who was a pope.[94]

Pontiff

The term "pontiff" is derived from the Latin word *pontifex*, which literally means "bridge builder" (*pons* + *facere*),[95] and which designated a member of the principal college of priests in ancient Rome.[95][96][97] The Latin word was translated into ancient Greek variously: as ἱεροδιδάσκαλος, ἱερονόμος, ἱεροφύλαξ, ἱεροφάντης,[98] or ἀρχιερεύς (high priest)[99][100] The head of the college was known as the Pontifex Maximus (the greatest pontiff).[101]



Entrance to Vatican City, with inscription "Benedictus XVI Pont(ifex) Max(imus) Anno Domini MMV Pont(ificatus) I.", i.e., "Benedict XVI, Pontifex Maximus, in the year of Our Lord 2005, the first year of his pontificate."

In Christian use, *pontifex* appears in the Vulgate translation of the New Testament to indicate the Jewish high priest (in the original, ἀρχιερεύς).[102] The term came to be applied to any Christian bishop,[103] but since the 11th century commonly refers specifically to the Bishop of Rome,[104] who is more strictly called the "Roman Pontiff". The use of the term to refer to bishops in general is reflected in the terms "Roman Pontifical" (a book containing rites reserved for bishops, such as confirmation and ordination)[105] and "pontificals" (the insignia of bishops).[106]

The *Annuario Pontificio* lists as one of the official titles of the pope that of "Supreme Pontiff of the Universal Church" (in Latin, *Summus Pontifex Ecclesiae Universalis*).[107] He is also commonly called the Supreme Pontiff or the Sovereign Pontiff (in Latin, *Summus Pontifex*).

Pontifex Maximus, similar in meaning to *Summus Pontifex*, is a title commonly found in inscriptions on papal buildings, paintings, statues and coins, usually abbreviated as "Pont. Max" or "P.M." The office of pontifex maximus, or head of the college of pontiffs, was held by Julius Caesar and thereafter by the Roman emperors until Gratian (375-383) relinquished it.[108][109][110] Tertullian, when he had become a Montanist, used the title derisively of either the Pope or the Bishop of Carthage.[111] The Popes began to use this title regularly only in the 15th century.[111]

Servant of the Servants of God

The title "Servant of the Servants of God", although used by Church leaders including St. Augustine and St. Benedict, was first used by Pope St. Gregory the Great in his dispute with the Patriarch of Constantinople after

the latter assumed the title "Ecumenical Patriarch". It was not reserved for the pope until the 13th century. The documents of the Second Vatican Council reinforced the understanding of this title as a reference to the pope's role as a function of collegial authority, in which the Bishop of Rome serves the world's bishops.

Patriarch of the West

From 1863 until 2005, the *Annuario Pontificio* included also the title "Patriarch of the West". This title was first used by Pope Theodore I in 642, and was only used occasionally. Indeed, it did not begin to appear in the pontifical yearbook until 1863. On 22 March 2006, the Vatican released a statement explaining this omission on the grounds of expressing a "historical and theological reality" and of "being useful to ecumenical dialogue". The title Patriarch of the West symbolized the pope's special relationship with, and jurisdiction over, the Latin Church—and the omission of the title neither symbolizes in any way a change in this relationship, nor distorts the relationship between the Holy See and the Eastern Churches, as solemnly proclaimed by the Second Vatican Council.[112]

Other titles

Other titles commonly used are "His Holiness", "Holy Father". In Spanish and Italian, "*Beatísimo/Beatissimo Padre*" (Most Blessed Father) is often used in preference to "*Santísimo/Santissimo Padre*" (Most Holy Father). In the medieval period, "*Dominus Apostolicus*" ("the Apostolic Lord") was also used.

Signature

As indicated above, the Pope normally signs documents using the title "Papa" in the abbreviated form "PP." and with the numeral, as in "Benedictus PP. XVI" (Pope Benedict XVI). Exceptions are bulls of canonization and decrees of ecumenical councils, which the Pope signs with the formula, "Ego N. Episcopus Ecclesiae catholicae", without the numeral, as in "Ego Paulus Episcopus Ecclesiae catholicae" (I, Paul, Bishop of the catholic/universal Church).[113] The Pope's signature is followed, in bulls of canonization, by those of all the cardinals resident in Rome, and in decrees of ecumenical councils, by the signatures of the other bishops participating in the council, each signing as Bishop of a particular see.

Papal bulls are headed *N. Episcopus Servus Servorum Dei* ("Name, Bishop, Servant of the Servants of God"). In general, they are not signed by the Pope, but Pope John Paul II introduced in the mid-1980s the custom by which the Pope signs not only bulls of canonization but also, using his normal signature, such as "Benedictus PP. XVI", bulls of nomination of bishops.

Regalia and insignia

Main article: Papal regalia and insignia

- "Triregnum", also called the "tiara" or "triple crown", represents the pope's three functions as "supreme pastor", "supreme teacher" and "supreme priest". Recent popes have not, however, worn the *triregnum*, though it remains the symbol of the papacy and has not been abolished. In liturgical ceremonies the Pope wear an episcopal mitre (an erect cloth hat).
- Pastoral Staff topped by a crucifix, a custom established before the 13th century (see papal cross).
- Pallium, or pall, a circular band of fabric worn around the neck over the chasuble. It forms a yoke about the neck, breast and shoulders and has two pendants hanging down in front and behind, and is ornamented with six crosses. Previously, the pallium worn by the Pope was identical to those he granted to the primates, but in 2005 Pope Benedict XVI began to use a distinct papal pallium that is larger than the

primatial, and was adorned with red crosses instead of black.
- "Keys to the Kingdom of Heaven", the image of two keys, one gold and one silver. The silver key symbolizes the power to bind and loose on Earth, and the gold key the power to bind and loose in Heaven.
- Ring of the Fisherman, a gold ring decorated with a depiction of St. Peter in a boat casting his net, with the Pope's name around it.
- *Umbraculum* (better known in the Italian form *ombrellino*) is a canopy or umbrella consisting of alternating red and gold stripes, which used to be carried above the pope in processions.
- *Sedia gestatoria*, a mobile throne carried by twelve footmen (*palafrenieri*) in red uniforms, accompanied by two attendants bearing *flabella* (fans made of white ostrich feathers), and sometimes a large canopy, carried by eight attendants. The use of the *flabella* was discontinued by Pope John Paul I. The use of the *sedia gestatoria* was discontinued by Pope John Paul II.



The coat of arms of the Holy See. That of the State of Vatican City is the same except that the positions of the gold and silver keys are interchanged.[114]

In heraldry, each pope has his own Papal Coat of Arms. Though unique for each pope, the arms are always surmounted by the two keys in saltire (i.e., crossed over one another so as to form an *X*) behind the escutcheon (shield) (one silver key and one gold key, tied with a red cord), and above them a silver *triregnum* with three gold crowns and red *infulae* (lappets—two strips of fabric hanging from the back of the triregnum which fall over the neck and shoulders when worn). This is blazoned: "two keys in saltire or and argent, interlacing in the rings or, beneath a tiara argent, crowned or"). With the recent election of Benedict XVI in 2005, his personal coat of arms eliminated the papal tiara; a mitre with three horizontal lines is used in its place, with the pallium, a papal symbol of authority more ancient than the tiara, the use of which is also granted to metropolitan archbishops as a sign of communion with the See of Rome, was added underneath of the shield. The distinctive feature of the crossed keys behind the shield was maintained. The omission of the tiara in the Pope's personal coat of arms, however, did not mean the disappearance of it from papal heraldry, since the coat of arms of the Holy See was kept unaltered.

The flag most frequently associated with the pope is the yellow and white flag of Vatican City, with the arms of the Holy See (blazoned: "Gules, two keys in saltire or and argent, interlacing in the rings or, beneath a tiara argent, crowned or") on the right-hand side (the "fly") in the white half of the flag (the left-hand side—the "hoist"—is yellow). The pope's escucheon does not appear on the flag. This flag was first adopted in 1808, whereas the previous flag had been red and gold, the traditional colors of the papacy. Although Pope Benedict XVI replaced the triregnum with a mitre on his personal coat of arms, it has been retained on the flag.

Status and authority

Main articles: Primacy of the Roman Pontiff and Papal infallibility

First Vatican Council

The status and authority of the Pope in the Catholic Church was dogmatically defined by the First Vatican Council on 18 July 1870. In its Dogmatic Constitution of the Church of Christ, the Council established the following canons:[115]

"If anyone says that the blessed Apostle Peter was not established by the Lord Christ as the chief of all the apostles, and the visible head of the whole militant Church, or, that the same received great honour but did not

receive from the same our Lord Jesus Christ directly and immediately the primacy in true and proper jurisdiction: let him be anathema.[116]

If anyone says that it is not from the institution of Christ the Lord Himself, or by divine right that the blessed Peter has perpetual successors in the primacy over the universal Church, or that the Roman Pontiff is not the successor of blessed Peter in the same primacy, let him be anathema.[117]

If anyone thus speaks, that the Roman Pontiff has only the office of inspection or direction, but not the full and supreme power of jurisdiction over the universal Church, not only in things which pertain to faith and morals, but also in those which pertain to the discipline and government of the Church spread over the whole world; or, that he possesses only the more important parts, but not the whole plenitude of this supreme power; or that this power of his is not ordinary and immediate, or over the churches altogether and individually, and over the pastors and the faithful altogether and individually: let him be anathema.[118]



To maintain contacts with local clergymen and Catholic communities, the popes grant private audiences as well as public ones. Here the Canons Regular of the Holy Cross from Uden (Netherlands) are received by Pope Pius XII.

We, adhering faithfully to the tradition received from the beginning of the Christian faith, to the glory of God, our Saviour, the elevation of the Catholic religion and the salvation of Christian peoples, with the approbation of the sacred Council, teach and explain that the dogma has been divinely revealed: that the Roman Pontiff, when he speaks ex cathedra, that is, when carrying out the duty of the pastor and teacher of all Christians by his supreme apostolic authority he defines a doctrine of faith or morals to be held by the universal Church, through the divine assistance promised him in blessed Peter, operates with that infallibility with which the divine Redeemer wished that His church be instructed in defining doctrine on faith and morals; and so such definitions of the Roman Pontiff from himself, but not from the consensus of the Church, are unalterable. But if anyone presumes to contradict this definition of Ours, which may God forbid: let him be anathema."[119]

Second Vatican Council

In its Dogmatic Constitution on the Church (1964), the Second Vatican Council declared:



Pope Pius XII, wearing the traditional 1877 Papal Tiara, is carried through St Peter's Basilica on a *sedia gestatoria* c. 1955.

"Among the principal duties of bishops the preaching of the Gospel occupies an eminent place. For bishops are preachers of the faith, who lead new disciples to Christ, and they are authentic teachers, that is, teachers endowed with the authority of Christ, who preach to the people committed to them the faith they must believe and put into practice, and by the light of the Holy Spirit illustrate that faith. They bring forth from the treasury of Revelation new things and old, making it bear fruit and vigilantly warding off any errors that threaten their flock. Bishops, teaching in communion with the Roman Pontiff, are to be respected by all as witnesses to divine and Catholic truth. In matters of faith and morals, the bishops speak in the name of Christ and the faithful are to accept their teaching and adhere to it with a religious assent. This religious submission of mind and will must be shown in a special way to the authentic magisterium of the Roman Pontiff, even when he is not speaking ex cathedra; that is, it must be shown so that his supreme magisterium is acknowledged with reverence, the judgments made by him are sincerely adhered to, according to his manifest mind and will. His mind and will in the matter may be known either from the character of the documents, from

his frequent repetition of the same doctrine, or from his manner of speaking.

... this infallibility with which the Divine Redeemer willed His Church to be endowed in defining doctrine of faith and morals, extends as far as the deposit of Revelation extends, which must be religiously guarded and faithfully expounded. And this is the infallibility which the Roman Pontiff, the head of the college of bishops, enjoys in virtue of his office, when, as the supreme shepherd and teacher of all the faithful, who confirms his brethren in their faith, by a definitive act he proclaims a doctrine of faith or morals. And therefore his definitions, of themselves, and not from the consent of the Church, are justly styled irreformable, since they are pronounced with the assistance of the Holy Spirit, promised to him in blessed Peter, and therefore they need no approval of others, nor do they allow an appeal to any other judgment. For then the Roman Pontiff is not pronouncing judgment as a private person, but as the supreme teacher of the universal Church, in whom the charism of infallibility of the Church itself is individually present, he is expounding or defending a doctrine of Catholic faith. The infallibility promised to the Church resides also in the body of Bishops, when that body exercises the supreme magisterium with the successor of Peter. To these definitions the assent of the Church can never be wanting, on account of the activity of that same Holy Spirit, by which the whole flock of Christ is preserved and progresses in unity of faith."[120]

Politics of the Holy See

Residence and jurisdiction



Pope Pius VII, bishop of Rome, next to Cardinal Caprara. The Pope wears the pallium, a liturgical vestment that is used heraldically at the foot of the coat of arms of Benedict XVI.

The pope's official seat or cathedral is the Basilica of St. John Lateran, and his official residence is the Palace of the Vatican. He also possesses a summer residence at Castel Gandolfo, situated on the site of the ancient city of Alba Longa. Until the time of the Avignon Papacy, the residence of the Pope was the Lateran Palace, donated by the Roman Emperor Constantine the Great.

The Pope's ecclesiastical jurisdiction (the Holy See) is distinct from his secular jurisdiction (Vatican City). It is the Holy See that conducts international relations; for hundreds of years, the papal court (the Roman Curia) has functioned as the government of the Catholic Church.

The names "Holy See" and "Apostolic See" are ecclesiastical terminology for the ordinary jurisdiction of the Bishop of Rome (including the Roman Curia); the pope's various honors, powers, and privileges within the Catholic Church and the international community derive from his Episcopate of Rome in lineal succession from the Apostle Saint Peter (see Apostolic Succession). Consequently, Rome has traditionally occupied a central position in the Catholic Church, although this is not necessarily so. The Pope derives his pontificate from being Bishop of Rome but is not required to live there; according to the Latin formula *ubi Papa, ibi Curia*, wherever the Pope resides is the central government of the Church, provided that the pope is Bishop of Rome. As such, between 1309 and 1378, the popes lived in Avignon, France (see Avignon Papacy), a period often called the Babylonian Captivity in allusion to the Biblical exile of Israel.

Though the Pope is the diocesan Bishop of the Diocese of Rome, he delegates most of the day-to-day work of leading the diocese to the Cardinal Vicar, who assures direct episcopal oversight of the diocese's pastoral needs, not in his own name but in that of the Pope. The current Cardinal Vicar is Agostino Vallini, who was appointed to the office in June 2008.

Political role

Main article: Politics of the Vatican City



Antichristus, a woodcut by Lucas Cranach of the pope using the temporal power to grant authority to a generously contributing ruler

Though the progressive Christianisation of the Roman Empire in the 4th century did not confer upon bishops civil authority within the state, the gradual withdrawal of imperial authority during the 5th century left the pope the senior imperial civilian official in Rome, as bishops were increasingly directing civil affairs in other cities of the Western Empire. This status as a secular and civil ruler was vividly displayed by Pope Leo I's confrontation with Attila in 452. The first expansion of papal rule outside of Rome came in 728 with the Donation of Sutri, which in turn was substantially increased in 754, when the Frankish ruler Pippin the Younger gave to the pope the land from his conquest of the Lombards. The pope may have utilized the forged Donation of Constantine to gain this land, which formed the core of the Papal States. This document, accepted as genuine until the 15th century, states that Constantine I placed the entire Western Empire of Rome under papal rule. In 800 Pope Leo III crowned the Frankish ruler Charlemagne as Roman Emperor, a major step toward establishing what later became known as the Holy Roman Empire; from that date onward the popes claimed the prerogative to crown the Emperor, though the right fell into disuse after the coronation of Charles V in 1530. Pope Pius VII was present at the coronation of Napoleon I in 1804, but did not actually perform the crowning. As mentioned above, the pope's sovereignty over the Papal States ended in 1870 with their annexation by Italy.

Sovereign of the State of the Vatican City



Coat of Arms of the Vatican



Incumbent:
Benedict XVI

Style	His Holiness
Residence	Papal Palace
First Sovereign	Pope Pius XI
Formation	11 February 1929
Website	http://www.va

Popes like Alexander VI, an ambitious if spectacularly corrupt politician, and Pope Julius II, a formidable general and statesman, were not afraid to use power to achieve their own ends, which included increasing the power of the papacy. This political and temporal authority was demonstrated through the papal role in the Holy Roman Empire (especially prominent during periods of contention with the Emperors, such as during the Pontificates of Pope Gregory VII and Pope Alexander III). Papal bulls, interdict, and excommunication (or the threat thereof) have been used many times to increase papal power. The Bull *Laudabiliter* in 1155 authorized Henry II of England to invade Ireland. In 1207, Innocent III placed England under interdict until King John made his kingdom a fiefdom to the Pope, complete with yearly tribute, saying, "we offer and freely yield...to our lord Pope Innocent III and his catholic successors, the whole kingdom of England and the whole kingdom of Ireland with all their rights and appurtenences for the remission of our sins".[121] The Bull *Inter caetera* in 1493

led to the Treaty of Tordesillas in 1494, which divided the world into areas of Spanish and Portuguese rule. The Bull *Regnans in Excelsis* in 1570 excommunicated Elizabeth I of England and declared that all her subjects were released from all allegiance to her. The Bull *Inter Gravissimas* in 1582 established the Gregorian Calendar.[122]

International position

Under international law, a serving head of state has sovereign immunity from the jurisdiction of the courts of other countries, though not from that of international tribunals.[123][124][125] This immunity is sometimes loosely referred to as "diplomatic immunity", which is, strictly speaking, the immunity enjoyed by the *diplomatic representatives* of a head of state.

International law treats the Holy See, essentially the central government of the Roman Catholic Church, as the juridical equal of a state. It is distinct from the state of Vatican City, existing for many centuries before the foundation of the latter. (It is common, however, for publications to use "Holy See", "Vatican/Vatican City", and even "Rome" interchangeably, and incorrectly.) Most countries of the world maintain the same form of diplomatic relations with the Holy See that they entertain with other states. Even countries without those diplomatic relations participate in international organizations of which the Holy See is a full member.

It is as head of the Holy See, not of Vatican City, that the U.S. Justice Department ruled that the Pope enjoys head-of-state immunity.[126] This head-of-state immunity, recognized by the United States, must be distinguished from that envisaged under the United States' Foreign Sovereign Immunities Act of 1976, which, while recognizing the basic immunity of foreign governments from being sued in American courts, lays down nine exceptions, including commercial activity and actions in the United States by agents or employees of the foreign governments. It was in relation to the latter that, in November 2008, the United States Court of Appeals in Cincinnati decided that a case over sexual abuse by Catholic priests could proceed, provided the plaintiffs could prove that the bishops accused of negligent supervision were acting as employees or agents of the Holy See and were following official Holy See policy.[127][128]

In April 2010 there was press coverage in Britain concerning a proposed plan by atheist campaigners and a prominent barrister to have Pope Benedict XVI arrested and prosecuted in the UK for alleged offences, dating from several decades before, in failing to take appropriate action regarding Catholic sex abuse cases and concerning their disputing his immunity from prosecution in that country.[129] This was generally dismissed as "unrealistic and spurious".[130] Another barrister said that it was a "matter of embarrassment that a senior British lawyer would want to allow himself to be associated with such a silly idea".[131]

Objections to the papacy

The Pope's claim to authority is either disputed or not recognised at all by other churches. The reasons for these objections differ from denomination to denomination.

Orthodox, Anglican and Old Catholic churches

Other traditional Christian churches (Assyrian Church of the East, the Oriental Orthodox Church, the Eastern Orthodox Church, the Old Catholic Church, the Anglican Communion, the Independent Catholic Churches, etc.) accept the doctrine of Apostolic Succession and, to varying extents, papal claims to a primacy of honour while generally rejecting that the pope is the successor to Peter in any unique sense not true of any other bishop. Primacy is regarded as a consequence of the pope's position as bishop of the original capital city of the Roman Empire, a definition explicitly spelled out in the 28th canon of the Council of Chalcedon. These churches see no

foundation to papal claims of *universal immediate jurisdiction*, or to claims of papal infallibility. Several of these churches refer to such claims as *ultramontanism*.



Antichristus, by Lucas Cranach the Elder, from Luther's 1521 *Passionary of the Christ and Antichrist*. The Pope is signing and selling indulgences.

Protestant denominations

Main article: Historicism (Christian eschatology)

Many Christian denominations reject the claims of Petrine primacy of honor, Petrine primacy of jurisdiction, and papal infallibility. These denominations vary from simply not accepting the Pope's claim to authority as legitimate and valid, to believing that the Pope is the Antichrist[132] from 1 John 2:18 (http://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=1%20John%202:18;&version=9;) ,[133] the Man of Sin from 2 Thessalonians 2:3-12 (http://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=2%20Thessalonians%202:3-12&version=9) ,[134] and the Beast out of the Earth from Revelation 13:11-18 (http://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=Revelation%2013:11-18;&version=9;) .[135] The sweeping rejection includes some denominations of Lutherans: Confessional Lutherans hold that the pope is the Antichrist, stating that this article of faith is part of a *quia* rather than *quatenus* subscription to the Book of Concord. In 1932, the Lutheran Church - Missouri Synod (LCMS) adopted *A Brief Statement of the Doctrinal Position of the Missouri Synod*, which a small number of Lutheran church bodies now hold.[136] Statement 43, *Of the Antichrist*:[137]



Antichristus, by the Lutheran Lucas Cranach the Elder. This woodcut of the traditional practice of kissing the Pope's toe is from *Passionary of the Christ and Antichrist*. The two fingers the Pope is holding up symbolizes his claim to be the Church's substitute for Christ's earthly presence.

43. As to the Antichrist we teach that the prophecies of the Holy Scriptures concerning the Antichrist, 2 Thess. 2:3-12 (http://www.biblegateway.com/passage



Christus, by Lucas Cranach. This woodcut of John 13:14–17 is from *Passionary of the Christ and Antichrist*. Cranach shows Jesus kissing Peter's foot during the footwashing. This stands in contrast to the opposing woodcut, where the Pope demands others kiss his feet.

> /?search=2%20Thess.%202:3-12&version=9) ;1 John 2:18 (http://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=1%20John%202:18;&version=9;) , have been fulfilled in the Pope of Rome and his dominion. All the features of the Antichrist as drawn in these prophecies, including the most abominable and horrible ones, for example, that the Antichrist "as God sitteth in the temple of God", 2 Thess. 2:4 (http://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=2%20Thess.%202:4;&version=9;) ; that he anathematizes the very heart of the Gospel of Christ, that is, the doctrine of the forgiveness of sins by grace alone, for Christ's sake alone, through faith alone, without any merit or worthiness in man (Rom. 3:20-28 (http://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=Rom.%203:20-28;&version=9;) ; Gal. 2:16 (http://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=Gal.%202:16;&version=9;)); that he recognizes only those as members of the Christian Church who bow to his authority; and that, like a deluge, he had inundated the whole Church with his antichristian doctrines till God revealed him through the Reformation—these very features are the outstanding characteristics of the Papacy. (Cf. Smalcald Articles, Triglot, p. 515, Paragraphs 39-41; p. 401, Paragraph 45; M. pp. 336, 258. (http://www.bookofconcord.com/smalcald.html#article4)) Hence we subscribe to the statement of our Confessions that the Pope is "the very Antichrist." (Smalcald Articles, Triglot, p. 475, Paragraph 10; M., p. 308. (http://www.bookofconcord.com/smalcald.html#article4))

The claim of temporal power over all secular governments, including territorial claims in Italy, raises objection.[138] The papacy's complex relationship with secular states such as the Roman and Byzantine Empires are also objections. Some disapprove of the autocratic character of the papal office.[139] In Western Christianity these objections both contributed to and are products of the Protestant Reformation.

Antipopes

Main articles: Antipope and Western Schism

Groups sometimes form around antipopes, who claim the Pontificate without being canonically and properly elected to it.

Traditionally, this term was reserved for claimants with a significant following of cardinals or other clergy. The existence of an antipope is usually due either to doctrinal controversy within the Church (heresy) or to confusion as to who is the legitimate pope at the time (see schism). Briefly in the 15th century, three separate lines of popes claimed authenticity (see Papal Schism). Even Catholics don't all agree whether certain historical figures were popes or antipopes. Though antipope movements were significant at one time, they are now overwhelmingly minor fringe causes.

Other uses of the title "pope"

In the earlier centuries of Christianity, the title "Pope", meaning "father", had been used by all bishops. Some popes used the term and others didn't. Eventually, the title became associated especially with the Bishop of Rome. In a few cases, the term is used for other Christian clerical authorities.

In the Roman Catholic Church

The "Black Pope" is a name that was popularly, but unofficially, given to the Superior General of the Society of Jesus due to the Jesuits' importance within the Church. This name, based on the black colour of his cassock, was used to suggest a parallel between him and the "White Pope" (since the time of Pope Pius V the Popes dresses in white) and the Cardinal Prefect of the Congregation for the Evangelization of Peoples (formerly called the Sacred Congregation for the Propagation of the Faith), whose red cardinal's cassock gave him the name of the

"Red Pope" in view of the authority over all territories that were not considered in some way Catholic. In the present time this cardinal has power over mission territories for Catholicism, essentially the Churches of Africa and Asia,[140] but in the past his competence extended also to all lands where Protestants or Eastern Christianity was dominant. Some remnants of this situation remain, with the result that, for instance, New Zealand is still in the care of this Congregation.

In the Eastern Churches

Since the papacy of Heraclas in the 3rd century, the Bishop of the Alexandria in both the Coptic Orthodox Church of Alexandria and the Greek Orthodox Church of Alexandria continue to be called "Pope", the former being called "Coptic Pope" or, more properly, "Pope and Patriarch of All Africa on the Holy Orthodox and Apostolic Throne of Saint Mark the Evangelist and Holy Apostle" and the last called "Pope and Patriarch of Alexandria and All Africa".

In the Bulgarian Orthodox Church, Russian Orthodox Church and Serbian Orthodox Church, it is not unusual for a village priest to be called a "pope" ("поп" *pop*). However, this should be differentiated from the words used for the head of the Catholic Church (Bulgarian "папа" *papa*, Russian "папа римский" *papa rimskiy*).

In New Religious Movements

Some New Religious Movements, especially those that have disassociated themselves from the Catholic Church yet retain a Catholic hierarchical framework, will use the designation "pope" for a movement's founder or current leader. One example in Africa is the Legio Maria Church of Africa. Another example is Cao Dai, a Vietnamese faith that duplicates the Catholic hierarchy, which is declared legitimate by religious authorities in Cao Dai due to the fact that, according to them, God created both Catholicism and Cao Dai.

Lengths of papal reign

Longest-reigning popes

Although the average reign of the pope from the Middle Ages was a decade, a number of those whose reign lengths can be determined from contemporary historical data are the following:

1. Pius IX (1846–1878): 31 years, 7 months and 23 days (11,560 days).
2. John Paul II (1978–2005): 26 years, 5 months and 18 days (9,665 days).
3. Leo XIII (1878–1903): 25 years, 5 months and 1 day (9,281 days).
4. Pius VI (1775–1799): 24 years, 6 months and 15 days (8,962 days).
5. Adrian I (772–795): 23 years, 10 months and 25 days (8,729 days).
6. Pius VII (1800–1823): 23 years, 5 months and 7 days (8,560 days).
7. Alexander III (1159–1181): 21 years, 11 months and 24 days (8,029 days).
8. St. Sylvester I (314–335): 21 years, 11 months and 1 day (8,005 days).
9. St. Leo I (440–461): 21 years, 1 month, and 13 days. (7,713 days).
10. Urban VIII (1623–1644): 20 years, 11 months and 24 days (7,664 days).



Pope Pius IX, the longest-reigning pope excluding Saint Peter

Saint Peter is thought to have reigned for over 30 years (AD 29 – 64?/67?), but the exact length is not reliably known.

Shortest-reigning popes

Conversely, there have been a number of popes whose reign lasted less than a month. In the following list the number of calendar days includes partial days. Thus, for example, if a pope's reign commenced on 1 August and he died on 2 August, this would count as having reigned for two calendar days.


Pope Urban VII, the shortest-reigning pope

1. Urban VII (15–27 September 1590): reigned for 13 calendar days, died before coronation.
2. Boniface VI (April 896): reigned for 16 calendar days
3. Celestine IV (25 October – 10 November 1241): reigned for 17 calendar days, died before consecration.
4. Theodore II (December 897): reigned for 20 calendar days
5. Sisinnius (15 January – 4 February 708): reigned for 21 calendar days
6. Marcellus II (9 April – 1 May 1555): reigned for 22 calendar days
7. Damasus II (17 July – 9 August 1048): reigned for 24 calendar days
8. Pius III (22 September – 18 October 1503): reigned for 27 calendar days
9. Leo XI (1–27 April 1605): reigned for 27 calendar days
10. Benedict V (22 May – 23 June 964): reigned for 33 calendar days
10. John Paul I (26 August – 28 September 1978): reigned for 33 calendar days.

Stephen (23–26 March 752), died of apoplexy three days after his election, and before his consecration as a bishop. He is not recognized as a valid pope, but was added to the lists of popes in the 15th century as *Stephen II*, causing difficulties in enumerating later popes named Stephen. He was removed in 1961 from the Vatican's list.

See also

- Caesaropapism
- History of the papacy
- Investiture Controversy
- Leaders of Christianity
- Legends surrounding the papacy
- List of canonised popes
- List of popes
- Papal coronation
- Papal inauguration
- Papal name
- Papal regalia and insignia
- Papal slippers
- Pontiff
- Prophecy of the popes
- Sedevacantism

References

Notes

1. ^ In the Annuario Pontificio, the list of popes does not assign numbers to the positions in its listing.
2. ^ Also Isaiah 22:20–22, John 21:15–17, Luke 12:41, and Luke 22:31–32.

Footnotes

1. ^ "American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language" (http://education.yahoo.com/reference/dictionary/entry/pope) . Education.yahoo.com. http://education.yahoo.com/reference/dictionary/entry/pope. Retrieved 2010-08-11.
2. ^ "Liddell and Scott" (http://artfl.uchicago.edu/cgi-bin/philologic/getobject.pl?c.51:9:99.lsj) . Artfl.uchicago.edu. http://artfl.uchicago.edu/cgi-bin/philologic/getobject.pl?c.51:9:99.lsj. Retrieved 2010-08-11.
3. ^ "Vatican City State - State and Government" (http://www.vaticanstate.va/EN/State_and_Government/) .